

Imprisonment, among the Irish at the period of these laws, does not appear as detention in a common gaol, but as a personal fettering of the culprit; and some of their subtlest distinctions concern the liability of the person bound to provide the fetters, in case of the culprit's escape. It has been suggested, with much appearance of reason, that refinements of this kind, *inter apices juris*, with which the Brehon law abounds, are rather exercises of the writer's ingenuity in framing suppositional cases illustrating classes of abstract rules than evidences of any actual application of law to the particular subjects. Such are the law of the measure of damages for injuries by bees, by cats, by the hunting hound, by traps for game, &c., all which are elaborated to a pedantic nicety. Of the courts in which these laws were administered we have but an imperfect view. The primary local tribunal was a *quasi* court baron, called the *Airecht*, composed of freemen of a certain status. The inferior classes were *écoma airechta*, that is, "impares curiæ." The office of Brehon in the court is very obscurely indicated. The stays and imparlances (*anad, esain, dithim*), &c., incident to the process of bringing causes to final judgment, and the fact that damages were, in all cases of ordinary occurrence, assessed beforehand by specific rule, gave repeated opportunities for settling out of doors. There were professional advocates and means of carrying the case to courts of higher jurisdiction, but how these were constituted does not appear; but mention is made of several gradations from the *airecht urnaidh* (sheriff's tourns?) to the *cul-aircht*, or ulterior court, which indicates some resort by way of appeal. Their rules of evidence, in addition to the testimony of the eye, admitted, in questions of title to land, that of the ear, *cluais*, or general report, and *laidh (cantus)* or history in the form of a poem publicly recited (a remarkable example of practical functions belonging to the office of a bard) as well as the evidence of landmarks or mearing stones. These, it seems (O'Curry, 2d series, Sullivan, Introd., clxxxvii.), should be sunk under the surface, as Martin in his account of the Western Isles of Scotland (p. 114) has described:—

"They preserve their boundaries from being liable to any debates by their successors, thus. They lay a quantity of the ashes of burnt wood in the ground, and put big stones above the same; and for carrying the knowledge of this to posterity, they carry some boys from both villages next the boundary and then whip 'em soundly and tell it to their children. A debate having arisen between the villages of Ose and Groban in Skye, they found ashes as above mentioned under a stone, which decided the controversy."

This gives countenance to the tradition that, prior to the reign of Aed Slaine in the 7th century, there were no fences in the country, but all was open save the walls and mounds surrounding dwellings. It is difficult to accept this statement unreservedly, partly on account of the habit of assigning fabulous origins indulged by all archaic, and notably so by the Irish writers, but chiefly because the Brehon code comprises a very full law of fences. The materials, dimensions, and several sorts of quick-setting of these are laid down with great particularity, and the rights and liabilities of adjoining owners are minutely described. Returning to the subject of judicial administration, we have a much clearer view given of the nature and incidents of process by which the jurisdiction of the court was made to attach, than of the constitution of the court itself. This was by *distress*, or the seizure of the goods of the defendant, in some cases immediate, in others preceded by summons, and, in the case of the privileged classes, by *trosgad* or fasting on the part of the plaintiff, a practice still known in some parts of India, and much relied on as an evidence of common Aryan origin for the ancient Irish and present Hindu legal systems. The distress might either remain in the hands of the defendant, if of the superior grade, by

way of attachment (*fornasc*), subject to a lien, on security for his appearing and abiding the award of the court, or it might at once be driven to a pound (*forus*). Here it was kept during a certain time or "stay" (*anad*), varying with the nature of the complaint, during which the defendant might have it back on like security. Failing this, a process of forfeiture (*lobad*) commenced, and ultimately the distress, or so much of it as sufficed to satisfy the claim, vested in the plaintiff, the defendant receiving back the balance, if any. On security being given, the merits of the dispute were determined by the court. A proceeding analogous to the action of *replevin* was thus incidental to every litigation; and this appears to have been the early course of the common law in all the local courts, not proceeding on the king's writs, both of England and Scotland, down to the times of Bracton (fo. 156. 2, Reeves's *Hist. Eng. Law*, 59), and of the enactment "Quoniam attachiamenta" (*Leges Bar. Scot.*, i. and cxi.). One of the few cases cited in the Brehon law (vol. i. p. 65) states the procedure in what was substantially an inter-tribal action of ejectment for recovery of land, in the incidents of which a resemblance is found to many principles of jurisprudence and methods of procedure of the common law of England, such as prescription, limitation, set-off, entry, ouster, distress, rescue, fresh pursuit, withernam, replevin, surety in replevin, avowry, Welsh mortgage, writ of possession, and return of distress. The case was this:—

Land had been assigned by way of Welsh mortgage in part payment of a mulct or fine. The mortgagee and his descendants remained in possession until it became a question whether the law of prescription (*rudrad*) had not given them the absolute estate. To try the title, a bailiff of the claimant tribe put his horses on the land. The bailiff of the tribe in possession drove them off, accompanying the act with an admission that formerly the claimant tribe had been in possession. The claimant's bailiff then distrained three cows of the occupier's bailiff outside his cattle shed, and drove them to the border of the territory, where they lay down. It would have been his duty here to give public notification of his proceedings, and to have driven his distress to the nearest pound of the external territory; but the cows, not having been milked, escaped, and returned to their calves, which had been left behind. The distrainer, making fresh pursuit by the traces of the milk dropped on the ground (regarded probably as a constructive keeping in view), recaptured them at daybreak at the homestead of the owner, and with them, in addition, distrained and impounded three [six?] others, taken from [out of] the door of the cattle-shed, by way of *aitherach gabail*, or second caption, to double the amount for what seems to have been considered a constructive rescue implied by the escaped beasts being again in the owner's custody. Notwithstanding these facts, the regularity of the proceeding was admitted by the tribe in possession, whose *regulus* now came forward and had back the distress, on giving pledges to try the question at law, and to return the cattle if unsuccessful. Further security was also given by him for some other liability. The action which, so far, was in the nature of replevin, now assumed the character of ejectment, and the personal wrong of ousting the bailiff who had made the entry merged in the question of title to the possession of the land. It was held that the period of prescription, being the time of three successions to the kingship, had not expired, one of the successions being irregular. The land was, therefore, still redeemable, and, on taking an account and setting off the receipts, including a mulct of less amount due by the mortgagee, against the original balance due to him, it was found he had been fully paid, and a return of the cattle was awarded, and possession of the lands delivered to the claimant. (See "On the Rudiments of the Common Law discoverable in the published portion of the *Senchus Mor*," in *Trans. Roy. Irish Academy*, vol. xxiv. p. 83, 1867.)

It appears from this that the provisions of the statute of Marlbridge (52 Henry, III. c. 4) in England, forbidding the driving of distresses beyond the bounds of the county, and of the "Regiam Majestatem" (re-enacted by 1 Robert, i. c. 7) in Scotland, requiring that when driven beyond the bounds of the territory the distress shall be exhibited before witnesses, are to be regarded not as merely introductory enactments, but as substantially declaratory of the previous state of the common law; further, that the old opinion that "all administration of justice was at first in

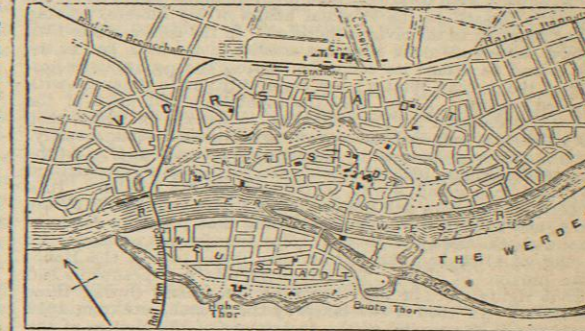
the king's hands, but afterwards, as the kingdom was divided into counties, hundreds, &c., so the administration of justice was distributed among divers courts, of which the sheriff had the government of the county court, &c.," is probably grounded on an inversion of the actual progress of the facts; and that when it is said of the right to recover land in a personal action, of set-off, and of other equitable incidents of justice, that such rights did not exist at the common law, the words "in actions commenced by original writ," should probably be understood; for there is no difficulty in conceiving how all the main incidents and principles of law disclosed by the Irish case could have arisen regularly in the county court, always a court of equity for the defendant, when the bishop was associated with the sheriff, and the right of the suitor to be his own apparitor had not yet been abrogated by the law of Canute, re-enacted by William I. (*Leg. Gul. Coug.*, xlv.). How these resemblances have come to exist in the early laws of the two islands may be a question for the historian and ethnologist. It is well to know that, whencesoever derived, the common law may to so great an extent be recognized as substantially a common inheritance of all the populations now organized into the United Kingdom. (S. F.)

BREISLAK, SCIPIONE, an eminent geologist, was born at Rome in 1748. He early distinguished himself as professor of mathematical and mechanical philosophy in the college of Ragusa; but after residing there for several years he returned to his native city, where he soon became a professor in the Collegio Nazareno, and began to form the fine mineralogical cabinet in that institution. His leisure was dedicated to geological researches in the Papal States. His account of the aluminous district of Tolfa and adjacent hills, published in 1786, gained for him the notice of the king of Naples, who invited him to inspect the mines and similar works in that kingdom, and appointed him professor of mineralogy to the Royal Artillery. The vast works for the refining of sulphur in the volcanic district of Solfatara were erected under his direction. He afterwards made many journeys through the ancient Campania to illustrate its geology, and published in 1798 his *Topografia Fisica della Campania*, which contains the interesting results of much accurate observation. Breislak also published an essay on the physical condition of the seven hills of Rome, which he regarded as the remains of a local volcano,—an opinion which more recent investigations appear to disprove. The political convulsions of Italy in 1799 brought Breislak to Paris, where he remained until 1802, when, being appointed inspector of the saltpetre and powder manufactories near Milan he removed to that city. He died on the 18th of February 1826.

During the latter part of his career he published the following works:—*Del Salnitro e dell' Arte del Salnitro*; *Memoria sulla Fabbricazione e Raffinazione del Nitro*; *Istruzione pratica per le piccole Fabbricazioni di Nitro, da farsi dalle persone di Campagna*. His valuable *Introduzione alla Geologia* appeared in 1811; a French edition with additions was published in 1819. Finally, the Austrian Government, in 1822, took on itself the expense of publishing his *Descrizione Geologica della Provincia di Milano*.

BREMEN, one of the three free cities of the new German empire, is situated on the River Weser, about 50 miles from the sea and 60 S.W. of Hamburg. The latitude of the observatory is 53° 4' 36" N., and the longitude 8° 48' 54" E. The city consists of three parts—the old town (*Alt Stadt*) and its suburban extensions (*Vorstadt*) on the right bank of the river, and the new town, dating from the Thirty Years' War, on the left. The river is crossed by three bridges, of which the last was built in 1874-5. The ramparts of the old town have long been converted into beautiful promenades and gardens, but both the old and the new town are still surrounded with moats. The area of the whole city is great in proportion to its population,

the houses in general being built to contain only one family. The public buildings, situated chiefly in the old town, comprise the following:—the cathedral, erected in the 12th century, on the site of Charlemagne's wooden church, and famous for its *Bleikeller*, or lead-vault, in which bodies may be kept a long time without suffering decomposition; the church of St. Ansgarius, built about 1243, with a spire 400 feet high; the *Rathhaus*, a building of the early part of the 15th century, with a celebrated underground wine-cellar; the town-house, formerly the archiepiscopal palace, and converted to its present uses only in 1819; the Schütting, or merchant's hall, originally built in 1619 for the guild of cloth-traders; the exchange, completed in 1867; the theatre; the town library; the high-school, a quite recent erection; and the new post-office buildings. St. Rembert's church and the colosseum may be mentioned in



Plan of Bremen.

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| 1. Cathedral. | 3. Museum.   | 5. St. Ansgarius. |
| 2. Exchange.  | 4. Rathhaus. | 6. St. Stephan.   |

the Vorstadt; and the barracks in the new town. At the head of the monetary establishments stands the *Bremer Bank*, which was founded in 1856 as a private speculation, and is only allowed to issue notes to the amount of its realized capital. Seven other banks were in operation in the beginning of 1875. There are in the city eighteen public and thirteen private schools, the former including a navigation and an industrial school, and the latter an institution for the extension of female labour.

New waterworks, constructed by an English company on the left side of the river, were opened in 1872, and supply the city with water of a good quality from the Weser; a large fire-brigade establishment has also been founded in imitation of a similar institution at Berlin; and an extensive park, the *Bürger Park*, has been laid out in the old Bürger Weide, or meadows. Railway communication is rapidly increasing, and a central terminus for all the lines is proposed. The most important of those already open connect the city directly with Hanover, with Oldenburg, with Bremerhaven, with Hamburg, and with Minden. The manufactures of Bremen are of considerable extent and variety, the most important being those of tobacco, snuff, and cigars, though they have somewhat declined since the formation of the empire. In 1872 no fewer than 2500 people were employed throughout the state in preparing cigars alone, while the making of cigar-boxes occupied 250 more. The shelling of rice is also largely carried on, and there are sugar-refineries, soap-works, shipbuilding-yards, sail-cloth factories, a large iron foundry, distilleries, asphalt-works, and colour-factories. In the extent of its foreign trade Bremen is one of the chief cities in Germany and as a port of emigration it is only rivalled by Hamburg. It deals largely with the United States, Great Britain, British India, and Russia. Its principal imports consist of cotton, tobacco, coffee, rye, rice, coals, iron goods, petroleum, glass, hides and skins, silk, wool linen, and dyes.



and its exports of many of these articles in a manufactured state. In 1874 the arrivals were 3407 vessels, with a register of 990,101 tons,—650 belonging to Bremen, 418 to Britain, and 317 to Holland. Much of the shipping trade of the city is conducted at Bremerhaven and Vegesack, because vessels drawing more than 7 feet cannot get up to the town. Among the societies of the city are a nautical association, the German Life-Boat Institution, and the chamber of commerce.

As early as 788 Bremen, then a mere fishing village, was made the seat of a bishopric by Charlemagne; and in 858 it was raised to an archbishopric by Ansgarius, archbishop of Hamburg, who had been driven from that city by the Normans about 847. The importance of Bremen soon increased; and its citizens took an active share in the more remarkable movements of the time, such as the Crusades, the establishment of the Teutonic Order, and the founding of Riga. In 1283 they joined the Hanseatic League, and in 1289 formed a treaty with Gislebert, their archbishop, by which he agreed to confine himself to the spiritual affairs of his diocese, leaving secular concerns to the civic authorities. In the course of the 14th century, there was much intestine conflict in the city, and in the 15th it had to defend its commerce against the pertinacious hostility of the Frisian pirates, but from both perils it issued with increased vigour. About 1522 the archbishop and most of the inhabitants declared for Protestantism, in defence of which they took a foremost part, and had on various occasions to suffer severely. The city was twice besieged by the imperial forces in 1547. At the peace of Westphalia (1648) the archiepiscopal diocese was secularized and raised to a grand duchy, which was ceded to Sweden. In a war between Denmark and Sweden in 1712 it was conquered by the former, and in 1715 it was purchased from that power by Hanover along with the duchy of Verden. The transfer was confirmed by the diet of 1732, and the district now forms part of the Hanoverian province of Stade. The city of Bremen had meanwhile had its civic rights more or less thoroughly recognized during these vicissitudes. In 1806 it was taken by the French, and from 1810 to 1813 it was the capital of the department of the Mouths of the Weser. Restored to independence by the congress of Vienna in 1815, it subsequently became a member of the German confederation, and in 1867 joined the new confederation of the North German States, with which it was merged in the new German empire. It has now one vote in the federal council, and sends a representative to the imperial diet. The freedom of its port is secured, and in compensation it pays an *aversum* of 250,000 thalers to the customs union.

The territory of Bremen has an area of 63,400 English acres, about 5000 acres being occupied by the towns of Bremen, Bremerhaven, and Vegesack, and about 1200 by the bed of the Weser. Of the remaining area about two-fifths are arable land and two-fifths meadowland, the extent of woodland being very slight. The soil is for the most part sandy, though here and there marshes or bogs occur. Of the population, which in 1873 was 130,871, 88,146 were inhabitants of Bremen the city, 12,129 of Bremerhaven, and 3843 of Vegesack, and 26,753 of the rural districts. With the exception of about 2800 Roman Catholics and 271 Jews, the inhabitants are Lutherans or Calvinists of various denominations. According to the constitution of 1849, modified by various enactments in 1854, the senate, which is the executive power, is composed of eighteen members, elected by the "burghership" on presentation by the senate. Of these, ten at least must be lawyers, and five merchants; and two of the number are nominated by their colleagues as burgomasters, who preside in succession, and hold office for four years, one retiring every two years. The burghership consists of 150 (formerly 300) representatives chosen from the citizens for six years. Sixteen are elected by those of the inhabitants of the city who have attended a university, 48 by the merchants, 24 by the manufacturers and artisans, and 30 by the other citizens; of the remaining representatives 6 are furnished by Bremerhaven, 6 by Vegesack, and 20 by the country population. The revenue in 1873 amounted to £545,531, and the expenditure was £1,094,222, so that the deficit was £548,691. The total debt at the end of the year was £3,676,733. The territory and city are still outside the limits of the customs union. In the whole state there were in 1870 forty-five public and thirteen private schools, with a total attendance of 12,794.

BREMER, FREDRIKA, the most celebrated Swedish novelist, was born near Abö, in Finland, on the 17th August 1801. Her father, a descendant of an old German family, was a wealthy iron master and merchant. He left Finland when Fredrika was three years old, and after a year's residence in Stockholm, purchased an estate at Arsta, about 20 miles from the capital. There, with occasional visits to Stockholm and to a neighbouring estate, which

belonged for a time to her father, Fredrika passed her time till 1820. The education to which she and her sisters were subjected was unusually strict; their parents, especially their father, were harsh and took little or no pains to understand the temperaments of the children. The constant repression, the sense of being misunderstood, and the apparent aimlessness of such an existence told with greatest force upon Fredrika, who was of a quick and eager disposition, fond of praise and conscious of powers which it seemed to her must lie for ever unused. She felt as if her life were being wasted; there was nothing on which she could expend her energy; no career was open to a woman. Her health began to give way; and in 1821 the whole family set out for the south of France. They travelled slowly by way of Germany and Switzerland, and returned by Paris and the Netherlands. It was shortly after this time that Miss Bremer became acquainted with Schiller's poetical works, which made a very deep impression on her. Her home life, however, was still unsatisfying, and in her passionate longing for some work to which she could devote herself, and through which she might do some good in the world, she for a time resolved to join one of the Stockholm hospitals as a nurse. This plan was given up on the entreaty of her sister. Meanwhile, she had found relief for her pent-up feelings in writing, or rather in continuing to write, for she had been an authoress of a sort from the age of eight. In 1828 she determined to attempt publication, and succeeded in finding a publisher. The first volume of her *Sketches of Every Day Life* (1828) at once attracted attention, and the second volume (1831), containing one of her best tales, *The H—— Family*, gave decisive evidence that a real novelist had been found in Sweden. The Swedish Academy awarded her their smaller gold medal, and the fortunate authoress became famous. From this time Miss Bremer had found her vocation. Her father had died in 1830, and her life was thereafter regulated in accordance with her own wishes and tastes. She lived for some years in Norway with a friend, after whose death she resolved to gratify a long-repressed desire for travel. In the autumn of 1849 she set out for America, and after spending nearly two years there returned through England. The admirable translations of her works by Mary Howitt, which had been received with even greater eagerness in America and England than in Sweden, secured for her a warm and kindly reception. Her impressions of America, *Homes in the New World*, were published in 1853, and were at once translated into English. After her return Miss Bremer devoted herself to her great scheme for the advancement or, one may say, emancipation of women. On this subject she had thought deeply, and her own experience was of value to her in shaping her ideas of what the education and function of woman should be. "She wished," says her sister, "that women should, like men and together with them, be allowed to study at the elementary schools and academies, in order to gain an opportunity of obtaining suitable employments and situations in the service of the state. . . . She said she was firmly convinced that women could acquire all kinds of knowledge just as well as men, that they ought to stand on the same level, and that they ought to prepare themselves in the public schools and universities to become lecturers, professors, judges, physicians, and functionaries in the service of the state" (*Life*, &c., pp. 81-2). Some of these views were expounded in her later novels, *Hertha* and *Father and Daughter*, which naturally were not so successful as her other works. Miss Bremer not only wrote of her plans, but endeavoured, so far as she could, to induce women to devote themselves to some kind of work. She organized a society of ladies in Stockholm for the purpose of visiting the prisons, and during the cholera raised a society the object of which

was the care of children left orphans by the epidemic. In 1856 she again travelled, and spent five years on the Continent and in Palestine. Her reminiscences of these countries have all been translated into English. On her return she settled at Arsta, where, with the exception of a visit to Germany, she spent the remaining years of her life. She died on the 31st December 1865. Miss Bremer has been called, and with justice, the Miss Austen of Sweden. Her novels have the purity, simplicity, and love of domestic life, which are characteristic of the English writer. She is, however, inferior to Miss Austen in construction of plot and in delineation of character. Some of her best works show slight traces of overstrained sentiment, and the situations are occasionally somewhat melo-dramatic. *The Neighbours* is the most popular and the best of her tales; it is an admirable picture of Swedish home life, showing at times the quiet humour which is more prominent in *The H—— Family*. All the works have been translated into German and English, and the greater number of them into French. In America they have circulated very widely, and have been extremely popular.

See *Life, Letters, and Posthumous Works of F. Bremer*, by her sister, translated by Milow, London, 1868.

BREMERHAVEN, a seaport town belonging to the free city of Bremen, on the right bank of the Weser at the mouth of the Geest, in 53° 32' N. lat. and 8° 34' E. long. It is built on a piece of ground surrendered to Bremen in 1827 by Hanover, and increased by treaty with Prussia in 1869. The port was opened in 1830, and there are now, besides an excellent harbour, four large wet docks, five dry docks, hydraulic cranes, and lines of railway running along the quays. The entrance is free from ice nearly all the year round, even when the other ports of the neighbouring coasts are closed, and vessels drawing 22 feet can enter safely. The town is rapidly extending and will soon be united with Geestemünde. Among its public buildings the most remarkable is the great hospitiary for emigrants, erected in 1830, which can accommodate 2500 persons. The Hanoverian fort and batteries, which formerly protected the town, have been removed, and their place is supplied by similar works farther down. The population, which in 1850 was only 3500, amounted in 1871 to 10,596.

BRENNUS, the name given in history to two kings or chiefs of the Celtic Gauls, probably not an appellative, but a title, the Cymric "*brenhin*" = king. (Dr Pritchard thinks it more probably the equivalent of the Welsh proper name "*Bran*.") The first Brennus crossed the Apennines into Italy, at the head of 70,000 of the tribe of Gauls known as Senones, and ravaged Etruria, 391 B.C. Some envoys from Rome, sent to watch their movements, were said to have taken an active part in a skirmish before the walls of Clusium; and the Gauls, failing to obtain the surrender of these men, marched at once for Rome. A Roman army of about 40,000 men was hastily despatched to meet them, and took up a position on the banks of the little river Allia, within twelve miles of the city. Here Brennus attacked and defeated them with great slaughter; and if he had pressed on at once, Rome would have lain at his mercy; for the greater part of the beaten army had placed the Tiber between themselves and the conquerors. But the Gauls lingered on the field of battle, mutilating the dead, and drinking to excess. The Romans gained time to occupy and provision the Capitol, though they had not force sufficient to defend their walls; their women and children were sent off to Veii; and when on the third day the Gauls marched in and took possession, they found the city occupied only by those aged patricians who had held high office in the state. Too old to be of service in the little garrison, and too proud to fly, they had all solemnly devoted themselves to death, and sat each in the porch of

his house, in full official robes, awaiting the invaders. For a while these withheld their hands from them, out of awe and reverence; but the ruder passions soon prevailed, and they were all slaughtered. The city was sacked and burnt; but the Capitol itself withstood a siege of more than six months, saved from surprise on one occasion only by the wakefulness of the sacred geese and the courage of Marcus Manlius. (See MANLIUS.) At last the Gauls consented to accept a ransom of a thousand pounds of gold. As it was being weighed out the Roman tribune complained of some unfairness. Brennus at once threw his heavy sword into the scale; and when asked the meaning of the act, replied that it meant "*Væ victis*"—"the weakest must go to the wall." The Gauls returned home with their plunder, leaving Rome in a condition from which she took long to recover. A later legend, most probably an invention, represents Camillus as having suddenly appeared with an avenging army at the moment when the gold was being weighed, and having defeated and cut to pieces Brennus and all his host (Livy, v. 49).

The second Celtic chief who bears the name of Brennus in history is said to have been one of the leaders of an inroad made by the Gauls from the east of the Adriatic into Thrace and Macedonia, 280 B.C., when they defeated and slew Ptolemy Ceraunus, then king of Macedonia. Whether Brennus took part in this first invasion or not is uncertain; but its success, and the rich spoils brought home, led him to urge his countrymen to a second expedition, when he marched with an army of 150,000 foot and 60,000 horse through Macedonia, defeating such forces as were brought against him, and passing thence into Thessaly, ravaging as he went, until he reached the historic pass of Thermopylæ. To this point the united forces of the Northern Greeks—Athenians, Phocians, Boeotians, and Ætolians—had fallen back; and here the Greeks a second time held their foreign invaders in check for many days, and a second time had their rear turned, owing to the treachery of some of the natives, by the same path which had been discovered to the Persians two hundred years before. Their land force, however, succeeded in getting on board the Athenian fleet, which was lying off the shore to co-operate with them. Brennus and his Gauls marched on to attack Delphi, of whose sacred treasures they had heard much. But the little force which the Delphians and their neighbours had collected—about 4000 men—favoured by the strength of their position, made a gallant and successful defence. With or without the help of Apollo, who is said to have come to the aid of his sanctuary, they rolled down rocks upon the close ranks of their enemies as they crowded into the defile, and showered missiles on them from their vantage ground. A thunderstorm, with hail and intense cold, increased their confusion, and when Brennus himself was wounded they took to flight, pursued by the Greeks all the way back to Thermopylæ. Brennus killed himself "unable to endure the pain of his wounds," says Justin, more probably determined not to return home defeated. Few of the invading force eventually escaped.

BRENTANO, CLEMENS, German dramatist and novelist, was born at Frankfort-on-the-Maine in 1777. His sister Elizabeth was the well-known Bettina von Arnim, Goethe's correspondent. He studied at Jena, and afterwards resided in Heidelberg, Vienna, and Berlin, leading a somewhat restless and unsettled life. In 1818 his disgust with all mundane affairs reached such a height that he withdrew from ordinary life and lived in the strictest seclusion at Dülmen. This continued for six years; the latter part of his life he spent in Ratisbon, Frankfort, and Munich. He died at Aschaffenburg 28th July 1842. Brentano belongs to the romantic school of German poetry, and his works, like all others of that class, are marked by excess of