

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

of Britain, in which he told them that they must henceforth be their own defenders.

Britain first became a Roman province in the reign of the emperor Claudius, 43 A.D. It was governed by a single prefect until the reign of Severus, who divided the province into two parts, called Britannia Superior and Britannia Inferior, each governed by a prefect. In the division of the empire into four prefectures in the reign of Diocletian, Britain formed part of the prefecture of Gaul, and was governed by an officer called the *vicarius*, residing at York. The country was subdivided into four provinces, each governed by a prefect:—

1. *Britannia Prima*, the district south of the Thames.
2. *Britannia Secunda*, the district south of the Dee and west of the Severn.
3. *Flavia Caesariensis*, east of the Severn.
4. *Maxima Caesariensis*, the district between the Humber and the Tyne.

To these was added as a fifth province the district of *Valentia*, conquered by Theodosius in 368, but it appears to have remained but a short time in the possession of the Romans.

Our knowledge of the events of the two centuries succeeding the close of the Roman occupation of Britain is rendered most uncertain by the absence of contemporary records. The accounts given by later writers, British and Saxon, cannot be relied upon for more than the barest outline, which may be accepted in so far as it is found to be consistent with the visible results of the events of this period.

The paternal character of the Roman rule had left the Britons at its withdrawal enervated and helpless, and utterly unable to cope with the Picts, who now began to press heavily on them. Having in vain appealed for help to the Romans, the Britons applied to the Teutonic rovers, who had since the later years of the Roman period been in the habit of plundering the eastern coast. Accordingly, the three tribes of Angles, Jutes, and Saxons came over, and with their assistance the Picts were driven back into their own territories. The Saxons, however, still continued to arrive in large numbers, and soon finding the occasion of a quarrel, they combined with the Picts against the Britons, and proceeded to overrun the country, driving the Britons before them into the west. The first Teutonic kingdom in Britain was that of Kent, founded in 449; and at the end of two centuries we find the Saxons in firm possession of the greater part of the country, and the Celtic tribes occupying only the extreme west. Of Arthur, the hero of the Welsh account of this period, it is impossible to speak with any certainty. Although he is unknown to the Saxon chronicle, it seems unnecessary to deny his existence, and it is certain that no part of the south-western district of England, which is generally supposed to have been the scene of his exploits, was conquered by the Saxons until after the time of his alleged victories. An attempt has lately been made (see ARTHUR) to show that the scene of Arthur's victories is to be laid in the south of Scotland, and not in the west of England. The question is one which hardly seems capable of a satisfactory settlement. For the subsequent history see ENGLAND.

See *Monumenta Historica Britannica*, 1848; Camden's *Britannia*; W. B. Jones, *Vestiges of the Gael in Gwynedd*; Merivale, *History of the Romans under the Empire*; Burton, *History of Scotland*, vol. i. (A. W. K. M.)

BRITANNICUS, son of the emperor Claudius, and of his third wife Messalina, was born probably 42 A.D., though the exact date cannot be determined. He was originally called Claudius Tiberius Germanicus, and received the name Britannicus on account of the conquests made in Britain about the time of his birth. Till 48 A.D., the date of his mother's execution, he was looked upon as the heir

to the imperial dignity, but Agrippina, the new wife of Claudius, soon persuaded the feeble emperor to pass him over and adopt her son by a previous marriage, Lucius Domitius, known later as Nero. After the accession of Nero, Agrippina, whose lover, Pallas, had been banished, threatened to stir up revolt against the new emperor, and excited his fears against Britannicus. Poison was administered to the young prince, at first without effect, but a stronger dose given at the banquet table was instantaneously fatal. The murdered boy, for he had barely completed his fourteenth year, was buried on the evening of the day in which he died. The pile was erected on the Campus Martius amidst a deluge of rain, which washed the plaster and paint from the livid and distorted face of the corpse.

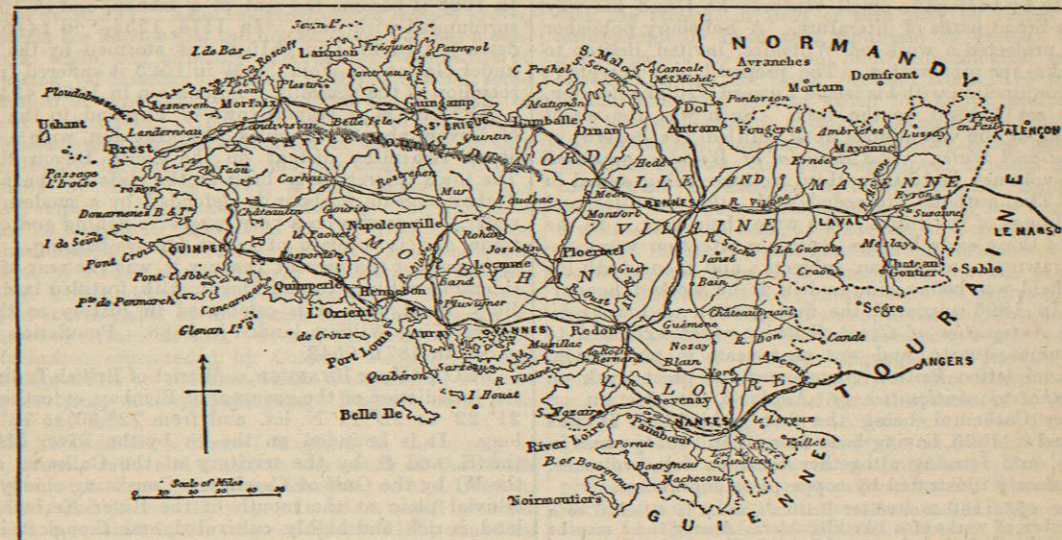
BRITISH COLUMBIA. See COLUMBIA, BRITISH.

BRITANNY, or BRITANNY (French, *Bretagne*), an ancient province and duchy of France, consisting of the north-west peninsula, and nearly corresponding to the departments of Finistère, Côtes-du-Nord, Morbihan, Ille et Vilaine, and Lower Loire. It is popularly divided into Upper or Western, and Lower or Eastern Brittany. While it is not a mountainous country, none of the elevations much exceeding 1200 feet, it is remarkable for the extreme ruggedness of its physical features, especially along the coast and towards its seaward extremity. There are vast tracts of desolate moorland broken only by the melancholy monuments of a forgotten time, and gloomy water-courses worn deep into the stony strata. Elsewhere, however, beautiful valleys and romantic glens are traversed by full-flowing rivers. Agriculture is in general in a rather backward condition, though here and there there are signs of enterprise. Flax and hemp are largely grown; and in the more fertile districts excellent crops of the cereals are obtained. Bees are almost universally kept, and are often objects of a kind of affection. Pasture is abundant throughout the country, and the dairy produce forms a very important item in the food of the people. Industrial pursuits, except in a few seaport towns, which are rather French than Breton, have hitherto received but little attention. The Bretons are by nature conservative. They cling with almost equal attachment to their local customs and their religious superstitions. It was not till the 17th century that paganism was even nominally abolished in some parts, and there is probably no district in Europe where the popular Christianity has assimilated more from earlier creeds. Witchcraft and the influence of fairies are generally believed in, and charms and antidotes are trustfully resorted to. Part of this superstitious tendency may, no doubt, be attributed to the influence exerted on the minds of the people, not only by the strangeness of their natural environment, but also by the frequency of megalithic monuments, whose origin they cannot explain, for nowhere are these monuments so numerous and varied. The costume of both sexes is very peculiar both in cut and colour, but varies considerably in different districts. Bright red, violet, and blue are much used, not only by the women, but in the coats and waistcoats of the men. The reader will find full illustrations of the different styles in Bœuet's *Breiz-izel ou Vie des Bretons de l'Armorique*, 3 vols., 1844. The Celtic language is still generally spoken, especially in lower Brittany, and a considerable body of traditional story and song is current among the people. Four dialects are pretty clearly marked. The whole duchy was formerly divided into nine bishoprics,—Rennes, Dol, Nantes, St Malo, and St Brieuc, in Upper Brittany; and Tréguier, Vannes, Quimper, and St Pol de Léon in Lower; and several of the larger towns were the seats of separate counts.

At the time of Caesar's conquest of Gaul the north-western peninsula was inhabited by the Celtic tribes of the Veneti, the Curiosolitæ, and the Osismii; but our information in regard to them

is of the scantiest description. On the condition of this distinct, indeed, history is almost silent till the 5th century, when the invasion of Britain by the Saxons was followed by the migration across the channel of large numbers of the defeated islanders. The Breton chronicles contain an account of about a score of dukes from that period to the end of the 8th century; but how far the names and the narrative are merely mythical it would be hard to determine. The one great fact that is clearly evident is, that a violent contest for independence was maintained against the Frankish inroads. Under the early Carolingians the country was for a time in rather more than nominal subjection; but it soon reasserted its

independence. The 9th and 10th centuries are mainly remarkable for the wars that were continually breaking out between Brittany and the rising duchy of Normandy. Though Alan V. of Brittany had been intrusted with the guardianship of the youthful William of Normandy, and had fulfilled his trust to the full, yet under his successors Conan II., Hoel V., and Alan Fergent, the old enmity between the two countries broke out again and again. On the death in 1148 of Conan III., who had been defeated in a contest with his rebellious nobles, the succession was disputed by Hoel VI. and his brother-in-law, the count of Porhoët. The partisans of the former on their defeat submitted to Henry II. of England, who bestowed the



Map of Brittany.

duchy on his brother Geoffrey. Geoffrey's death two years after left the way open to the enterprise of Conan IV., grandson of Conan III., who had made his step-father prisoner, and was gradually obtaining possession of the whole duchy. The new duke, however, was forced not only to give his daughter Constance to Henry's son Geoffrey, but also in the long run to abdicate in his favour. On Geoffrey's death in 1186 the duchy became an object of dispute between the English and French kings, the latter being supported by the native nobility. To this rivalry the young duke Arthur fell a victim, murdered, as is usually supposed, by his uncle John of England. His sister Alice succeeded, under the protection of France, and was married to Pierre de Dreux, who thus became the first of a new line of dukes which lasted till the death of Francis II. in 1488. In 1491 the heiress Anne was forced to marry Charles VIII., and thus the duchy was held by the French crown. In 1532 it was formally united to France, but it retained a separate parliament till the Revolution.

Among the historians of Brittany may be mentioned Dom Lobineau, Dom Taillandier, Dom Morice, Daru, and De Courson. See also Trollope's *Summer in Brittany*, 1840; Mrs Bury Palliser, *Brittany and its Byeways*, 1869; Du Chatellier, *L'Agriculture et les classes agricoles de la Bretagne*, 1862.

BRITTON, the title of the earliest summary of the law of England in the French tongue, which purports to have been written by command of King Edward I. The origin and authorship of the work have been much disputed. It has been attributed to John le Breton, bishop of Hereford, on the authority of a passage found in some MSS. of the history of Matthew of Westminster; there are difficulties, however, involved in this theory, inasmuch as the bishop of Hereford died in 1275 (3 Edward I.), whereas allusions are made in Britton to several statutes passed after that time, and more particularly to the well-known statute "Quia emptores terrarum," which was passed in 18 Edward I. It was the opinion of Selden that the book derived its title from Henry de Bracton, the last of the chief justiciaries, whose name is sometimes spelled in the Fine Rolls Bratton and Bretton, and that it was a

royal abridgment of Bracton's great work on the customs and laws of England, with the addition of certain subsequent statutes. The arrangement, however, of the two works is different, and but a small proportion of Bracton's work is incorporated in Britton. The work is entitled in an early MS. of the 14th century, which was once in the possession of Selden, and is now in the Cambridge University Library, "Summa de legibus Anglie que vocatur Bretonne;" and it is described as "a book called Bretonne" in the will of Andrew Horn, the learned chamberlain of the city of London, who bequeathed it to the chamber of the Guildhall in 3 Edward III., together with another book called the *Miroir des Justices*. Britton was first printed in London by Robert Redman, without a date, probably about the year 1530. Another edition of it was printed in 1640, corrected by Edmund Wingate. A third edition of it, with an English translation, has been lately published at the University Press, Oxford, 1865, by F. M. Nicholls, M.A. An English translation of the work without the Latin text had been previously published by R. Kelham in 1762.

BRITTON, JOHN, a topographical and antiquarian writer, was born at Kingston-St-Michael, near Chippenham, July 7, 1771. His birthplace, an old-world village of the dullest and sleepest kind, had also the distinction of being the home of the antiquary John Aubrey. His parents were in humble circumstances, and he was left an orphan at an early age. He grew up with no better education than was to be had in the poor schools of his native Wiltshire village and neighbouring places, the last to which he was sent being at Chippenham. At the age of fourteen he became possessed of a small lot of books, and among them were *Robinson Crusoe*, the *Pilgrim's Progress*, and *The Life of Peter, Czar of Muscovy*. At sixteen he went to London,