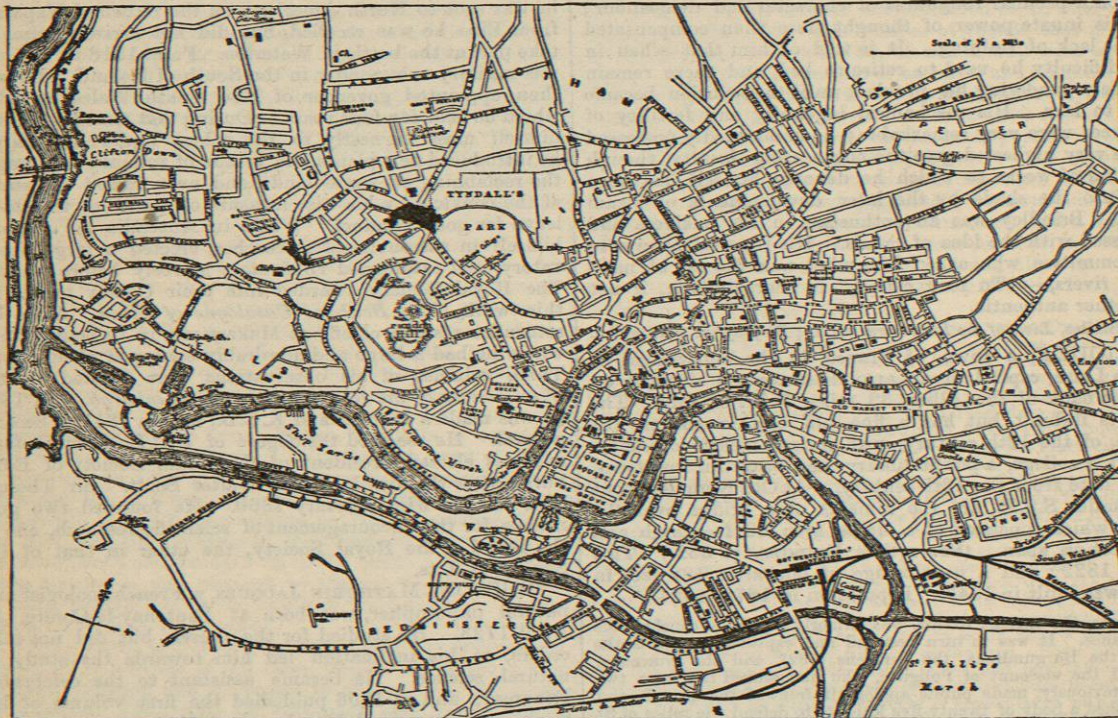


Bibliothèque philosophique du Législateur (1782) were on the philosophy of law, and showed how thoroughly Brissot was imbued with the ethical precepts of Rousseau. The first work was dedicated to Voltaire, and was received by the old *philosophe* with much favour. Brissot became known as a facile and able writer, and was engaged on the *Mercur*, on the *Courrier de l'Europe*, and on other papers, a connection with which was not creditable to him. He seems, indeed, to have sold his pen readily, and to have degraded himself by being associated with such men as De Morande. Ardently devoted, however, to the service of humanity, he projected a scheme for a general concourse of all the *savants* in Europe, and started in London a paper, *Journal du Lycée de Londres*, which was to be the organ of their views. The plan was unsuccessful, and soon after his return to Paris Brissot was lodged in the Bastille on an unfounded charge. He obtained his release after four months, and again devoted himself to pamphleteering, but



Plan of Bristol.

tain;" sentence of arrest was passed against the leading members of it on the 2d June 1793. Brissot, persuaded by his friends, attempted to escape in disguise, but was arrested at Moulins. His demeanour at the trial was quiet and dignified; and on the 31st October 1793 he died bravely with his comrades. His works are numerous, but their interest was merely temporary.

See Mignet, *Revolut. Franc.*; Carlyle, *French Revolution*; and the numerous histories of the period, particularly Lamartine's *Histoire des Girondins*.

BRISTOL, a seaport town in the west of England, is situated in 2° 35' 28" W. long., 51° 27' 6" N. lat., 108 miles from London by road, 118 by Great Western Railway, 12 miles N.W. of Bath, and 8 miles inland from Bristol Channel, with which the port communicates by the Avon. That river, as well as the Frome which unites with it at

had speedily to retire for a time to London. On this second visit he became acquainted with some of the leading Abolitionists, and attempted to set up in Paris a *Society of the Friends of the Blacks*. As an agent of this society he paid a visit to the United States, and returned just at the outbreak of the Revolution. Into this great movement Brissot threw himself heart and soul. He edited the *Patriote Français*, and being a well-informed, capable man, soon began to take a prominent part in affairs. In the National Assembly he leagued himself with the party, well known in history as the Girondists, but then frequently called the *Brissotins*. Of this party he was in many respects the ruling spirit. Vergniaud certainly was far superior to him in oratory, but Brissot was quick, eager, impetuous, and a man of wide knowledge. But he was at the same time timid and vacillating, and not qualified to struggle against the fierce energies roused by the events of the Revolution. His party fell before the "Moun-

the quay, runs through the city and forms the topographical division between Gloucestershire and Somersetshire, out of which provinces Bristol was constituted a distinct county in itself by a charter of Edward III. Its geological position is on the New Red Sandstone, which rises above the alluvial deposit of the rivers, while deep beneath these layers would be found the coal measures that succeed the millstone grit beds of the adjacent hills (250 feet in height) of Brandon and Kingsdown. The origin of the name is doubtful. Mr Seyer, the historian of Bristol, gives forty-two variations in the spelling of the word, and after showing attempted derivations from Brennus, the legendary founder of the town, Brictric, its Saxon lord, &c., finally decides for Brigstow, or Bridge-place, an etymology accepted by the author of *Words and Places*. "In fact, Bristow," says the Rev. John Earle, "is a condensed compound for *Tra-*

jectus ad Abonam," the place of the bridge at which the Avon was crossed. The vestiges of Roman occupation, however, on the site of the ancient city are scanty, and consist almost solely in the discovery at different spots of some coins of Severus and other emperors. *Caer Brito*, one of the thirty-three early cities of Britain mentioned by Nennius, is interpreted by Henry of Huntingdon (1154 A.D.) to mean Bristol. If (as now municipally) the name include the outlying heights of Clifton this interpretation may be adopted with less hesitation. 300 feet above the surface of the Avon, on both sides of the river, are Belgic British camps, with traces of superadded Roman work, one of which is comparatively perfect, a second of well-marked outline, while a third has been wantonly destroyed within the last two or three years. The existence of coins of Canute, of Harold I., of Hardicanute, of Edward the Confessor and of Harold II., of Bristol mintage, shows that the place was a centre of population under the Danes and Anglo-Saxons, but there is no positive mention of a Danish invasion except by Polydore Vergil, a 16th century historian.

The history of the town hardly begins till the subjugation of Gloucestershire by the Conqueror, in 1068. Bristol is not specially named, but there is no reason to believe that it offered any futile resistance to the sweeping tide of conquest. Early in the following year, three sons of Harold, — Godwin, Edmund, and Magnus, — resolving to reconquer the kingdom their sire had lost with his life, came at the head of fifty-two ships from Ireland up the Bristol Channel, and laying waste the coast on their way, sailed up the Avon to Bristol. Here they were sharply repulsed by the townsmen, and afterwards more thoroughly routed by Geoffry Mowbray, bishop of Coutance, nephew to the famous Tancred the crusader (*Biog. Univers.*) Though Bristol is mentioned in *Domesday*, Bristol Castle is not,

Obverse. Reverse.
Corporation Seal (Motto: *Virtute et Industria*).

but appears first in history in connection with the constabulary of the martial prelate just named, who held the fortress for Robert duke of Normandy against William Rufus. When the king had crushed the insurrection and driven the rebel churchman out of the realm, he granted the royalty, or Honour of Gloucester, which included Bristol, to his kinsman Robert Fitzhamon, who thus became feudal chief of the territory. Fitzhamon's daughter, Mabel, marrying Robert earl of Gloucester, natural son of Henry I., that noble, upon the death of his father-in-law, became lord of the tower and town of Bristol. He rebuilt the castle, which soon received as captive within its walls Robert duke of Normandy, who was afterwards removed to Gloucester's stronghold at Cardiff. The red earl of Gloucester, as he was called, was the most powerful baron of his age; and among his successes in war, was the capture of king Stephen at the battle of Lincoln, who was brought to Bristol, and, like Curthose, imprisoned in the castle, where he remained in chains till exchanged for Gloucester himself, who in his turn was defeated and captured by Stephen's queen at Winchester. Earl Robert died in 1147

¹ *Arch. Inst. Jour.*, vol. xviii. 350.

and was succeeded by William his son, whose daughter, Avisia, marrying John earl of Moreton, afterwards king John, the town and castle of Bristol became an appanage to the crown, and as such it continued to the time of Charles I. John was as many as nineteen times at Bristol, the neighbouring forest of Kingswood, which stretched 14 miles square to the east of the city, no doubt resounding frequently to the cry of his hunt.

Henry III., upon the death of John, came for security to Bristol Castle, when he permitted the town to choose a mayor after the manner of London; and in like usage that the mayor of London was sworn before the constable of the Tower, so here he was directed to be sworn before the constable of the castle of Bristol, each fortress being distinct from its respective city. This feudal custom was continued here until Edward III. conceded, among other chartered benefits, that the new mayor should take oath of office before the retiring mayor in the Guildhall of Bristol in the presence of the commonalty. Other privileges from the same monarch were the establishment here of the wool-staple, and the empowering of the mayor and sheriff to elect from time to time forty of the "better and more honest" men of the town, as a council to rate and levy taxes, &c., which common council, in nearly the same form as instituted, is yet maintained.

Richard II. confirmed all the grants of his predecessors, and directed that the steward and marshal and clerk of the royal household should not sit in the town of Bristol, as before had been granted to the city of London. In 1387 the king was at Bristol castle "with," says Froissart, "the queen and all the ladies and damsels of her court," having accompanied thus far his favourite, De Vere, towards Ireland. Two years later Henry Bolingbroke, with his vast northern army, surrounded the walls of this important western city which immediately surrendered. After four days' siege the castle also capitulated, one of the terms of the treaty with the duke of York, agreed to by its governor, Sir William Courtney, being that Lord Scrope, earl of Wilts, Sir Henry Green, and Sir John Busbie, who were within its walls, should be delivered into the hands of the duke of Lancaster. In Shakespeare's *Richard II.* is a scene wherein Bolingbroke denounces these minions of the falling cause, and orders Lord Northumberland to see them despatched. They were beheaded in the centre of the town, where then stood the high cross. Only a few years since an unsuccessful attempt was made in the House of Lords to revive the peerage of Wilts, which included the right to wear a kingly crown in the Isle of Man, that peerage having been dormant from the time Sir William Scrope here lost his head. In 1408 Lord Spencer, another adherent of the ruined dynasty, was also executed at the same spot.

By a charter of Henry VI. the town of Bristol, with its gates, ditches, walls, and markets, was farmed to the mayor and burgesses for sixty years at the annual rent of £102, 15s. 6d. to the king's household, and £57, 4s. 6d. to the abbot of Tewkesbury and to the castle. This yearly fine of £160 was granted by Edward IV. to Elizabeth his queen consort. Richard III. released £60 of this rent, and the remainder was redeemed in the reign of Charles I.

The doctrines of the Reformation were preached here by Tyndale, Cranmer, and Latimer. The issue of the dissolution of religious houses, of which thirteen encircled the outer walls of the city, was the erection here of a bishopric (1542) by the conversion of the abbey church of Austin canons into a cathedral. It has singularly escaped the notice of every writer that the episcopate was refounded in 1551, by power of letters apostolic directed by Pope Paul IV. to Cardinal Pole; a MS. copy of the original Bull is in the Bristol Museum. The transitional epoch from the Papal to the Protestant faith was stained here by the

blood of five martyrs; to which number we may add a sixth, James Duke, who belonged to Bristol, but suffered in Kent. About the beginning of autumn 1559 "the church wardens of all the churches of Bristol," says an unpublished chronicle noticed below, "and some of the ministers, brought forth their roods and other images, which were in their churches, to the High Cross where they were burnt."

The detachment of the castle from the county of Gloucester, and its grant to and incorporation with the town of Bristol by Charles I. (1629) at the request of Henrietta Maria, was another important surrender from the Crown, but the charter cost the city £949, and the castle was to be holden at a fine of £40 yearly. As London was called the King's Royal Chamber, so Bristol was called the Queen's Royal Chamber; but courtly favours were all practically cancelled by the infliction of the ship-money tax. By the king's writ (of October 20, 1634), £6500 was charged on Bristol for this impost, and there were further taxations in successive years. The payment of these assessments became at length so dilatory as to draw down (1638) a sharp reprimand from Government upon the mayor, with the threat,—"if you give not his majesty better satisfaction we shall take a course to make you sensible of your duty" (*Cal. State Papers*).

The hurtful interference with the trade of the place (such as the limitation in the manufacture of soap to 600 tons yearly, which article had been from the 12th century, and is even now, one of the chief of Bristol productions) prepared the way for the easy admission of Col. Essex and his troops, when in 1643 he presented himself before the gates of the city. The Parliament held the place from 5th December 1642 to 26th July in the following year, when Prince Rupert, with his cavaliers, surrounded the walls, and storming at all points frightened the governor, Col. Fiennes, who had succeeded Essex, into capitulation. In August 1645 the city was assaulted by Fairfax and Cromwell, and on the 20th day of the siege, it having been heard that the king was in full march upon the west, a storm was decided upon, and after a sharp assault on the 11th of September, Rupert surrendered. "We had not killed of ours in the storm," says Cromwell, "nor in all this siege, two hundred men. He who runs may read that all this is none other than the work of God. He must be a very atheist that doth not acknowledge it." Ten years later the castle was demolished by order of the Protector. The history during the next century and a half is unmarked by any very striking events. The rise of Non-conformity; the persecution of the Quakers, of whom 103 were in Bristol prisons at the accession of Charles II.; the visit of the sanguinary Jefferies on his famous western assizes, when six persons were condemned and executed on Redcliff hill, are some of the chief phases and incidents during this period. In 1684 was given the charter granting that "the citizens and inhabitants of Bristol and their successors hereafter for ever may and shall be a body corporate in deed, fact, and name, by the name of the Mayor, Burgesses, and Commonalty of the City of Bristol, with a common seal." In 1685 James II. stopped here on his way to Sedgemoor; and he again visited Bristol in the following year, and was handsomely entertained. The bishop of Bristol at the time was Lake, one of the historical seven, who was succeeded by Trelawny, another of the seven. The greatest merchant in Bristol at this period was Edward Colston, whose profuse benevolence has made his name splendid among the citizens. In the foundation of schools and almshouses, repairs of churches, &c., he gave £70,695, a vast sum in these days. He died in 1721. Three influential societies instituted to his memory yearly assemble at public dinners, where they collect alms for lying-in women, for apprenticing boys, &c. Up to the end of 1874 the amounts

collected from their commencement by these—the Dolphin, Anchor, and Grateful societies—have attained an aggregate of £118,013. At the election of 1774 Bristol was represented in the person of the famous Edmund Burke, but his policy did not please all his constituents, and he consequently lost his seat here for the next Parliament. His defensive speech on the hustings of Bristol "is one of the most convincing pieces of popular oratory on record." The Bridge Riots of 1793 and the Reform Riots of 1831 are dark spots on the history of Bristol. Bright-stow, or Bright-place, as old Fuller interpreted the name. The former were the result of opposition to the prolonged impost of toll which it was prevalently understood was to cease by a certain day. About forty persons lost their lives by a charge of the military on this occasion. The Reform Riots have been called "The Bristol Revolution," but were simply a revolt of the lowest stratum of society, in whom mania for plunder superseded all political principle. Forty-five houses, the bishop's palace, and the prisons were burnt to the ground; twelve of the rioters were killed by the soldiers, several perished in their own fires, four were hanged, thirty were imprisoned; the colonel of the troops committed suicide, and the city was mulcted in £68,208 damages. The next year the cholera visited the people, when 626 died of the malady.

The nautical enterprise of Bristol has been worthy of a place that "seems to swim on the waters" and struck the eye of Pope the poet as having its streets full of ships. Some remarkable voyages from the port are recorded, but perhaps none more memorable than that of Sebastian Cabot in 1497, who was the first Englishman (for he was born in Bristol) who landed in America, and the earliest to discover that portion of the continent now called the United States, and thereby to secure its English colonization. The notice in a hitherto unpublished local chronicle is as follows:—"This year (1497), on St John the Baptist's day, the land of America was found by the merchants of Bristowe in a ship of Bristol called the 'Matthew,' the which said ship departed from the port of Bristowe the 2d of May, and came home again 6th August following." A Bristol privateer brought home from Juan Fernandez the real Robinson Crusoe. The saucy "Arethusa" frigate, celebrated for naval daring by Dibdin in song and by Capt. Chamier in romance, was built at and belonged to Bristol. The first steamboat built and fitted at the same port was the "Wye," in 1827. Bristol was the first city in the kingdom that established regular steam communication with the United States, the first voyage having been made by the "Great Western" in 1838. This vessel was built at Bristol at a cost of £60,000. The "Great Britain" and the ill-fated "Demerara" were also built here, the former costing £120,000.

The creation of Bristol a free port in 1848 has resulted in great increase of trade. The tonnage of foreign vessels (exclusive of Ireland) with cargoes entering the town, was in 1846, 100,722; in 1873, 411,014; in 1874, 432,940. The quantity of grain of all kinds imported between April 1874 and April 1875 was 1,062,007 quarters; of wine, 7459 pipes; of timber, 34,740 tons; of sugar, 83,858 tons. With respect to the shoe manufacture, in January 1857, leave was given by Government to Mr Ellis of Bristol, to send 1000 dozen of shoes to Barbadoes, and another 1000 dozen in December. The combined shoe trade now employs 5000 hands, one-firm, Derham's, alone paying in wages £50,000 per annum. Fry's chocolate and cocoa works occupy between 500 and 600 hands. The soap trade engages about 400 hands. In the Great Western Cotton Works about 1500 are employed; in the stay trade 2000 people. Bristol stands fourth of all the seaport English towns in the amount of customs revenue received. The gross amount in 1864

¹ These important dates have not (at least the two latter) till now been published. They are from an ancient manuscript for several generations in possession of the Fust family of Hill Court, Gloucestershire, the "collations" of which are now (1876) in the keeping of Mr William George, bookseller, Bristol.

was £1,103,000; this had increased in 1866 to £1,174,181, and decreased in 1873 to £941,679. The inland revenue received in the year 1874-5 was £467,091.

The boundaries of the city within its ancient limits comprised 755 acres, and the districts added by the Municipal Act (5 and 6 Wm. IV.) contained 4124 acres, making a total of 4879 acres. The population of the ancient city and of these districts according to the census returns of the present century has been as follows:—

Year.	Ancient City.	Added Districts.	Total.
1801	40,814	20,339	61,153
1811	46,592	24,891	71,483
1821	52,889	32,219	85,108
1831	59,074	45,334	104,408
1841	64,266	60,880	125,146
1851	65,716	71,612	137,328
1861	66,027	88,066	154,093
1871	62,662	119,890	182,552

The entire rateable value in 1861 was £508,988; in 1871, £719,983. The circuit of the municipal boundaries is 15 miles. The town is divided into 10 wards, returning 48 members to the town council, selected by the burgesses, with 16 aldermen, chosen by the council,—64 members in all. There are 30 acting justices of the peace, appointed by the lord chancellor, the mayor being chief magistrate. Bristol returns two members to Parliament.

The amount of the poor-rate levied from house to house by the churchwardens in 1696 (the year before the Incorporation Act) was £2145. At the present time it is £36,000, in addition to the other rates. The rateable value for poor-rate in 1874 was £759,441, at about 1s. 9d. in the pound, or £66,451, 1s. 9d. The local taxation in 1874 was an average total of 5s. 4½d. in the pound. The amount paid in 1874, not including shipping dues, was £187,573.

Architecture and Public Buildings.—To a few great baronial families—the earls of Gloucester, the Berkeleys, and the Gaunts—in its early history, and to a few great merchants—the Canyngs, the Shipwards, and Framptons—in its later career, the architecture, principally ecclesiastical, for which Bristol is famous, has been due. Though much of this has been destroyed, much remains. Robert Fitzhamon's Norman tower of St Peter, the oldest church tower in Bristol, still presents its massive square to the eye. Of the castle of Robert earl of Gloucester, the walls of which were 25 feet thick at the base, nothing remains, but there still exist some walls and vaults of the later stronghold, including a fine Early English cell. The grand nave of St James's church, which the same noble also erected, and wherein he was buried, yet stands. Of Fitz Harding's abbey of Austin canons, founded in 1142, the stately entrance gateway, with its sculptured mouldings, has hardly been injured by seven centuries' exposure to rudeness of weather and greater rudeness of men. The abbot's gateway, the vestibule to the chapter room, and the chapter-room itself, which is carved with Byzantine exuberance of decoration, and acknowledged to be one of the grandest Norman rooms in Europe, are also perfect. The Early English lady chapel, the geometrical east window, and the side aisles in their singular design and beauty are other specific features of the abbey church, now the cathedral. The nave just added to the 14th century structure has cost to the present time £40,000. Besides the canopied tombs of the Berkeleys with their effigies in chain mail, and similarly unique tombs of the crosiered abbots, there are memorials to Bishop Butler, to Sterne's Eliza, and to Lady Hesketh the friend of Cowper, who are all here interred. Also there is here Mason's touching epitaph: "Take holy earth, &c.," and monuments by Baily and Chantrey. All Hallow's church has a modern Italian campanile, but is in the main 15th century, with the retention of four Norman piers in the nave; and is interesting from its connection with the ancient guild of calendarers, whose office it was "to convert Jews, instruct youths," and keep the archives of the town. Theirs was the first free library in the city, possibly in England. The

records of the church contain a singularly picturesque representation of the ancient customs of the fraternity. The chapel of the Gaunts is 13th and 14th century, and presents with its rich panelled roof, pictured windows, carved tabernacles and tombs, a concentration of mediæval Gothic art. Of St Michael's, St Thomas's, and Werburgh's, only the towers (15th century) are preserved of the old structures. St Nicholas church is modern, on a crypt of the date 1503 and earlier. Temple church, with its leaning tower, 5 feet off the perpendicular, retains nothing of the Templars' period, but is a fine building of the Decorated and following style. The tower and spire of St John's (15th century) stand on one of the gateways (same date) of the city. This church is a parallelogram, without east or west windows or aisles, but is built upon a groined crypt. St Mary le Port and St Augustine the Less are churches of the Perpendicular era, and not the richest specimens of their kind. St Philip's has an Early English tower, but its external walls and windows are for the most part debased Perpendicular. St Stephen's church, built between 1450 and 1490, is a dignified structure, but is chiefly interesting for its fan-traceried porch and stately tower, the latter being hardly surpassed by any parish tower in England. It was built entirely by the munificence of John Shipward, a wealthy merchant. The crown of Bristol architecture is, however, the church of St Mary Redcliff, which for grandeur of proportion, and elaboration of design and finish, is entitled to stand in the selectest rank of English parish churches, and might be compared with a lesser cathedral. It was built for the most part in the latter part of the 14th century by William Canyng, but the sculptured north porch, which has cost £2535 to restore, is externally Decorated, and internally Early English. The fine tower is also Decorated. The spire just added has cost £5500. The restoration of the church has extended over thirty years, at an expense of £40,000.

Among conventual remains, of the Dominican priory there exist the Early English refectory and dormitory, the latter comprising a row of fifteen original windows and an oak roof of the same date; and of St Bartholomew's hospital there is a double arch, with intervening arcades, also Early English. The small chapel of the Three Kings of Cologne, and Holy Trinity Hospital, both Perpendicular, comprise, with the remains of the Austin canonry attached to the cathedral, nearly the whole of the monastic relics.

There are many good specimens of ancient domestic architecture,—notably some arches of a grand Norman hall and some Tudor windows of Colston's house, Small Street; Canyng's house, with good Perpendicular oak roof: and St Peter's Hospital, Jacobean and earlier.

In all there are 42 Episcopal churches, and 81 dissenters' chapels,—the latter comprising 10 Baptist, 19 Congregationalist, 11 Wesleyan, and 5 Roman Catholic (besides 6 convents). The Exchange is a quadrangular colonnade, with a noble frontage by Wood of Bath. The Guildhall is modern Tudor-Gothic. The Bristol Museum and Library is a fusion of the two leading philosophical and literary societies of the district, a spacious building in the Venetian Gothic style, having been built for their joint purposes. The geological collection is among the best provincial collections; the library (40,000 vols.) is the largest in the west of England. There is also a free library, under the Act.

Among the endowed public schools are (1), the Cathedral school, founded 1542, and Cathedral college (1876); (2), the Grammar school, which has secured a high position, and has right of presentation to two university scholarships; (3), Queen Elizabeth's Hospital for 200 boys, who are educated and clothed free; (4), Colston's school; (5), Baptist college for educating young men for the Baptist ministry; (6), Redmaids' school for 120 girls, free. A Girls' Reformatory school, the first established under the Act, owes its origin to Miss Mary Carpenter, who is still lady superintendent. Up to

the end of 1874 there have been in this school 417 girls, of whom 66 were still there. During the last 4 years 87 have left, of whom 64 were earning a creditable living. The Royal Infirmary administered in 1874 to 2792 in and 23,163 out patients; the General Hospital to 1404 in and 13,512 out patients. Muller's Orphan House comprises five buildings, which have cost £115,000. The average number of inmates is 2000 children and 120 officials. The average cost of each child, exclusive of salaries, is £13 a year. Nearly £600,000 has been given for the furtherance of the work since it was begun in 1836. There is a school-board in Bristol, with 20 attached schools, and 113 schools under inspection.

See Barrett's *History of Bristol*, 1789; Seyer's *Memours of Bristol*, 1821; Dallaway's *Antiquities of Bristol*, 1834; Evans's *Chronological History of Bristol*, 1824; Bristol vol. of *Brit. Archæolog. Inst.*; Taylor, *Book about Bristol*, 1871; *Bristol and its Environs*, 1875.

BRISTOL, a town of the United States, the capital of a county in Rhode Island, is situated on a peninsula between Narraganset Bay and Mount Hope Bay, 16 miles S.E. of Providence by rail. Its trade and manufactures are considerable, but it is chiefly important as a summer watering-place. There is direct steamboat communication with Providence and New York. During the War of Independence the town was nearly destroyed by the English. Population in 1870, 5302.

BRITANNIA. The history of Britain begins with the invasion of Julius Cæsar, 55 B.C. Cæsar is the first Roman writer who mentions Britain; before him we have only a few short notices in Greek writers, who appear to have known but little about the country. The earliest notice of Britain is in Herodotus (450 B.C.), who mentions the *Tin Islands*, only to confess his ignorance about them. By the Tin Islands are probably to be understood only the Scilly Isles and Cornwall, which are said to have been known to Phœnician traders some centuries before the Christian era.

More important is a passage in Aristotle, who, writing a century later than Herodotus, is the earliest writer who mentions the British Isles by name. The passage is in the *De Mundo*, c. 3,—"Beyond the pillars of Hercules (Straits of Gibraltar) the ocean flows round the earth, and in it are two very large islands called British (*βρετανικαί λεγόμεναι*), Albion and Ierne, lying beyond the Kelti." The application of the name Britannia, to denote the larger island, is first found in Cæsar.

The etymology of the name Britannia is uncertain. Of the numerous derivations which have been proposed the most generally adopted is that which connects the word with a root *brith* (*variegatus*), in supposed allusion to the British practice of staining the body with woad; but this is not to be considered as perfectly satisfactory.

The earliest inhabitants of Britain concerning whom we have any certain knowledge are the Celts, who formed the vanguard in the great westward migration of the Indo-European or Aryan nations; but it seems certain, from the evidence of remains found in the country, that the Celts were preceded in their occupation of it by a non-Aryan race.

The Celtic family is divided into two branches—the Gaelic and the Cymric. To the former belong the Irish and the Highlanders of Scotland, to the latter the Welsh and the inhabitants of Brittany, and to these may be added the ancient Gauls, the remains of whose language seem to prove without doubt that they belonged to the Cymric and not to the Gaelic branch.

Of the Celtic inhabitants of Britain nothing is known before the time of Cæsar, whose account of them is the earliest which we possess. Somewhat abridged it is as follows:—

"The interior of Britain is inhabited by a race said to be aboriginal, the coast by invaders from Belgium, who having come over for the sake of spoil have settled in the country. For money they use either copper or pieces of iron of a certain weight. Tin is found in the interior of the country; iron on the coasts, but the quantity is small; copper is imported. The timber is of the same kinds as

in Gaul, except the beech and the fir. The climate is more temperate than in Gaul, the cold being less severe."

After a short geographical description of the island, Cæsar proceeds to speak of the inhabitants—

"By far the most civilized are the inhabitants of Cantium (Kent); they do not differ much in their customs from the Gauls. The inhabitants of the interior do not for the most part sow corn, but live on milk and flesh, and clothe themselves with skins. All the Britons stain themselves with woad, which produces a blue colour, and gives them a more formidable appearance in battle. They wear their hair long, and shave every part of the body except the head and the upper lip. Ten or twelve have wives in common. (Cæs., *B. G.* v. 12-14).

Nothing is here said as to the religion of the Britons; and we are obliged to turn for information on this head to Cæsar's account of Druidism in Gaul. We are justified in so doing by Cæsar's statement that the religious system of the Gauls was devised in Britain, and that it was still the custom for those who wished to become thoroughly versed in it to go thither for the sake of instruction. Having said that besides the common people, who are of no account and are little better than slaves, there are in Gaul two orders,—the Druids and the Knights,—Cæsar goes on to give an account of the former—

"The Druids are engaged in matters of religion, and have the care of public and private sacrifices. They are the arbiters in almost all disputes, public and private, and assign rewards and punishments. Whoever refuses to abide by their decision is excluded from the sacrifices, and thereby put outside the pale of the law.

"The Druids are exempt from military service, and from the payment of taxes. Their chief doctrine is that souls do not perish with their bodies, but are transferred after death to other bodies."—(*B. G.*, vi. 13-14.)

These are the leading points of Cæsar's short account of the Druids, which is the earliest we possess, and is the main foundation on which has been raised the elaborate Druidic system of later writers.

Politically, Britain consisted of a number of independent tribes united in a federation of the loosest kind, in which the lead was taken by the tribe which happened at any time to be the most powerful.

The Britons appear to have kept up a tolerably close intercourse with the Continent. They are first mentioned by Cæsar as sending aid to the Veneti (a Gaulish tribe whose name is preserved in that of the present town of Vannes), in their revolt against the Roman power. This was in 56 B.C.; and in the following year Cæsar resolved on an invasion of Britain, partly influenced, no doubt, by the desire of taking vengeance for the help afforded by the Britons to his enemies the Veneti. C. Volusenus having been previously sent to examine the British coast, Cæsar himself set sail from Portus Itius (probably Wissant, between Boulogne and Calais) on the night of the 26th of August 55 B.C., taking with him two legions. The opposite coast was reached early on the morning of the following day, and after a sharp struggle a landing was effected apparently somewhere near Deal. Slight resistance was now offered by the Britons, to whom peace was granted on easy terms, and the Romans hastened back to Gaul.

Early in the following summer Cæsar again started from Portus Itius, this time with a force of five legions and a corresponding body of 2000 cavalry, and landed on the coast of Britain at the same place as in the previous year. Leaving a small force to protect the ships he advanced twelve miles inland to the River Stour before meeting with the enemy. Cassivellaunus, chief of the country to the north of the Thames, had been chosen by the Britons as their general-in-chief, and under his command they for a time presented a fierce resistance to the invaders, but they were unable to withstand the steady onset of the Romans, and Cæsar soon reached and took by storm Cassivellaunus's capital. The site of this city is now unknown, but it has been

conjectured with some probability to have been Verulamium (St Albans). Cassivellaunus now sued for peace, and after receiving hostages and fixing the amount of the tribute Cæsar left the country before the end of the summer. No garrison was left behind to secure the Roman conquests, which were thus practically relinquished. For nearly a hundred years after this date the history of Britain is almost a blank. The Emperor Claudius, on his accession to the empire in 41 A.D., determined to carry out Augustus's intention of exacting the British tribute; accordingly (43 A.D.) Aulus Plautius was sent to Britain with a force of four legions, and having landed without opposition, he advanced to the northern side of the Thames, and there awaited the emperor's arrival. Plautius was soon joined by Claudius, who at once led his army against the Britons, over whom he gained a complete victory, immediately after which he returned to Rome, leaving Plautius to secure his conquests.

The war was now carried on in the west between the Roman general Vespasian, who afterwards became emperor, and the Silurian chief Caractacus (Caradoc). After a struggle of nine years Caractacus at length, in 51 A.D., met with a decisive defeat at the hands of P. Ostorius Scapula. Having fled for refuge to Cartimandua, queen of the Brigantes (a tribe occupying the district between the Tyne and the Humber), he was betrayed by her to the Romans, by whom he was taken to be led in triumph through the streets of Rome.

Ten years after this Boadicea, queen of the Iceni, a tribe occupying the present counties of Norfolk and Suffolk, took advantage of the absence in Mona (Anglesey) of the Roman prefect, Suetonius Paulinus, to excite her people to revolt. The Roman colony of Camulodunum (Colchester) was taken and sacked, and the rebellion soon seemed seriously to threaten the Roman power. Suetonius, however, hastened up from the west, and in a single battle, fought near London, inflicted a decisive defeat on the Britons, following up his victory by a massacre in which 80,000 Britons are said to have perished. Boadicea poisoned herself to avoid falling into the hands of the Romans. The spirit of insurrection was now completely crushed; a milder policy was adopted by the successors of Suetonius, and Roman civilization began rapidly to spread over the country.

The next event of importance is the arrival of Agricola as governor of Britain in year 78. Agricola's first task was to complete the subjection of the Ordovices (North Wales), and this having been speedily accomplished, he adopted, with great success, a policy of conciliation. He encouraged education and building, and succeeded in introducing Roman dress and manners among the Britons. This, says Tacitus, they in their ignorance called civilization, though it was but a part of their slavery. In 79 Agricola attacked the Brigantes, and reduced the country between the Humber and the Tyne. During five years he continued to advance further north, and in 84 he defeated a Caledonian chieftain, named Galgacus, in a great battle, the site of which it is impossible to fix, but it was probably not far from the eastern coast of Scotland at some place north of the Tay. Agricola was now recalled to Rome, and no attempt was made to maintain the conquests north of the line of forts which he had built between the Forth and the Clyde.

The remainder of the period of the Roman occupation is for the most part uneventful. In 120 the Emperor Hadrian visited the country, and built a rampart between the Tyne and the Solway Frith, in order to check the inroads of the northern tribes. In 139 a wall, called the wall of Antonine, in honour of the emperor Antoninus Pius, was built by the prefect Lollius Urbicus along the

line of Agricola's forts between the Forth and the Clyde. In 207 the Emperor Severus came to Britain in order to lead in person an expedition against the Caledonian tribes. He advanced far into Caledonia, driving the enemy before him but never meeting them in a pitched battle. No substantial advantage was gained in this desultory war, which cost the lives of 50,000 Roman soldiers. Severus built a new wall along the line of Hadrian's rampart, and died at York in 211.

The Roman empire was now in a state of decay, and its weakness offered great temptations to distant officials to seize the supreme power for themselves. About 287 the title of emperor was assumed by a man of low birth named Carausius, a native of Menapia (the district between the Scheldt and the Meuse), who had been appointed to the command of the fleet stationed in the English Channel for the purpose of protecting the coasts of Britain and Gaul from the Frisian pirates, and whose conduct in that position had been such as to draw from the emperor Maximian an order for his death. After a successful reign of seven years, in the course of which his independence was acknowledged by Maximian, Carausius was assassinated by his chief officer Allectus, who in his turn usurped the imperial title during three years, at the end of which Britain was regained for Rome by Constantius Chlorus (296). Constantius afterwards led an expedition into Caledonia, and died at York in 306.

Soon after this date the Picts and Scots begin to be heard of as invading the Roman province from the north. The Scots, who occupied the western part of Caledonia, belonged to the Gaelic branch of the Celtic family, and had crossed over from Ireland, bringing with them the name which was afterwards bestowed on their new home. The question as to the origin and the language of the Picts is one which has been long under discussion, and still seems far from a definitive settlement. The Picts are now, however, generally admitted to have been a Celtic race, and the evidence of language, as far as can be judged from the very few Pictish words, chiefly proper names, which have been preserved to us, seems to indicate the Cymric rather than the Gaelic as the branch to which they belonged. (For further information on this point see Garnett, *Philological Essays*, and Skene, *The Four Ancient Books of Wales*. Garnett holds the view that the Picts were a Cymric race; Skene believes them to have belonged to the Gaelic branch of the Celtic family.)

In 367 the Picts and Scots overran the whole country as far south as London. Theodosius, father of the emperor of that name, was sent against them, and in two campaigns he succeeded in driving them back beyond the wall of Antonine. The district thus regained between the walls of Hadrian and of Antonine was named Valentia, in honour of the reigning emperor Valentinian. This, however, was only a momentary check, and the new province was soon lost.

In 383 the title of emperor was assumed by Maximus, a native of Spain, who had served under Theodosius in the Pictish wars. Maximus took a large army of Romans and Britons into Gaul and was recognized by Theodosius and Valentinian as sole emperor over Britain, Gaul, and Spain. Five years later he invaded Italy, but was taken and beheaded at Aquileia in 388. The army never returned to Britain, which was thus left weaker than ever. In 396 a single legion was sent by Stilicho, and the Picts were once more driven back. In 407 three successive emperors—Marcus, Gratian, and Constantine—were set up in Britain, the last of whom followed the example set by Maximus, and carried the army into Gaul, leaving Britain again helpless against the northern invaders. In 410 the Roman occupation of Britain was formally terminated by a letter addressed by the emperor Honorius to the cities