

C

C is the third letter of the English alphabet, and of the other alphabets derived from the Latin. Its history has been singular. It was the same in form as the Greek Γ, but inclined at a different angle, thus, ζ (see under ALPHABET), and by degrees it was rounded into C. It occupied the same place in the alphabet, and had the same phonetic value,—that of the sonant guttural *g*, the corresponding surd being represented, as in Greek, by K. (See under B for the distinction between sonants and surds.) These two sounds became confused at Rome at an early time—before 450 B.C., and perhaps much earlier. The *k*-sound was lost and the symbol C represented both the *g*-sound, as in *macister*, *lecio*, and the original *k*-sound, as in *ensor*, *consul*. The symbol K, however, was not entirely lost; it is found irregularly in inscriptions of all dates down to the times of the empire, and regularly as an initial abbreviation of *Kalendæ*, *Karthago*, *Kæso* (the proper name). In the 3d century B.C., the distinction between the two sounds was revived; but the symbol K was not replaced in ordinary use. C remained as the representative of the surd, losing its original sonant value; while a modification of it (G) was introduced to represent the sonant. The symbol retained its old value only when as the initial letter it represented the names *Gaius* and *Gnevus*,—which, in consequence, are often erroneously written and sounded *Caius* and *Cnevus*. With this changed value the symbol C passed into the languages which are represented by the Latin alphabet. In some of them it has undergone yet further change. Before *e* and *i* in Italian, though still written, it is sounded as *ch*. This change from the guttural to the palatal is the result of assimilation, due to the following vowels. There is no evidence to show that it was established before the 7th century A.D. In France (as commonly in England) *c* before *e* and *i* has the sound of *s*. This is only a further change in the same direction as the Italian; and before *a* in French an original *c* has the sound *sh*, and is spelt *ch*, as in *champ* (*campus*), *chambre* (*camera*). Exceptions to this rule are generally words incorporated into classical French (i.e., the descendant of the old dialect of the Isle de France) from other dialects, as those of Normandy or Picardy, or are introduced from the Italian, as *cavalier*, &c. Our English *ch* (pronounced *tek*) for original *c* (as in *chin* for Old English *cin*, *child* for *cild*) is due probably to Norman influence, but here, as often, it is difficult to differentiate the results of the many disturbing causes which have operated upon our language.

As a numeral, C (for *centum*) denotes 100. In music, placed after the clef, it indicates that the measure is of the value of four crotchets.

CAABA. See KAABA and MECCA.

CABAGAN, a town of Luzon, one of the Philippine Islands, in the province of Cagayan, situated on the N.E. coast. It is the second largest city in the province, and has a population of 11,100.

CABANIS, PIERRE JEAN GEORGE (1757-1808), a distinguished French physiologist, was born at Cosnac in 1757. His father was a lawyer of eminence, and chief magistrate of a district in the Lower Limousin. His education was at first entrusted to the priests, but at the age of ten he was transferred to the College of Brives. He showed great aptitude for study, but his independence of spirit was so excessive that he was almost constantly in a state of rebellion against his teachers, and was finally dismissed from the school. After a year's residence at home he was taken to Paris by his father and left to carry

on his studies at his own discretion. He attended classes at the university, and read with particular delight Locke's essay *On the Human Understanding*. Two years had been spent in close and assiduous study, when in 1773 he received the offer of the post of secretary to the prince-bishop of Wilna. He accepted it and passed two years at Warsaw, viewing with disgust and contempt the petty intrigues and jealousies that accompanied the first partition of Poland.

On his return to Paris he devoted himself mainly to poetry, for which he had always a strong inclination. He was intimate with the poet Roucher, and was introduced by Turgot to the society of Mme. Helvétius, where he met such men as Diderot, D'Alembert, D'Holbach, Condillac, Franklin, and Jefferson. About this time he ventured to send in to the Academy a translation of the passage from Homer proposed for their prize, and though his attempt passed without notice, he received so much encouragement from his friends that he contemplated translating the whole of the *Iliad*.

At the earnest desire of his father he relinquished these pleasant literary employments, and resolved to engage in some settled profession. After deliberation he fixed upon that of medicine, and began his studies under Dubreuil. In 1789 his *Observations sur les Hôpitaux* procured him an appointment as administrator of hospitals in Paris. From inclination and from weak health he never engaged much in practice as a physician. His interest lay entirely in the deeper problems of medical and physiological science, and these he investigated with unusual closeness and minuteness. Nor had he quite given up his fondness for literary society; his residence at Auteuil on the outskirts of the capital enabled him still to continue his intercourse with Diderot, Condillac, and others. He had even the pleasure of reading to Voltaire part of his translation of the *Iliad*, and of receiving warm commendation from the veteran critic. But he had long ceased to occupy himself with that work; and in his *Serment d'un Médecin*, which appeared in 1789, he bade a formal adieu to poetry.

In the great political struggle of the time Cabanis espoused with enthusiasm the cause of the Revolution, to which he was attached from principle, and of which the opening prospects were congenial to his active and ardent mind. During the two last years of Mirabeau's life he was intimately connected with that extraordinary man, who had the singular art of pressing into his service the pens of all his literary friends. Cabanis united himself with this disinterested association of labourers, and contributed the *Travail sur l'Éducation Publique*, a tract which was found among the papers of Mirabeau at his death, and was edited by the real author soon afterwards in 1791. During the illness which terminated his life, Mirabeau confided himself entirely to the professional skill of Cabanis. Of the progress of the malady, and the circumstances attending the death of Mirabeau, Cabanis drew up a very detailed narrative, which is not calculated, however, to impress us with any high idea of his skill in the treatment of an acute inflammatory disease. Condorcet was another distinguished character with whom Cabanis was intimate, and whom he endeavoured, though without success, to save from the destiny in which he afterwards became involved by the calamitous events of the Revolution. Shortly after this he married Charlotte Grouchy, sister to Madame Condorcet and to General Grouchy,—a union which was a great source of happiness to him during the remainder of his life.

After the subversion of the Government of the terrorists, Cabanis, on the establishment of central schools, was named professor of *Hygiène* in the medical schools of the metropolis. Next year he was chosen member of the National Institute, and was subsequently appointed clinical professor. He was afterwards member of the Council of Five Hundred, and then of the Conservative Senate. The dissolution of the Directory was the result of a motion which he made to that effect. But his political career was not of long continuance. A foe to tyranny in every shape, he was decidedly hostile to the policy of Bonaparte, and constantly rejected every solicitation to accept a place under his Government.

For some years before his death his health became gradually more impaired, and he retired from the laborious duties of his profession, spending the greatest part of his time at the chateau of his father-in-law at Meulan. Here he solaced himself with reading his favourite poets, and even had it in contemplation to resume that translation of the *Iliad* which had been the first effort of his youthful muse. The rest of his time was devoted to acts of kindness and beneficence, especially towards the poor, who flocked from all parts to consult him on their complaints. Cabanis died May 5 1808, leaving a widow and a daughter.

A complete edition of Cabanis's works was begun in 1825, and five volumes were published. One of his minor works, *Coup d'œil sur les révolutions et les réformes de la médecine*, has been translated into English. His principal work, *Rapports du physique et du moral de l'homme*, consists in part of memoirs, read in 1796 and 1797 to the Institute, and printed among their Transactions. It is an admirable sketch of physiological psychology, and is replete with information. Psychology is with Cabanis directly linked on to biology, for sensibility, the fundamental fact, is the highest grade of life and the lowest of intelligence. All the intellectual processes are evolved from sensibility, and sensibility itself is a property of the nervous system. The soul is not an entity, but a faculty; thought is the function of the brain. Just as the stomach and intestines receive food and digest it, so the brain receives impressions, digests them, and has as its organic secretion, thought. Alongside of this harsh materialism Cabanis held another principle, the application of which altogether changes his theory. He belonged in biology to the school of Stahl, the vitalist or animist, and in the posthumous work, *Lettre sur les causes premières*, the consequences of this opinion became clear. Life is something added to the organism; over and above the universally diffused sensibility there is some living and productive power to which we give the name of Nature. But it is impossible to avoid ascribing to this power both intelligence and will. In us this living power constitutes the ego, which is truly immaterial and immortal. These results Cabanis did not think out of harmony with his earlier theory, and it is possible that a point of view may be attained whence both appear justified. The *Lettre* was not published till 1824, when it appeared with notes by F. Bérard.

CABARRUS, FRANÇOIS (1752-1810), conspicuous in Spanish history as a financier, was born at Bayonne, where his father was a merchant. Being sent into Spain on business he fell in love with a Spanish lady, and marrying her, settled in Madrid. Here his private business was the manufacture of soap; but he soon began to interest himself in the public questions which were ventilated even at the court of Spain. The enlightenment of the 18th century had penetrated as far as Madrid; the king, Charles III., was favourable to reform; and a circle of men animated by the new spirit were trying to infuse fresh vigour into an enfeebled state. Among these Cabarrus became conspicuous, especially in finance. He originated a bank, and a company to trade with the Philippine Islands; and as one of the council of finance he had planned many reforms in that department of the administration, when Charles III. died (1788), and the reactionary Government of Charles IV. arrested every kind of enlightened progress. The men who had taken an active part in reform were suspected and prosecuted. Cabarrus himself was accused of embezzlement, and thrown into prison. After a confinement of

two years he was released, created a count, and employed in many honourable missions; he would even have been sent to Paris as Spanish ambassador, had not the Directory objected to him as being of French birth. Cabarrus took no part in the transactions by which Charles IV. was obliged to abdicate and make way for Joseph, brother of Napoleon, but his French birth, and intimate knowledge of Spanish affairs recommended him to the Emperor as the fittest person for the difficult post of minister of finance. In this capacity Cabarrus died (1810). His beautiful daughter Thérèse, under the name of Madame Tallien (afterwards Princess of Chimay), played an interesting part in the later stages of the French Revolution.

CABATUAN, a town of the Philippine Islands, in the province of Iloilo, in Panay, situated on the banks of the River Tiguin, which changes from an almost empty channel to an impetuous torrent, so that navigation is frequently impossible. The town, which was founded in 1732, has about 23,000 inhabitants, who are principally engaged in the cultivation of rice and the manufacture of cocoa-nut oil. See Bowring's *Philippine Islands*.

CABAZERA, a town of the Philippine Islands, capital of the province of Cagayan in Luzon, with a population of about 15,000. Tobacco-growing is the most important occupation of the district.

CABBAGE. The parent form of the variety of useful culinary vegetables included under this head is generally supposed to be the wild or sea cabbage (*Brassica oleracea*), a plant found near the sea coast of various parts of England and continental Europe, although Alph. de Candolle considers it to be really descended from the two or three allied species which are yet found growing wild on the Mediterranean coast. In any case the cultivated varieties have departed very widely from the original type, and they present very marked and striking dissimilarities among themselves. The wild cabbage is a comparatively insignificant plant, growing from 1 to 2 feet high, in appearance very similar to the corn mustard or charlock (*Sinapis arvensis*), but differing from it in having smooth leaves. The wild plant has fleshy, shining, wavy, and lobed leaves (the uppermost being undivided but toothed), large yellow flowers, elongated seed-pod, and seeds with conduplicate cotyledons. Notwithstanding the fact that the cultivated forms differ in habit so widely, it is remarkable that the flower, seed-pods, and seeds of the varieties present no appreciable difference.

The late Dr Lindley proposed the following classification for the various forms, which includes all yet cultivated:—
1. All the leaf-buds active and open, as in wild cabbage and kale or greens; 2. All the leaf-buds active, but forming heads, as in Brussels sprouts; 3. Terminal leaf-buds alone active, forming a head, as in common cabbage, savoy, &c.; 4. Terminal leaf-bud alone active and open, with most of the flowers abortive and succulent, as in cauliflower and broccoli; 5. All the leaf-buds active and open, with most of the flowers abortive and succulent, as in sprouting broccoli. The least variety bears the same relation to common broccoli as Brussels sprouts do to the common cabbage. Of all these forms there are numerous gardeners' varieties, all of which reproduce faithfully enough their parent form by proper and separate cultivation. Under Dr Lindley's first class, common or Scotch kale is a variety which formerly was in extensive cultivation, and is still found in the cottage "kail-yards" or gardens of the Scottish peasantry. It sends up a stout central stem, growing upright to a height of about 2 feet, with close-set, large thick plain leaves of a light red or purplish hue. The lower leaves are stripped off for use as the plants grow up, and used for the preparation of broth or "Scotch kail," a dish at one time in great repute in the north-eastern

districts of Scotland. Tall or German greens, which grow to the height of 4 feet, with bright green very much curled leaves, have largely superseded kale in cultivation. A very remarkable variety of open-leaved cabbage is cultivated in the Channel Islands under the name of the Jersey or branching cabbage. It grows to a height of 8 feet, but has been known to attain double that altitude. It throws out branches from the central stem, which is sufficiently firm and woody to be fashioned into walking-sticks; and the stems are even used by the islanders as rafters for bearing the thatch on their cottage-roofs. Several varieties are cultivated as ornamental plants on account of their beautifully coloured, frizzled, and lacinated leaves. Brussels sprouts, which represent Dr Lindley's second class, are miniature cabbage-heads, about an inch in diameter, which form in the axils of the leaves. They form a tender and delicate table vegetable. The third class is chiefly represented by the common or drumhead cabbage, the varieties of which are distinguished by difference in size, form, and colour. In Germany it is converted into a popular article of diet under the name of *Sauerkraut* by placing in a tub alternate layers of salt and cabbage. An acid fermentation sets in, which after a few days is complete, when the vessel is tightly covered over and the product kept for use with animal food. Cabbages contain a large percentage of nitrogenous compounds as compared with most other articles of food. Their percentage composition is—water, 93.4; albumen, 1.8; starch and dextrin, 3.3; woody fibre, 0.5; and mineral ash, 0.8. Red cabbage is chiefly used for pickling, and the Savoy is a hardy green variety, characterized by its very wrinkled leaves. The Portugal cabbage, or *Couve Tronchuda*, is a variety, the tops of which form an excellent cabbage, while the midribs of the large leaves are cooked like sea-kale. Cauliflower, which is the chief representative of class four, consists of the inflorescence of the plant modified so as to form a compact succulent white mass or head; this is upon the whole the most highly prized cultivated form of the plant, and has been in use from very remote times. Broccoli is merely a variety of cauliflower differing from the other in the form and colour of its inflorescence and its hardness. Broccoli sprouts, the representative of the fifth class, is a form of recent introduction, and consists of flowering sprouts springing from the axils of the leaves. Kohl-rabi is a peculiar and exceptional variety of cabbage in which the stem, just above ground, swells into a fleshy turnip-like mass. It is much cultivated in certain districts as a food for cattle. The varieties of cabbage, like many other Cruciferous plants, are possessed of anti-scorbutic properties; but unless eaten when very fresh and tender they are difficult of digestion, and have a very decided tendency to produce flatulence.

Several species of palm, from the fact of yielding large rapid central buds which are cooked as vegetables, are known as Cabbage Palms. The principal of these is *Areca oleracea*, but other species, such as the Coco Palm, the *Maximiliana regia*, *Arenga saccharifera*, &c., yield similar edible leaf-buds.

CABBALA AND CABBALISTS. See **KABBALA**.

CABENDA, or **CABINDA**, a seaport town of Western Africa, in Lower Guinea, 40 miles north of the mouth of the Zaire, on the right bank of the Bele, in 5° 33' S. lat., 15° 40' E. long. From the great beauty of its situation, and the fertility of the adjacent country, it has been called the paradise of the coast. The harbour is well sheltered and commodious, and the trade is considerable. Population about 16,000.

CABET, ETIENNE (1788–1856), an active French Communist, was born, the son of a cooper, at Dijon in 1788. He chose the profession of advocate with

suceeding in it, but ere long became notable as the persevering apostle of republicanism and communism. He assisted in a secondary way in the Revolution of 1830, and obtained a legal appointment in Corsica under the Government of Louis Philippe; but, being dissatisfied with the moderation of the new rule, he began to attack it even in public, and was dismissed. Elected, notwithstanding, to the Chamber of Deputies, he was prosecuted for his bitter criticism of the Government, and obliged to go into exile in England. On the amnesty of 1839, he returned to France, and attracted some notice by the publication of a badly-written and fiercely democratic history of the Revolution of 1789 (4 vols., 1840), and of a social romance, *Voyage en Icarie*, in which he set forth his peculiar views. These works met with some success among the radical working-men of Paris. An opportunity at length occurred of realizing his schemes. Pressed by his friends, he made arrangements for an experiment in communism on American soil. In his journal, *Le Populaire*, he announced the purchase of a considerable tract of land on the Red River, Texas, and a treaty by which Cabet was made the dictator of an intending colony, and the depository of all the funds, community of property being the distinctive principle of the society. Accordingly, in 1848, an expedition of 150 sailed to America; but unexpected difficulties arose and the complaints of the disenchanted settlers soon reached Europe. Cabet, who had remained in France, had more than one judicial investigation to undergo in consequence, but was honourably acquitted. In 1849 he went out in person to America, but on his arrival, finding that the Mormons had been expelled from their city Nauvoo, in Illinois, he transferred his settlement thither. There, with the exception of a journey to France, where he returned to defend himself successfully before the tribunals, he remained, the dictator of his little society. In 1856, however, he was expelled, and died the same year at St Louis. He had not the advantages of either birth or eloquence, or even of ability. The little success he obtained was due entirely to the singularity of his opinions, and the straightforward persistency with which he advocated them.

CABEZA DEL BUEY (*i.e.*, bullock's head), a town of Spain, in Estremadura, in the province of Badajoz, and 86 miles E.S.E. from the city of that name. It manufactures woollen cloth, and has a population of 6500.

CABINET, a conventional, but not a legal, term employed to describe those members of the Privy Council who fill the highest executive offices in the State, and who, by their concerted policy, direct the Government, and are responsible for all the acts of the Crown. The Cabinet now always includes the persons filling the following offices, who are therefore called Cabinet Ministers, *viz.*:—The First Lord of the Treasury, the Lord Chancellor, the Lord President of the Council, the Lord Privy Seal, the five Secretaries of State, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, and the First Lord of the Admiralty. The Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster, the Postmaster General, the First Commissioner of Works, the President of the Board of Trade, the Chief Secretary for Ireland, the President of the Poor Law Board, and the Vice-President of the Education Committee are sometimes members of the Cabinet, but not necessarily so. Hence the Cabinet must consist of at least eleven members, and it has sometimes included as many as seventeen. But the better opinion appears to be that a large Cabinet is an evil. Mr Disraeli in 1874 acted wisely in restricting the numbers of his colleagues to eleven besides the Prime Minister. When Lord Grenville in 1806 brought Lord Chief Justice Ellenborough into the Cabinet by combining his judicial office with that of Lord President, the appointment was strongly reprobated, and the experiment has never been repeated. The Master-General of the

Ordnance used to have a seat in the Cabinet, and the duke of Wellington sat there for a short time as Commander-in-Chief. Of late years there has been no military officer in the Cabinet, a thing much to be regretted. In a few instances privy councillors of very high standing, as the duke of Wellington, Lord Sidmouth the marquis of Lansdowne, and Lord Russell, have been summoned to the Cabinet without office. There is no constitutional objection to summoning any privy councillor to the Cabinet by command of the sovereign.

The word "Cabinet," or "Cabinet Council," was originally employed as a term of reproach. Thus Lord Bacon says, in his essay *Of Counsel* (xx.), "The doctrine of Italy and practice of France, in some kings' times, hath introduced Cabinet Councils—a remedy worse than the disease;" and, again, "As for Cabinet Councils, it may be their motto *Plenus rimarum sum*." Lord Clarendon—after stating that, in 1640, when the great Council of Peers was convened by the king at York, the burden of affairs rested principally on Laud, Strafford, and Cottington, with five or six others added to them on account of their official position and ability—adds, "These persons made up the Committee of State, which was reproachfully after called the *Juncto*, and enviously then in Court the *Cabinet Council*." And in the Second Remonstrance in January 1642, Parliament complained "of the managing of the great affairs of the realm in *Cabinet Councils*, by men unknown and not publicly trusted." But this use of the term, though historically curious, has in truth nothing in common with the modern application of it. It meant, at that time, the employment of a select body of favourites by the king, who were supposed to possess a larger share of his confidence than the Privy Council at large.¹ Under the Tudors, at least from the later years of Henry VIII., and under the Stuarts, the Privy Council was the Council of State or Government. During the Commonwealth it assumed that name.

The Cabinet Council, properly so called, dates from the reign of William III. and from the year 1693, for it was not until some years after the Revolution that the king discovered and adopted the two fundamental principles of a constitutional Executive Government, namely, that a ministry should consist of statesmen holding the same political principles and identified with each other; and, secondly, that the ministry should stand upon a parliamentary basis, that is, that it must command and retain the majority of votes in the Legislature. It was long before these principles were thoroughly worked out and understood, and the perfection to which they have been brought in modern times is the result of time, experience, and, in part, of accident. But the result is that the Cabinet Council for the time being is the Government of Great Britain; that all the powers vested in the sovereign (with one or two exceptions) are practically exercised by the members of this body; that all the members of the Cabinet are jointly and severally responsible for all its measures, for if differences of opinion arise their existence is unknown as long as the Cabinet lasts,—when publicly manifested the Cabinet is at an end; and lastly, that the Cabinet, being responsible to the sovereign for the conduct of executive business, is also collectively responsible to Parliament both for its executive conduct and for its legislative measures, the same men being as members of the Cabinet the servants of the Crown, and as Members of Parliament and leaders of the

¹ Thus, under Charles II., in 1671, the king's confidential advisers were Clifford, Arlington, Buckingham, Ashley, and Lauderdale. The initial letters of their names spell the word "Cabal;" and Lord Macaulay affirms that the word cabal was popularly used as synonymous with cabinet. But the word cabal certainly never was applied to any other cabinet; and the "cabal" itself was not in truth a cabinet at all.

majority responsible to those who support them by their votes and may challenge in debate every one of their actions. In this latter sense the Cabinet has sometimes been described as a Standing Committee of both Houses of Parliament.

This in reality is the form to which the active governing machinery of the British Constitution has now been brought. It has been ingeniously argued by Mr Bagehot, in his *Essays on the Constitution*, that "the Cabinet is a board of control, chosen by the Legislature, out of the persons whom it trusts and knows, to rule the nation," and that the choice of the Crown and of the Prime Minister, who frames the list of Cabinet Ministers to be laid before the sovereign, is in fact circumscribed and predetermined by the position which a small number of men in each party have acquired in Parliament. No man can long remain a Cabinet Minister who is not in Parliament; and of those who sit in either House of Parliament, but a small proportion have attained to the rank or influence that fits a man to be a Cabinet Minister. This is especially the case in the House of Commons, largely composed of men engaged in various professions; for it is easier to find men of high senatorial rank and experience in the House of Peers than in the other House, because in England members of the Peerage are frequently trained and educated from early life for high office and the public service. The Cabinet, therefore, really originates in the Legislature, though its functions are the functions of executive government, and although it disposes on behalf of the Crown of a vast amount of power, patronage, honours, &c., to which the authority of the Legislature does not extend. The Cabinet has, moreover, one most important power, which it derives entirely from the Crown, namely, that of dissolving the Legislature to which it owes its own existence—though this is in fact no more than an appeal to the nation at large, whose representative the Legislature is. The power of dissolving Parliament is one usually, though not always unreservedly, entrusted by the sovereign to the Prime Minister; but if withheld when solicited, the minister would resign.

Instances are not wanting in our history in which the direct action of the sovereign has overthrown a Cabinet, or prevented a Cabinet from being formed. In 1784 George III. dismissed the Coalition Ministry. In 1807 the king also dismissed Lord Grenville's Cabinet, in the teeth of Lord Erskine's declaration of the high Whig doctrine, that the king had handed over every power of government, and even his own conscience, to his responsible advisers. In these instances the Crown succeeded, and the new Parliament ratified the change. Not so in 1834 when William IV. dismissed Lord Melbourne's Cabinet, placed the duke of Wellington for some weeks in sole possession of all the Cabinet offices, and called Sir Robert Peel to power. In 1812 Lord Moira was defeated in the attempt to form a Cabinet by the refusal of the regent to consent to a change in the household; and in 1839 a similar reason was alleged by Queen Victoria to prevent the accession to office of Sir Robert Peel. But though this step was defended and sanctioned by a minute of the Whig Cabinet of the day, it is now generally regarded as unconstitutional, and the objection was never repeated.

One of the consequences of the close connection of the Cabinet with the Legislature is that it is desirable to divide the strength of the ministry between the two Houses of Parliament. Mr Pitt's Cabinet of 1783 consisted of himself in the House of Commons and seven peers. But so aristocratic a Government would now be impracticable. In Mr Gladstone's large Cabinet of 1868, eight, and afterwards nine, ministers were in the House of Commons and six in the House of Peers. Great efforts were made to strengthen

the ministerial bench in the Commons, and a new principle was introduced, that the representatives of what are called the spending departments—that is, the Secretary of State for War and the First Lord of the Admiralty—should, if possible, be members of the House which votes the supplies. Mr Disraeli followed this precedent.

Although the Government of this country is one of extreme publicity, it is to the credit of the good sense and good faith of Englishmen that the deliberations and proceedings of the Executive Government are veiled in impenetrable secrecy, until the moment when the result of them is made known. Beyond the meagre announcement in the *Court Circular* of the bare fact that a Cabinet has been held, and that certain ministers were present, nothing is communicated to the public. Cabinets are usually convoked by a summons addressed to "Her Majesty's Confidential Servants," by direction of the Prime Minister; and the ordinary place of meeting is the Foreign Office, but they may be held anywhere. No secretary or other officer is present at the deliberations of this council. No official record is kept of its proceedings, and it is even considered a breach of ministerial confidence to keep a private record of what passed in the Cabinet, inasmuch as such memoranda may fall into other hands. But on some important occasions, as is known from the *Memoirs of Lord Sidmouth*, the *Correspondence of Earl Grey with King William IV.*, and from Sir Robert Peel's *Memoirs*, published by permission of the Queen, Cabinet minutes are drawn up and submitted to the sovereign, as the most formal manner in which the advice of the ministry can be tendered to the Crown and placed upon record. More commonly, it is the duty of the Prime Minister to lay the collective opinion of his colleagues before the sovereign, and take his or her pleasure on public measures and appointments. The sovereign never presides at a Cabinet, and at the meetings of the Privy Council, where the sovereign does preside, the business is purely formal. It has been laid down by some writers as a principle of the British Constitution that the sovereign is never present at a discussion between the advisers of the Crown; and this is, no doubt, an established fact and practice. But like many other political usages of this country it originated in a happy accident. King William and Queen Anne always presided at weekly Cabinet Councils. But when the Hanoverian princes ascended the throne, they knew no English, and were barely able to converse at all with their ministers; for George I. or George II. to take part in, or even to listen to, a debate in council was impossible. When George III. mounted the throne the practice of the independent deliberations of the Cabinet was well established, and it has never been departed from. In no other country has this practice been introduced, and perhaps this is one reason why in many instances constitutional government has failed to take root.

Differences of opinion, of course, occur in all bodies of men, and arguments are frequently presented with greater ability and temper in private than in public debate. These differences are decided in the Cabinet, as in all committees of council, by the majority of votes, and the rule holds good in all of them that "no man shall make publication of how the minority voted." The vote once taken and the question decided, every member of the Cabinet becomes equally responsible for the decision, and is equally bound to support and defend it. A decided difference of opinion cannot be persisted in or publicly expressed without withdrawing from the Cabinet, as when Mr Gladstone quitted Sir Robert Peel's administration upon the proposal to endow Maynooth. Hence it arises that resignations, or threats of resignation, are much more common than the public imagine; and a good deal of tact and management is continually exercised

in reconciling these differences. A serious "division in the Cabinet" is, as is well known, an infallible sign of its approaching dissolution. There are cases in which a minister has been dismissed for a departure from the concerted action of his colleagues. Thus, in 1851, Lord Palmerston having expressed to the French ambassador in London his unqualified approbation of the *coup d'état* of Louis Napoleon against the Assembly, when the Cabinet had resolved on observing a strict neutrality on the subject, Lord Russell advised Her Majesty to withdraw from Lord Palmerston the seals of the Foreign Department, and his lordship never again filled that office.

A clause was introduced into the Act of Settlement of 1705 requiring all Acts of State to be transacted in the Privy Council and signed by all the members present. This provision was found to be inconvenient, and was repealed two years afterwards. According to modern usage only one kind of public document is signed by all the members of the Cabinet, as privy councillors, and that is the order for general reprisals which constitutes a declaration of war. Such an order was issued against Russia in 1854, and was signed by all the members of Lord Aberdeen's Cabinet.

Upon the resignation or dissolution of a ministry, the sovereign exercises the undoubted prerogative of selecting the person who may be thought by the Court most fit to form a new Cabinet. In several instances the statesmen selected by the Crown have found themselves unable to accomplish the task confided to them. But in more favourable cases the minister chosen for this supreme office by the Crown has the power of distributing all the political offices of the Government as may seem best to himself, subject only to the ultimate approval of the sovereign. The First Minister is therefore in reality the author and constructor of the Cabinet; he holds it together; and in the event of his retirement, from whatever cause, the Cabinet is really dissolved, even though its members are again united under another head, as was the case when Lord Melbourne succeeded Lord Grey in 1834, and when Mr Disraeli succeeded Lord Derby in February 1868. Each member of the Cabinet, in fact, holds office under the First Lord of the Treasury, and in the event of resignation it is to him that the announcement of such an intention should be made.

The best account of the Cabinet council and of the other executive machinery of the constitution is to be found in Mr Alpheus Todd's *Essay on Parliamentary Government in England* (2 vols. 8vo, 1867-69), where all the authorities are collected—Hallam, May, John Austin, Lord Macaulay—and a vast quantity of political information, compiled from debates and bearing on this subject. Mr Bagehot's *Essay on the English Constitution* contains an ingenious comparison, or rather contrast, between the British Cabinet and the administrative mechanism of the United States of America. (H. R.)

CABIRI (Κάβειροι), in Mythology, usually identified with the Dioscuri (Castor and Pollux), in common with whom they were styled *μεγάλοι Θεοί* (*magni Dei*), and had the power of protecting life against storms at sea, the symbol of their presence being the St Elmo fire. The worship of the Cabiri was local and peculiar to the islands of Lemnos, Imbros, and Samothrace, extending also to the neighbouring coast of Troy, in which places it appears to have been inherited from a primitive Pelasgic population. It was, however, in Samothrace that this worship attained its chief importance, coming first into notice apparently after the Persian war, and from that time extending its influence down into the Roman period. The point of attraction was in the religious Mysteries, initiation into which was sought for, not only by large numbers of pilgrims, but also by such persons of distinction as Philip and Olympias—the parents of Alexander, his successor Lysimachus, Arsinoë, and those Roman commanders whose duties led them to that quarter.

What the rites were in which the Mysteries consisted is unknown, and it is therefore impossible to say how far they may have been organized on the model of the Mysteries of Eleusis, though it is clear that Athens took a considerable part in being the first to extend the influence of the Samothracian Mysteries. Initiation included also an asylum or refuge, if required, within the strong walls of Samothrace, for which purpose it was used among others by Arsinoë, who afterwards caused to be erected there (276-247 B.C.), to record her gratitude, a monument, the ruins of which were explored in 1874 by an Austrian archaeological expedition (*Untersuchungen auf Samothrace*, by Conze, Hauser, and Niemann, Vienna, 1875).

In Lemnos an annual festival was held, lasting nine days, during which all the fires in the island were extinguished and fresh fire brought from Delos. From this and from the statement of Strabo (x. 437), that the father of the Cabiri was Camillus, a son of the god Hephestus, it has been thought that the Cabiri must have been, like the Curetes, Corybantes, and Dactyls, dæmons of volcanic fire. But this is very uncertain. In Lemnos they fostered the growth of the vine and fruits of the field, and from their connection with Hermes in Samothrace, it would seem that they had also aided the fertility of cattle. Both the names and the number of the Cabiri are doubtful. On late authority they are given as *Axieros*, *Axiokersa*, and *Axiokersos*, with a fourth called *Kadmilos* or *Kasmilos*; but in the usual tradition they were *Dardanos*, *Jasion*, and *Harmonia*. *Jasion*, who was a favourite of the goddess Demeter, instituted the Mysteries. *Harmonia* married Cadmus of Thebes, whose name is to be recognized in *Kadmilos*, one of the Cabiri. On the other hand it has been argued that there were only two Cabiri, *Dardanos* and *Jasion*, corresponding as deities to the Greek Poseidon and Apollo, or Uranus and Gæa, i.e., sky and earth. On these points, the statements of ancient writers are not only few but generally irreconcilable with each other. On Etruscan bronze mirrors representations of what are called the Cabiri frequently occur, consisting of two youthful figures, sometimes with the addition of a female figure, apparently their sister; sometimes there are three brothers. This subject is dealt with in detail by Gerhard in his *Etruskische Metall-Spiegel*.

CABLE, a rope or chain used for connecting a ship with her anchor. Chain cables are generally used, but on account of their weight they are unsuitable for mooring in very deep water, when several lengths of cable would be hanging at the "hawse pipe;" and they cannot be used, also on account of their weight, when it is required to lay an anchor out at some distance from the ship. Hemp cables are, therefore, supplied to all ships as well as chain cables. For sizes, number, and lengths of cables carried by ships of the Royal Navy and required by Lloyd's rules to be supplied to merchant ships, see article ANCHOR.

The length of a chain cable is 100 fathoms, and that of a hempen cable 101 fathoms. The term "a cable's length," by which the distance of vessels from each other is usually given in nautical parlance, is understood to mean 100 fathoms, or 200 yards. Cables are sometimes made of common chain, but the best and most approved are made of stud-link chain, as shown in fig. 1, which gives the relative proportions of the various parts. Cables are made in lengths of 12½ fathoms, connected together by "joining shackles," as shown at D. Each length is "marked" by a piece of iron-wire being twisted round the stud of one of the links, the wire being placed on the first stud inside the first shackle,—i.e., the stud nearest to the shackle on the side remote from the anchor,—on the second stud inside the second shackle, and so on, so that the length of cable

which is out may always be known. For instance, if the mark is on the sixth stud inside the first inboard shackle, it is known that six lengths, or 75 fathoms, of cable are out, measuring from that shackle. In joining the lengths together the round end of the shackle should be placed towards the anchor. The end links of each length C, C are made without studs in order to receive the shackles, and it is necessary to make them of iron of greater diameter than that used for the stud links, in order to keep them of equal strength. The stud keeps the link from collapsing, and increases its strength considerably.

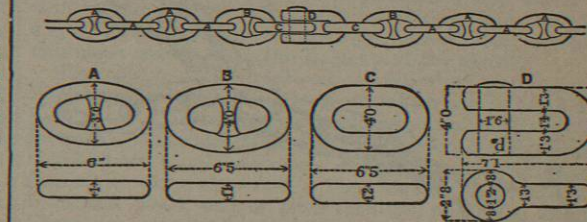


FIG. 1.—Stud-link Chain.¹

The next links B, B in their turn have to be enlarged to enable them to take the increased size given to the links C, C. It will be observed from the sketch of the shackle D that the pin is made oval, its greater diameter being in the direction of the strain. The pin of the shackle which attaches the cable to the anchor, and is called the "anchor shackle" in distinction from the "joining shackles," may project and be secured by a forelock; but as any projection would be detrimental when the chain is running out (sometimes with great rapidity) through the hawse pipes, the pins of the joining shackles are made as shown, and are secured by a small pin *d*. This small pin is kept from coming out by being made a little short, so that a lead pellet may be driven in at either end to fill up the holes in the shackle, which are made with a groove, so that as the pellets are driven in they expand or dovetail, and thus keep the small pin secure in its place.

The cables are stowed in the chain lockers, the inner ends being firmly secured to the ship by a "slip." This is done to render it impossible for the cable to run out and be lost accidentally, the slip being provided so that the cable may be let go without difficulty if stress of weather or any other cause renders such a proceeding imperative. It is necessary to fit one or two swivels in each cable to avoid turns being taken in it as the ship swings. When a ship is moored with two anchors the cables are attached to a mooring swivel (fig. 2); if this is not done the cables get entwined around each other, forming what is termed a "foul hawse," which is a troublesome thing to clear.

The cable is hove up in large vessels by a capstan, and in small ones by a windlass. It is brought directly to the capstan, the inner end passing to the deck pipe, and thence to the chain lockers; or it is brought in by means of a messenger, which is an endless chain passing round the capstan and a roller on each side of the deck near the hawse pipes. The cable is stoppered to the messenger by rope or iron nippers, and as the messenger goes round with the capstan the cable is brought in, the nippers being shifted as required. Messengers are now almost entirely superseded by the improved make of capstans.

Various means for checking the cable as it is running out, and for holding it, have been devised. The old-

¹ The dimensions marked in the figure are those for one-inch chains, and signify so many diameters of the iron of the common links—thus forming a scale for all sizes.