

father was a poor farm-labourer, and could not afford to send him to school long enough even to learn to read and write. At the age of seven he lost his mother, a woman of superior mind and religious character; and he was then sent to work with the tanners. At ten he was apprenticed to a shoemaker, and at twenty he settled in the town of St Austell, first as manager for a shoemaker; and about three years later he began business on his own account. He had already gained a reputation in his narrow circle as a keen debater and a jovial companion. He was first aroused to serious thought by the preaching of Adam Clarke; and the impression thus produced was deepened by the death of his elder brother. He now joined the Methodists, was soon employed as a class leader and local preacher, and continued to preach till a few months before his death. His opportunities of gaining knowledge were very scanty, but he strenuously set himself to make the most of them. It is stated that an accidental introduction to Locke's great essay determined the ultimate direction of his studies. In 1798 the first part of Paine's *Age of Reason* was put into his hands; and in the following year he made his first appearance as an author by publishing his *Remarks* on that work. The book was favourably received, and was republished in 1820. Drew had begun to meditate a greater attempt before he wrote his *Remarks on Paine*; and the fruits of his laborious investigation were given to the world in the *Essay on the Immutability and Immortality of the Soul*, in 1802. This work made him widely known, and for some time it held a high place in the judgment of the religious world as a powerful and conclusive argument on its subject. A fifth edition appeared in 1831. Drew continued to work at his trade till 1805, when he entered into an engagement which enabled him to devote himself entirely to literature. In 1809 he published his *Essay on the Identity and General Resurrection of the Human Body*, perhaps the most original of his works, which reached a second edition in 1822. In 1819 Drew removed to Liverpool, on being appointed editor of the *Imperial Magazine*, then newly established, and in 1821 to London, the business being then transferred to the capital. Here he filled the post of editor till his death, and had also the supervision of all works issued from the Caxton press. He was an unsuccessful competitor for a prize offered in 1811 for an essay on the existence and attributes of God. The work which he then wrote, and which in his own judgment was his best, was published in 1820, under the title of *An Attempt to demonstrate from Reason and Revelation the Necessary Existence, Essential Perfections, and Superintending Providence of an Eternal Being, who is the Creator, the Supporter, and the Governor of all Things* (2 vols. 8vo). This procured him the degree of M.A. from the university of Aberdeen. Among Drew's lesser writings are a *Life of Dr Thomas Coke* (1817), a *History of Cornwall* (1824), and a work on the divinity of Christ (1813). He died at Helston, in Cornwall, March 29, 1833. A memoir of his life by his eldest son appeared in 1834.

DREYSE, JOHANN NICHOLAS VON (1787-1867), inventor of the needle-gun, was the son of a locksmith, and was born at Sömmerda the 20th November 1787. He served his apprenticeship in the shop of his father, and from 1806 to 1809 followed his calling at Altenburg and Dresden. From 1809 to 1814 he was in Paris, where he succeeded in finding employment in the gun-factory of the Swiss officer Pauli, patronized by Napoleon I. Afterwards he returned to Sömmerda, where, in partnership with Kronbiegel, he established a factory for the making of articles in iron by machine tools. In 1824 he patented a new percussion action for the gun, and continued thereafter to busy himself with experiments to improve in every way possible the process of shooting. In 1827 he invented

the needle-gun, but without the advantage of breech-loading; and in 1836, having been encouraged in his endeavours by the Prussian Government, he invented his first complete needle-gun. A gunnery was opened by him in 1841, which ultimately supplied weapons for the troops of all the German states, and before his death employed about 1500 persons. In 1864 he and his family had the rank of nobility conferred on them. He died 9th December 1867.

DRIFFIELD (or GREAT DRIFFIELD, to distinguish it from the neighbouring hamlet of Little Driffield), a market-town of England, in the east riding of Yorkshire, 28 miles to the east of York, and 196 miles from London by road. The town—consisting of one principal street, from which some smaller ones diverge—is agreeably situated at the foot of the Wolds, and is connected with the port of Hull by a navigable canal. It stands in the centre of a fertile agricultural district. An important corn and cattle market is held in the town every Thursday, and there are four large stock-fairs annually at Little Driffield. Besides the parish church, a fine old edifice in different styles, the principal public buildings in Great Driffield are the places of worship for Independents, Methodists, and Baptists, the corn exchange, the dispensary, the mechanics' institute, and the station of the Hull and Scarborough railway. Carpets, cotton, and chemical manure are manufactured in the town; and in the neighbourhood are numerous flour-mills and mills for bone-crushing. Population in 1871, 8364.

DROGHEDA, a seaport, market-town, and municipal and parliamentary borough of Ireland, in the province of Leinster, about 4 miles from the mouth of the Boyne, and 31½ miles north of Dublin by rail. Though situated on the borders of Louth and Meath, it belongs to neither, as the town and surrounding district constitute a county of a city, with an area of 9 square miles, or 5780 acres. It occupies both banks of the river; but the northern division is the larger of the two, and has received greater attention in modern times. The ancient fortifications, still extant in the beginning of the century, have almost completely disappeared; but of the four gateways, one named after St Lawrence remains comparatively perfect, and there are considerable ruins of another. Great improvements have been effected in the town since 1840, under the encouragement bestowed by Benjamin Whitworth, M.P., who built a town-hall at his own expense in 1865, and furnished half the funds necessary for the construction of the water-works which now supply 800,000 gals. daily. Among the public buildings are a mansion-house or mayoralty, with a suite of assembly rooms attached; the "Tholsel," a square building with a cupola; a corn-market, the old linen-hall, an infirmary, a workhouse, and a prison; five Protestant churches, five Roman Catholic chapels, three friaries, and four nunneries. St Peter's Chapel formerly served as the cathedral of the Roman Catholic archbishopric of Armagh; and in the abbey of the Dominican nuns there is still preserved the head of Oliver Plunkett, the archbishop who was executed at Tyburn in 1681 on an unfounded charge of treason. There was at one time an archiepiscopal palace in the town, built by Archbishop Hampton about 1620; and the Dominicans, the Franciscans, the Augustinians, the Carmelites, and the knights of St John had monastic establishments. Of the Dominican buildings there still exists the stately Magdalen tower; the Franciscan friary is a striking ruin; and there are traces more or less distinct of the Augustinian priory, the priory of St Lawrence, and the hospital of St Mary. At the head of the educational institutions is a classical school endowed by Erasmus Smith; and among the public charities are an almshouse for twenty-four aged widows, and a foundation providing houses and annuities for thirty-six clergymen's widows. There is also a blue-coat school, founded about

1727 for the education of freemen's sons. The present building was erected by T. P. Cairnes in 1870. The industrial establishments comprise a large cotton factory, erected by Mr Whitworth in 1864, four extensive saw-mills, three flax-mills, six flour-mills, eight tanneries, five salt-works, four soap works, two extensive breweries, two newspaper offices, chemical manure works, and a large engineering factory for the making of steam-engines, iron-bridges, &c. A brisk trade is carried on, especially with Liverpool (which is distant 133 miles due east), and with Glasgow. The harbour has been greatly improved by the commissioners, and vessels of 400 tons can discharge at the quays. In 1873, 707, with a burden of 115,673 tons, entered the port; and the harbour receipts in 1871 were £3627. The tide reaches 2½ miles above the town to Oldbridge; and barges of 50 tons burden can proceed 19 miles inland to Navan. The river is crossed by a bridge for ordinary traffic, and by a splendid railway viaduct. Assizes, quarter sessions, and petty sessions are held in the town; the parliamentary borough returns one member to Parliament; and the municipal borough is governed by a mayor, 6 aldermen, and 18 councillors. The population of the municipal borough (area, 454 acres) was 17,365 in 1831, 16,845 in 1851, 14,740 in 1861, and 13,510 in 1871. The whole population, with the exception of about 1100, are Roman Catholics. The inhabitants of the parliamentary burgh, which has an area of 5785 acres, numbers 16,165.

In the earliest notices the town of Drogheda is called Inver-Colpa or the Port of Colpa; the present name signifies "The Bridge over the Ford." In 1152 the place is mentioned as the seat of a synod convened by the papal legate, Cardinal Paparo; in 1224 it was chosen by Lucas de Netterville, archbishop of Armagh, for the foundation of a Dominican friary; and in 1228 the two divisions of the town received separate incorporation from Henry III. But there grew up a strong feeling of hostility between Drogheda versus Uriel, and Drogheda versus Midam, in consequence of trading vessels landing their cargoes in the latter or southern town, to avoid the portage duty levied in the former or northern town. At length, after much blood had been shed in the dispute, Philip Bennett, a monk residing in the town, succeeded by his eloquence, on the festival of Corpus Christi, 1412, in persuading the authorities of the two corporations to send to Henry IV. for a new charter sanctioning their combination.

Drogheda has always been considered by the English a place of much importance. In the reign of Edward III. it was classed along with Dublin, Waterford, and Kilkenny, as one of the four staple towns of Ireland. Richard II. received in its Dominican monastery the submissions of O'Neal, O'Donnell, and other chieftains of Ulster and Leinster. The right of coining money was bestowed on the town, and parliaments were several times held within its walls. In the reign of Edward IV. the mayor received a sword of state, and an annuity of £20, in recognition of the services rendered by the inhabitants at Malpas Bridge against O'Reilly; the still greater honour of having a university with the same privileges as that of Oxford remained a mere paper distinction, owing to the poverty of the town and the unsettled state of the country; and an attempt made by the corporation in modern times to resuscitate their rights proved unsuccessful. In 1495 Poyning's laws were enacted by a parliament held in the town. In the civil wars of 1641 the place was besieged by O'Neal and the Northern Irish forces; but it was gallantly defended by Sir Henry Tichborne, and after a long blockade was relieved by the Marquis of Ormond. The same nobleman relieved it a second time, when it was invested by the Parliamentary army under Colonel Jones. In 1649 it was captured by Cromwell, after a short though spirited defence; and nearly every individual within its walls, without distinction of age or sex, was put to the sword. Thirty only escaped, who were afterwards transported as slaves to Barbados. In 1690 it was garrisoned by King James's army; but after the decisive battle of the Boyne, the site of which, about 2½ miles to the west, is marked by an obelisk 150 high, it surrendered to the conqueror without a struggle, in consequence of a threat that quarter would not be granted if the town were taken by storm. Its subsequent history is purely of local interest.

DROHOBYCZ, a town of Austria, in the Galician circle of Sambor, on the Tysminika, a right-hand affluent of the Dniester, at the junction of a branch line from Boryslaw with the main Galician railway. It possesses a castle, a

beautiful Roman Catholic church, a synagogue, and a German high school; and its inhabitants, who number upwards of 12,000, deal in cattle, grain, earthenware, leather, and salt,—the last being obtained from the local brine-wells.

DROITWICH, a municipal and a parliamentary borough of England, in Worcestershire, on the Salwarpe, a left-hand tributary of the Severn, about seven miles by rail N.N.E. of Worcester. With the exception of its modern extensions, the town is built in a straggling and irregular fashion, but it numbers among its public edifices a court-chamber and market-house, two churches—St Andrew's and St Peter's—several chapels, and a hospital established by Lord Keeper Coventry, the revenues of which maintain about forty men and women, and educate about 100 young persons of both sexes. The principal occupation is the manufacture of the salt obtained from the brine springs, or *veyches*, to which the town probably owes both its name and its origin; and the annual quantity obtained is about 116,000 tons. These springs were known to the Romans, who had a station on the spot, as was shown by the remains of a villa, with some interesting and valuable relics, discovered during the formation of the Oxford and Wolverhampton railway. In Domesday-book mention is made of a tax levied on the salt, which must consequently have been manufactured in the 11th century. A charter was bestowed on Droitwich by King John. The population of the municipal borough, with its area of 1849 acres, was 3504 in 1871; that of the parliamentary borough, with its area of 27,577 acres, was 9510.

DRÔME, a department in the south-east of France, formed of parts of Dauphiné and Provence, is bounded W. by the Rhone, which separates it from Ardèche, N. and N.E. by Isère, E. by Hautes Alpes, S.E. by Basses-Alpes, and S. by Vaucluse, and lies between 44° 8' and 45° 20' 25" N. lat. and 4° 41' and 5° 55' E. long. To the east it is covered by spurs of the maritime Alps, one of the largest of which forms part of its eastern boundary, and throws off ridges, mostly wooded, that run east and west with tolerable regularity. These ridges divide the department in its whole extent into three great valleys, having a general slope westwards to the Rhone, namely, that of the Isère in the north, that of the Drôme, which occupies the central portion of the province, and that of the Aygues, in the south. The Rhone and Isère are both navigable. The former receives the whole of the drainage of the department. The soil consists of clays and argillaceous sand with rolled pebbles. Irrigation canals are numerous, and are skilfully managed. The climate, except in the valleys bordering the Rhone, is rather cold, but on the whole bracing and healthy. Snow is visible on the mountain-tops during the greater part of the year. The principal forest-trees are the pine, beech, and oak. In the valleys flourish the olive, chestnut, vine, almond, mulberry, nut, and other fruit trees, and wheat and madder are grown. Black truffles are abundant. Besides agriculture the principal industries are the rearing of silk-worms and sheep, and the manufacture of wines, the best of which are the red and white Ermitage, of woollen, cotton, and dyed linen goods, spun and woven silk, paper, oil, ropes, earthenware, and leather. The wool and wood trades are considerable. The mineral products include iron, copper, lead, lignite, marble, granite, black and red potter's clay, millstones, chalk, and cement-stone. Drôme is divided into the arrondissements of Valence, Die, Montélimart, and Nyons, comprising 29 cantons and 366 communes. The capital is Valence. Of the total area of 652,155 hectares (1,610,823 acres) about 514,227 acres are arable, 415,866 under wood, 329,961 heath, 58,430 vineyards, and 49,203 meadow. The population in 1872 was 320,417.

DROMEDARY. See CAMEL, vol. v. p. 737.

DROPSY (contracted from the old word *hydropisy*, from the Greek ὑδρωψ—ὑδωρ, water, and ψω, the appearance) signifies a collection of simple serous fluid in all or any of the cavities of the body, or in the meshes of its tissues. Dropsy of the subcutaneous connective tissue is termed *œdema* when it is localized and limited in extent; when more diffuse it is termed *anasarca*; the term *œdem* is also applied to dropsies of some of the internal organs, notably to that of the lungs. *Hydrocephalus* signifies an accumulation of fluid within the ventricles of the brain or in the arachnoid cavity; *hydrothorax*, a collection of fluid in one or both pleural cavities; *hydropericardium*, in the pericardium; *ascites*, in the peritoneum; and, when *anasarca* is conjoined with the accumulation of fluid in one or more of the serous cavities, the dropsy is said to be general.

Dropsy is essentially a symptom and not a specific disease, and ought not to be confounded with inflammatory exudations of a serous character. The transudation is a mere filtrate from the blood produced by increased intravascular pressure, of local or general origin, and occurring through the walls of the capillaries or smaller venules. Its specific gravity varies from 1.008 to 1.014; it is alkaline, occasionally neutral, very rarely feebly acid; it is not the liquor sanguinis, but merely water holding in solution a varying proportion of the constituents of the blood serum, chiefly the saline constituents, and of these notably the chloride of sodium, occasionally urea, sometimes cholestrine, always more or less albumen, and a proportionate amount of fibrogenous matter. It may be colourless, greenish or reddish from the presence of blood pigment, or yellowish from the presence of bile pigment; transparent, or opalescent, or milky from the presence of fatty matter derived from the chyle. The membrane from which the dropsical fluid escapes is healthy, or at least not inflamed, and only somewhat sodden by long contact with the fluid—the morbid condition on which the transudation depends lying elsewhere. The occurrence of dropsy is favoured by a watery condition of the blood due to imperfect nutrition, the pre-occurrence of acute disease, or the long continuance of exhausting discharges, as of albumen in Bright's disease, &c. This watery condition of the blood not only predisposes to dropsy, but also lends active aid in producing it by enfeebling the heart and thus disturbing the relations of the intravascular pressure. The active agents in the production of dropsy are whatever increases the intravenous blood pressure locally or generally. Obstruction to the centripetal venous current by thrombosis of the veins, by the pressure of hyperplastic connective tissue, as in hepatic cirrhosis, by the pressure of tumours either pathological, as aneurisms, cancerous or tubercular masses, or physiological, as a gravid uterus or a mass of feces, or by the mere weight of the body in certain positions, as the sedentary, are efficient causes in the production of local dropsies. These are also more rarely brought about by thrombosis, or compression of the lymphatics, or of the thoracic duct, and this partly directly and partly indirectly by acting on the venous blood stream. The active agents in the production of general dropsy are diseases of the heart, the lungs, and the kidneys. The natural tendency of all diseases of the heart is to transfer the blood pressure from the arteries to the veins, and, so soon as this has reached a sufficient degree, dropsy in the form of local *œdema* commences to appear at whatever may be the most depending part of the body—the instep and ankle in the upright position, the lower part of the back or the lungs if the patient be in bed—and this tends gradually to increase till all the cavities of the body are invaded by the serous accumulation. The diseases of the lungs which produce dropsy are those which obstruct the passage of the blood through them, such as emphysema and bronchitis, and thus act precisely like

disease of the heart in transferring the blood pressure from the arteries to the veins, inducing dropsy in exactly a similar manner. The diseases of the kidney which give rise to dropsy are those in which there is more or less obstruction to the secretion of the watery and saline constituents of the urine, accompanied by a more or less free escape of albumen; these are the acute congestive form of nephritis following scarlet fever, the inflammatory or intratubular form of chronic Bright's disease, and the final stage of amyloid degeneration. In the two former the dropsy is often very considerable, and in the absence of cardiac disease will be found to appear first about the loose cellular tissue surrounding the eyes, where the vessels, turged with watery blood, have less efficient support. Dropsy, though often a terminal and always a serious symptom, is yet one which much can be done to ameliorate and in many cases to remove, and this is particularly the case in many local dropsies and in those of cardiac origin. Lung, kidney, and hepatic dropsies are less amenable to treatment; yet one case of ascites is on record in which a perfect recovery took place after the woman had been tapped 133 times, and nearly 400 gallons of fluid removed. Diuretics and purgatives are the remedies chiefly employed; but in certain cases diaphoretics and especially the use of a hot air bath are very effectual, and in a large number paracentesis or tapping is either indispensable, or at all events much expedites the cure.

It may be well to mention that there are certain affections which may be termed *spurious dropsies*, such as *ovarian dropsy*, which is only a cystic disease of the ovary; *hydrometria*, dropsy of the uterus, due to inflammatory occlusion of the os uteri; *hydronephrosis*, dropsy of the kidney, due to obstruction of the ureter, and subsequent distention of these organs by serous accumulations; other hollow organs may also be similarly affected. (G. W. B.)

DROSTE-HÜLSHOFF, ANNETTE ELIZABETH, BARONESS (1798–1848), a German poetess, was born on the estate of Hülshoff, near Munster, and belonged to the elder branch of the Catholic Westphalian family which about the same time had its reputation increased by the juridical labours of Clemens Augustus von Droste-Hülshoff. She received an education of a more scientific character than usually fell at that time to the lot of her sex; and the delicate state of her health obliged her to lead a very quiet and secluded life, which in its turn fostered the natural sensibility of her temperament, and increased her devotion to literature and study. With the exception of a short time spent at Cologne and Bonn about 1825, she mainly resided at her mother's country seat of Rischhaus, near Munster; but in 1841 she went to the castle of Eppishausen, in Thuringia, and in 1844 became a guest at the house of her brother-in-law Von Lassberg, on the borders of the Lake of Constance. She had just purchased an estate in that neighbourhood when she died in May 1848. Besides a volume of *Gedichte* published during her lifetime (Stuttgart, 1844), we have also from her pen *Das geistliche Jahr, nebst einem Anhang religiöser Gedichte*, Stuttgart, 1852; and *Letzte Gaben*, Hanover, 1860. The popularity of the first work is shown by a third edition in 1873. The characteristics of the author are great perfection of form, delicacy of feeling, and vivid realization of external nature. A number of her poems have been rendered into English by Medwin. See Schücking, *Annette von Droste-Hülshoff, Ein Lebensbild*, 1871.

DROUVAIS, JEAN GERMAIN (1763–1788), a French historical painter, was born at Paris on the 25th November 1763. His father, Henri Drouais, and his grandfather, Hubert Drouais, were well-known portrait painters; and it was from his father that he received his first artistic instruction. He was afterwards intrusted to the care of Brenet, an excellent teacher, though his own pictures did not take

high rank. In 1780 David, who had just returned from Rome, opened a school of painting in Paris, and Drouais was one of his earliest and most promising pupils. He adopted the classical style of his master, and gave his whole time to study,—painting during the day, and spending a great part of every night in designing. For weeks together it is said that he never left his studio. In 1783 he was admitted to compete for the great prize of painting offered by the Academy, the subject being the Widow of Nain. After inspecting the works of his fellow-competitors, however, he lost hope and destroyed his own canvas, but was consoled by the assurance of his master David that had he not done so he would have won the prize. Next year he was triumphantly successful, the picture of the Woman of Canaan at the Feet of Christ, with which he gained the prize, being judged by competent critics to be worthy of comparison with the works of Poussin. He was carried shoulder high by his fellow-students through the streets to his mother's house, and a place was afterwards found for his picture in the Louvre. His success making him only the more eager to perfect himself in his art, he accompanied David to Rome, where he worked even more assiduously than in Paris. He was most strongly influenced by the remains of ancient art and by the works of Raphael. Goethe, who was at Rome at the time it was finished, has recorded the deep impression made by his picture of Marius at Minturno, which he characterizes as in some respects superior to the work of David, his master. The last picture which he completed was his Philoctetus on the Island of Lemnos. He died of fever on the 15th July 1788. A monument to his memory was erected by his fellow-students in the church of Santa Maria in the Via Lata.

DROUET, JEAN BAPTISTE (1763–1824), one of the Terrorists of the first French Revolution, chiefly noted for the part he played in the arrest of Louis XVI. at Varennes, was born at Sainte-Menehould in 1763. He served for seven years in the army, and afterwards assisted his father, who was post-master of his native town. The carriages conveying the royal family on their flight to the frontier stopped at his door on the evening of June 21, 1791; and the passengers, travelling under assumed names, were recognized by Drouet, who immediately took steps which led to their arrest and detection on reaching Varennes. For this service the Assembly awarded him 30,000 francs, but he appears to have declined the reward. In September 1792 he was elected deputy to the Convention, and took his place with the most violent party. He voted the death of the king without appeal, showed implacable hostility to the Girondins, and proposed the slaughter of all English residents in France. Sent as commissioner to the army of the north, he was captured at the siege of Maubeuge and imprisoned at Spielberg till the close of 1795. He then became a member of the Council of Five Hundred, and was named secretary. Drouet was implicated in the conspiracy of Babeuf, and was imprisoned; but he made his escape into Switzerland, and thence to Teneriffe. There he took part in the successful resistance to the attempt of Nelson on the island, in 1797. The first empire found in him a docile sub-prefect of Sainte-Menehould. After the second Restoration he was compelled to quit France. Returning secretly he settled at Macon, under a false name and a guise of piety, and preserved his incognito till his death, which took place in that town April 11, 1824.

DROUET D'ERLON, JEAN BAPTISTE (1765–1844), count, marshal of France, and governor of Algeria, was born at Rheims, July 29, 1765. He entered the army in 1782, was discharged after five years' service, re-entered it in 1792, and two years later became aide-de-camp to General Lefèvre. He served at the sieges of Valenciennes, Quesnoy, and Condé, and under Hoche at the blockade of

Ehrenbreitstein. As general of brigade (1799) he fought at Zurich, at the bridge of Schaffhausen, and at the taking of Constance. In August 1800 he was promoted general of division. He distinguished himself at Ulm and Hohenlinden, and by a skilful manœuvre decided the victory of Jena (1806). Drouet took a brilliant part in the siege of Dantzic, and signed the capitulation of the town; he fought at Mohrungen, and was severely wounded at Friedland (1807). After this battle he was made grand officer of the Legion of Honour, was created Count d'Erlon, and received a pension. He afterwards served with distinction in the Peninsular War, and defeated General Hill at the Col de Maya. After the first Restoration he was named commander of the 16th military division. He presided at the council of war, at Lille, which acquitted General Exelmans; but in March 1815 he was arrested on suspicion of treason, and suffered a short imprisonment. He was present under Napoleon at Waterloo, and was severely reproached by the emperor for not bringing his division into action. After the second Restoration he quitted France, and did not return till 1825. He was appointed governor of Algeria in 1834, was created marshal of France in 1843, and died at Paris January 25, 1844.

DROWNING is one of the various forms of death from suffocation, the asphyxiating agent being water; and, accordingly, all the appearances characteristic of death from asphyxia or apnoea are present,—varying in intensity according to the manner of the death, whether it has or has not been attended with violent struggling. In addition, owing to the medium in which the death occurs, certain other signs specially characteristic of drowning are never absent.

By older authors a peculiar form of death by drowning was described, in which the appearances of asphyxia were wanting, and also the special signs of this form of death. To this the name of syncopal asphyxia was given. Hence, in treating of drowning, descriptions of these two forms were given, and in the case of bodies recovered from the water death was said to have occurred either from asphyxia or from syncope. Now, undoubtedly it often happens when persons fall or are thrown into the water that, in consequence of fright or of the shock sustained by violent contact with the surface of the water, no effort is made to save themselves, and death rapidly ensues from syncope. In such cases none of the characteristic signs of drowning are found, and, so far as the examination of the body is concerned, it is impossible to decide upon the exact cause of death. It is quite within the bounds of possibility that in such cases death may have been effected by other means, and the body have been thrown into the water to conceal the true cause of death.

No such uncertainty, however, attends the investigation of a case of drowning by true asphyxia, as it was called. The drowned individual struggles to reach the surface of the water in his efforts to respire; as he does so he draws water into his windpipe which provokes cough. This expels the air from his lungs, and the water which threatened to suffocate him; and as he sinks, in his struggles he endeavours again to respire, but now draws water into his mouth which chokes him, and can only be got rid of by swallowing. Insensibility then comes on, and death rapidly but placidly ensues from a true asphyxia.

If the body be recovered—say within two hours—it is relaxed, and generally presents a pallid appearance. The face is slightly congested, the features placid and composed. The lips are livid, and the tongue is either protruded from the mouth, firmly grasped by the teeth, or it is applied so closely to the dental arch that the various teeth leave along its edge a distinct imprint. Here and there on the surface of the trunk may be observed patches of lividity which cannot be accounted for by the usual gravitation of blood.

which takes place more or less in all forms of death. On the thighs the skin presents a roughened appearance, owing to the unusual development of the papillae, and to this the name of *cutis anserina*, or goose-skin, has been applied. Among the external signs which we are passing in review the state of the hands and fingers merits special attention. In his dying agonies the drowned individual spasmodically clutches for help in all directions; and, should it be a pond or a canal with built retaining walls into which he has fallen, his nails may be injured, sand or mud may be found beneath them, and, firmly grasped in the hand, may be vegetable structures from the sides or the bottom of the pond; or, on the other hand, his fingers may present traces of recent injury.

Internally, the usual signs of asphyxia or apnoea are well marked. These are:—(1) A distended condition of the right cavities of the heart with dark fluid blood, while the left are well contracted, and are either empty or contain only a small quantity of dark-coloured blood. (2) The lungs are developed, and highly congested. On their tissue being incised, the cut surfaces on pressure give out dark-coloured blood and frothy mucus in large quantity. (3) There is congestion of the mucous lining of the air passages; and (4) dark colour and fluidity of the blood through the body.

Among the signs specially characteristic of this form of asphyxia we have:—(1) An unusual quantity of water in the stomach (amounting to one or two pints), which can only be accounted for by water having been swallowed during the last agonies of death. In many cases this cannot be determined with any degree of certainty, the fluid found in the stomach presenting no characters by which it can be positively identified as having formed a portion of the water in which the drowning occurred. In other cases, the fluid by certain characters, as its taste, can be determined to be sea-water, or from its containing some foreign substances, such as aquatic plants or insects, &c., can be identified as the water of the pond or river in which deceased was found. (2) Water in small quantity has been detected in the air-passages. But this, as we shall show, is a sign of little importance, and even in the most favourable circumstances one not easily observed. (3) A peculiar foamy froth presents itself in the throat and windpipe. The appearance of this froth is most striking. It is of a silvery whiteness, and when closely examined is seen to be composed of an infinitude of minute bullae of air. Its origin is easily explained. In the struggle for breath, mucus is poured out along the air passages in greatly increased quantity, and this, together with any water that may have entered, is churned up along with the air which is pent up in the windpipe. Where death has been attended with violent struggling this froth is poured out in great quantity, and may occupy the mouth and nostrils. It is a sign of great importance, as showing that the person was alive while in the water. It is, however, apt to be confounded with a somewhat similar appearance in two other forms of death. When acute bronchitis proves fatal, the air-passages are filled with frothy mucus—which, however, differs in its external characters from the froth found in the drowned. It is not foamy, and the bullae of air are much larger. In addition the special signs of an acute disease of the bronchial tubes are present. In death occurring during a fit of epilepsy, frothy mucus is also often found in the windpipe, but in comparatively small quantity as compared with death by drowning, and the bullae are of larger size.

Of course when all the characteristic signs are present the evidence of drowning is so much the stronger; but it is quite possible, from the presence of a well-marked sign, to be certain as to the cause of death. A girl had fallen asleep during the night close to a stove in the cabin of a coal barge. Her clothes accidentally caught fire, and the

pain of the burning quickly awoke her. In her desperation she rushed up the cabin stairs and threw herself into the water. In the morning her body was recovered considerably burned and covered with the charred dress. The conduct of the parties in the barge at the time was open to suspicion, and it was of importance to determine whether the body had not been thrown into the water after death. All the signs of death by drowning were well marked. The stomach contained water in considerable quantity, and floating on the surface of this fluid were two charred fragments of the dress. These must have been swallowed. The burnt dress was very friable, and portions of it similar to those found floating in the stomach broke away on the slightest touch. The surface of the canal in the immediate neighbourhood of deceased must, during her dying agonies, have been covered with these fragments, and the water which she swallowed happened to contain two of these fragments. Their presence clearly indicated that deceased was alive after she had reached the water. Again, cases have come under our notice, and many such are on record, where in the hand of the deceased have been found firmly grasped a bunch of aquatic vegetable structures which were known to grow only at the bottom of the pond in which the body was found.

Experiments on dogs show that complete immersion produces fatal asphyxia in four minutes, and in man from one to two minutes suffices to cause death. On the other hand, a certain amount of practice enables experienced swimmers to resist asphyxia; and it is related that in 1872 the champion swimmer of England, of the name of Johnson, remained under water for three minutes and ten seconds. It is also known that recovery has followed after an immersion of twenty minutes. In such cases it is to be presumed that the immersion was not complete. As to the sensations of the drowned, after the first struggle for breath, the brain becomes loaded with venous blood, and unconsciousness to external objects ensues. Captain Marryatt tells us that his sensations as he was drowning were rather pleasant than otherwise: "The first struggle for life once over, the water closing round me assumed the appearance of waving green fields. . . . It is not a feeling of pain, but more like sinking down, overpowered by sleep, in the long soft grass of a cool meadow." (*Life*, vol. i. p. 74.) Hence drowning is a favourite death with suicides, in whom—resolutely bent, as they generally are, on self-destruction—the preliminary struggle is soon over. The presence of marks of violence is our only indication of homicide, and when these are absent the verdict of the medical jurist must be that the case is either one of suicide or of simple accident.

One circumstance, however, interferes with the recognition of the signs which we have passed in review, and that is the presence of putrefaction or decay. In consequence of death having occurred in such a medium as water, and as from the sinking of the body it is not exposed to atmospheric air, putrefaction in the colder months of the year proceeds slowly; but in summer, owing to the rapid development of gas in all the soft structures of the body, but especially in the intestines, the body quickly comes to the surface of the water, and decomposition proceeds with great rapidity. All the canals of the body are relaxed, and the pressure of gas is such as to force the froth from the air passages, the water from the stomach, and the blood from the heart. "Almost never," says Devergie, the great authority on the effects of putrefaction in the drowned, "can the signs of drowning during life be determined in summer, so quick is the gaseous putrefaction." Hence, too great caution cannot be exercised by the medical jurist in giving a positive opinion in such cases.

It is remarkable that the progress of putrefaction in persons who have died by drowning should differ widely

from that of the same process in other forms of death. In ordinary cases, the first signs of putrefaction manifest themselves in the lower parts of the abdomen. The rest of the trunk is attacked, then the extremities, and lastly the face. In drowning, on the contrary, the first part of the body to show evidence of decay is the face; and in the course of a few hours, so rapid is the advance of the putrefactive process, that it becomes utterly impossible to recognize the features. Hence it is that it has been chiefly in cases of drowning that difficulties have arisen as to identification, in consequence of that part of the body by which persons are most readily recognized undergoing alteration so rapidly. Devergie, who, from his official connection with the Morgue at Paris, enjoyed unusual facilities for watching the various stages of putrefaction in the drowned, has carefully described them, and we now proceed to give a *résumé* of his observations. The 1st stage includes a green discoloration of the skin, first noticed on the face and neck, which gradually extends over the body. The 2d is the evolution of gas, distending the abdomen, and causing those changes to which we have already adverted. The 3d is that of brown putrefaction, which affects all the parts of the body previously coloured green. The 4th is that of putrilage. The discoloured parts soften, liquefy, and disappear. Under such circumstances the body rapidly decays, and the bones fall asunder. On the other hand, in cool weather the process of liquefaction is arrested, and the soft parts become solidified, owing to their conversion into adipocire, a peculiar kind of animal soap. To this stage—the 5th—Devergie gives the name of saponification. The 6th stage is termed desiccation, or drying, from the continued removal of the fluids from the body, which, thus hardened, is liable, from the action of the elements, to undergo corrosion; and at the same time long immersion leads to the formation of various incrustations. Devergie treats of these two conditions under the heads of corrosion and incrustation. In the 9th and last stage we have the destruction of the soft parts generally. In the liquid decomposition the part of the body first attacked was the face, and the same order is observed in the later stages—the soft parts of the face, now hardened by their transformation into adipocire, fall off, and leave nothing but a grinning skeleton of a face behind, the rest of the body being comparatively perfect. This peculiar progress of the process of decomposition in the drowned explains the cases recorded of apparently decapitated heads, and of bodies consisting of headless trunks, having been found floating in the sea. These stages of the putrefactive process Devergie states do not follow any definite order or period of sequence, and each case demands careful investigation as to the condition of the body and the time of the year when the drowning occurred; but as the result of his experience he finds that the respective seasons of summer and winter make at least a month's difference in the period at which the earlier changes occur.

As to the treatment of the drowned, a complete revolution has in recent times taken place in its details. To induce a renewal of the respiration it was formerly recommended that air should be forcibly introduced into the lungs by means of a pair of bellows, and, according to the older directions of the Humane Society, the body was "to be well shaken every ten minutes in order to render the process of animation more certain." These expedients proved singularly inefficacious except in cases where the other proposals of the society, such as rubbing and the application of warmth, would of themselves have procured recovery. In 1856 Dr Marshall Hall devised his ready method or postural treatment of the asphyxiated, and by dissections, and by actual results in cases of still birth and of drowning, proved that respiration could be imitated by

simply changing the position of the body. Since then Dr R. Silvester has suggested a still more simple plan of postural treatment which, along with that of Dr Marshall Hall, has been adopted by the Humane Society and also by the National Life Boat Institution, from whose published directions we give the modern treatment of the drowned by both methods, which is "in use in Her Majesty's Fleet, in the Coast-guard Service, and at all the stations of the British Army at home and abroad."

DIRECTIONS FOR RESTORING THE APPARENTLY DROWNED.

I. Send immediately for medical assistance, blankets, and dry clothing, but proceed to treat the patient *instantly* on the spot, in the open air, with the face downward, whether on shore or afloat; exposing the face, neck, and chest to the wind, except in severe weather, and removing all tight clothing from the neck and chest, especially the braces. The points to be aimed at are—first and *immediately*, the restoration of breathing; and secondly, after breathing is restored, the promotion of warmth and circulation. The efforts to restore breathing must be commenced immediately and energetically, and persevered in for one or two hours, or until a medical man has pronounced that life is extinct. Efforts to promote warmth and circulation, beyond removing the wet clothes and drying the skin, must not be made until the first appearance of natural breathing; for if circulation of the blood be induced before breathing has recommenced, the restoration to life will be endangered.

II.—To RESTORE BREATHING.—*To clear the throat.*—Place the patient on the floor or ground with the face downwards, and one of the arms under the forehead, in which position all fluids will more readily escape by the mouth, and the tongue itself will fall forward, leaving the entrance into the windpipe free. Assist this operation by wiping and cleansing the mouth. If satisfactory breathing commences, use the treatment described below to promote warmth. If there be only slight breathing—or no breathing—or if the breathing fail, then—

To excite breathing.—Turn the patient well and instantly on the side, supporting the head, and excite the nostrils with snuff, harts-



FIG. 1.—Inspiration (Dr Marshall Hall's method).



FIG. 2.—Expiration (Dr Marshall Hall's method).

horn, and smelling salts, or tickle the throat with a feather, &c. if they are at hand. Rub the chest and face warm, and dash cold water, or cold and hot water alternately, on them. If there be no success, lose not a moment, but instantly—

To imitate breathing.—Replace the patient on the face, raising and supporting the chest well on a folded coat or other article of dress. Turn the body very gently on the side and a little beyond, and then briskly on the face, back again, repeating these measures cautiously, efficiently, and perseveringly, about fifteen times in the minute, or once every four or five seconds, occasionally varying the side. (By placing the patient on the chest, the weight of the body forces the air out; when turned on the side, this pressure is removed.

and air enters the chest.) On each occasion that the body is replaced on the face, make uniform but efficient pressure with brisk movement on the back between and below the shoulder-blades or bones on each side, removing the pressure immediately before turning the body on the side. During the whole of the operations let one person attend solely to the movements of the head and of the arm placed under it. (The first measure increases the expiration—the second commences inspiration.) The result is respiration or natural breathing, and, if not too late, life.

Whilst the above operations are being proceeded with, dry the hands and feet, and as soon as dry clothing or blankets can be procured, strip the body, and cover or gradually re-clothe it, but taking care not to interfere with the efforts to restore breathing.

III. Should these efforts not prove successful in the course of from two to five minutes, proceed to imitate breathing by Dr Silvester's method, as follows:—Place the patient on the back on a flat surface, inclined a little upwards from the feet; raise and support the head and shoulders on a small firm cushion or folded article of dress placed under the shoulder-blades. Draw forward the patient's tongue, and keep it projecting beyond the lips; an elastic band over the tongue and under the chin will answer this purpose, or a piece of string or tape may be tied round them, or by raising the lower jaw, the teeth may be made to retain the tongue in that position. Remove all tight clothing from about the neck and chest, especially the braces.



FIG. 3.—Inspiration (Dr Silvester's method).



FIG. 4.—Expiration (Dr Silvester's method).

To imitate the movements of breathing—Standing at the patient's head, grasp the arms just above the elbows, and draw the arms gently and steadily upwards above the head, and keep them stretched upwards for two seconds. (By this means air is drawn into the lungs.) Then turn down the patient's arms, and press them gently and firmly for two seconds against the sides of the chest. (By this means air is pressed out of the lungs.) Repeat these measures alternately, deliberately, and perseveringly, about fifteen times in a minute, until a spontaneous effort to respire is perceived, immediately upon which cease to imitate the movements of breathing, and proceed to induce circulation and warmth.

IV.—TREATMENT AFTER NATURAL BREATHING HAS BEEN RESTORED. To promote warmth and circulation—Commence rubbing the limbs upwards, with firm grasping pressure and energy, using handkerchiefs, flannels, &c. (By this measure the blood is propelled along the veins towards the heart.) The friction must be continued under the blankets or over the dry clothing. Promote the warmth of the body by the application of hot flannels, bottles, or bladders of hot water, heated bricks, &c., to the pit of the stomach, the armpits, between the thighs, and to the soles of the feet. If the patient has been carried to a house after respiration has been restored, be careful to let the air play freely about the room.

On the restoration of life, a teaspoonful of warm water should be given; and then, if the power of swallowing have returned, small quantities of wine, warm brandy-and-water, or coffee should be administered. The patient should be kept in bed, and a disposition to sleep encouraged.

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS.—The above treatment should be per-

severed in for some hours, as it is an erroneous opinion that persons are irrecoverable because life does not soon make its appearance, persons having been restored after persevering for many hours. The appearances which generally accompany death are the following:—breathing and the heart's action cease entirely; the eyelids are generally half closed, the pupils dilated; the tongue approaches to the under edges of the lips, and these, as well as the nostrils, are covered with a frothy mucus; coldness and pallor of surface increase.

The following cautions should be attended to:—Prevent unnecessary crowding of persons round the body, especially if in an apartment. Avoid rough usage, and do not allow the body to remain on the back unless the tongue is secured. Under no circumstances hold the body up by the feet. On no account place the body in a warm bath unless under medical direction, and even then it should only be employed as a momentary excitant.

Dr Silvester's method is more generally practised than that of Dr M. Hall,—its special advantages being that it commences by imitating inspiration, and more completely distends the chest. But we are of opinion that the combination of the two methods as recommended above should undoubtedly be practised in every case.

It has frequently been pointed out that in fatal cases of drowning the right auricle of the heart is very much distended; and it has been plausibly urged by Professor Struthers of Aberdeen (*Edinburgh Medical Journal*, 1857, p. 418) that the movements of respiration may be successfully imitated, and air may enter the lungs, and yet the patient may not recover in consequence of the stoppage of the action of the heart. He recommends that blood should be drawn from the external jugular vein, so as to relieve the engorged auricle, which, from its distension, is paralyzed. The abstraction of a small quantity of blood is all that is required to effect this—from half to one or two table-spoonfuls. Finally, as a last resource, galvanism must be had recourse to.

Both this and the blood-letting must be practised by a qualified medical man; but it is important to know that the methods of Dr Hall and Dr Silvester can easily be learned by any one, and that, if early and perseveringly applied, they are attended with a large measure of success. The treatment must be continued for at least eight hours, should there be an absence of extreme pallor, and while any heat of the body remains.

The question of the treatment of the drowned cannot be regarded as definitely settled, and the plans of Hall and Silvester have from time to time been subjected to criticism. Among the latest suggestions is that of Dr B. Howard of America, who, by means of what he terms his "direct" method, which mainly consists in pressure of the chest from above (the patient being placed on his back), claims that air is more easily introduced into the lungs, and that the expansion and contraction of the chest are more perfectly attained (see *Lancet*, August 11, 1877). At the meeting of the British Medical Association at Manchester 1877, Dr Howard practically demonstrated his plan on the living subject, and there can no doubt that involuntary respiration was readily produced. Further evidence, however, is necessary from actual cases of suspended animation.

See the treatises on Medical Jurisprudence by Devergie, Orfila, Caspar, Taylor, Guy, and Woodman and Tidy; article "Apnoea," by G. Harley, M.D., in vol. v. of *Holmes's Surgery*, 2d edition, pp. 889; and Report on Asphyxia by Committee of the Royal Medical and Chirurgical Society of London, in vol. xiv. of *Transactions*, 1862. (H. D. L.)

DROZ, FRANÇOIS-XAVIER JOSEPH (1773–1850), a French writer on moral and political subjects, was born on October 31, 1773, in the city of Besançon, where his family had furnished men of considerable mark to the legal profession. His own legal studies led him to Paris in 1792; he arrived on the very day after the dethronement of the king, and was present during the massacres of September; but on the declaration of war he joined the volunteer *détachement* of the Doubs, and for the next three years served in the army

of the Rhine. Receiving his discharge on the score of ill health, he soon after obtained a much more congenial post in the newly-founded *école centrale* of his native city; and in 1799 he made his first appearance as an author by an *Essai sur l'art oratoire*, Paris, Fructidor, An VII., in which he acknowledges his indebtedness more especially to Hugh Blair. This early reference to Scottish literature is interesting in connection with the peculiarly Scottish tone of mind which is observable in his writings, and has attracted the notice of Sainte-Beuve. Removing to Paris in 1803, he became intimate not only with the like-minded Ducis, but also with the sceptical Cabanis; and it was at the philosopher's advice that, in order to catch the public ear, he produced the romance of *Lina*, which Sainte-Beuve has characterized as a mingled echo of Florian and *Werther*. Like several other literary men of the time, he obtained a post in the revenue office known as the *Droits réunis*, then under the control of M. François of Nantes; but from 1814 he devoted himself exclusively to literature and became a contributor to various journals. Already favourably known by his *Essai sur l'art d'être heureux*, Paris, 1806, his *Éloge de Montaigne*, 1812, and his *Essai sur le beau dans les arts*, 1815, he not only gained the Monthyon prize in 1823 by his work *De la philosophie morale ou des différents systèmes sur la science de la vie*, but also in 1824 obtained admission to the Académie Française. The main doctrine inculcated in this treatise is that society will never be in a proper state till men have been educated to think of their duties and not of their rights. It was followed in 1825 by *Application de la morale à la philosophie et à la politique*, and in 1829 by *Économie politique, ou principes de la science des richesses*, a methodical and clearly written treatise, which has had the honour of being edited by Michel Chevalier in 1854. His next and greatest work was a *Histoire du règne de Louis XVI.* (3 vols. Paris, 1838–1842), the result of very careful and prolonged study, and marked by greater vigour of style and deeper powers of thought than he had previously displayed. As he advanced in life Droz had become more and more decidedly religious, and the last work of his prolific pen was *Pensées du Christianisme*, 1842. Few have left so blameless a reputation: in the words of Sainte-Beuve, he was born and he remained all his life of the race of the good and the just.

See Guizot, *Discours Académiques*; Montalembert, "Discours de Réception," in *Mémoires de l'Académie Française*; Sainte-Beuve, *Causeries du lundi*, t. iii.; Michel Chevalier, Notice prefixed to the *Economie politique*.

DRUIDISM, the name usually given to the religious system of the ancient Gauls and Britons. The word Druid, one form or other of which is used in early Celtic records to designate a class of priests corresponding to the *Magi* or wise men of the ancient Persians, is of uncertain etymology. The derivation from the Greek *δρῦς*, an oak, though as old as the days of the elder Pliny, is probably fanciful.

We find in Cæsar the first and at the same time the most circumstantial account of the Druids to be met with in the classical writers. In the digression on the manners and customs of Gaul and Germany which occupies a portion of the sixth book of his Gallic war, he tells us that all men of any rank and dignity in Gaul were included among either the Druids or the nobles. The former were the religious guides of the people as well as the chief expounders and guardians of the law. On those who refused to submit to their decisions they had the power of inflicting severe penalties, of which excommunication from society was the most dreaded. As they were not a hereditary caste, and enjoyed exemption from service in the field as well as from payment of taxes, admission to the order was eagerly sought after by the youth of Gaul. The course of training to which a novice had to submit was protracted, extending

sometimes over twenty years. All instruction was communicated orally, but for certain purposes they had a written language in which they used the Greek characters. The president of the order, whose office was elective and who enjoyed the dignity for life, had supreme authority among them. They taught that the soul was immortal. Astrology, geography, physical science, and natural theology were their favourite studies. Britain was the head-quarters of Druidism, but once every year a general assembly of the order was held within the territories of the Carnutes in Gaul, probably in the neighbourhood of the modern Dreux. The Gauls in extreme cases offered human sacrifices, usually criminals. Their chief deity was identified by Cæsar with the Mercury of the Romans. Writing a few years later, Cicero, in his treatise on divination, introduces his brother Quintus as remarking on the existence among the Gauls of augurs or soothsayers, known by the name of Druids. With one of these, Divitiacus, an *Æduan*, Quintus says he was well acquainted. Cicero's contemporary, Diodorus Siculus, informs us that there were among the ancient Gauls bards, certain philosophers and theologians named Druids, and soothsayers. He also hints at some connection between their philosophy and that of Pythagoras. The geographers, Strabo and Pomponius Mela, add little to our knowledge of the Druids. Lucan, in his *Pharsalia*, mentions, among the Gallic and other tribes that relapsed into their former ways upon Cæsar's crossing the Rubicon, "the worshippers with bloody rites of Teutates, Hesus, and Taranis," and refers immediately afterwards to the bards and Druids. Something more noteworthy is told by the elder Pliny. According to him the Gallic Druids held the mistletoe in the highest veneration. Groves of oak were their chosen retreats. Whatever grew on that tree was thought to be a gift from heaven, more especially the mistletoe. When thus found the latter was cut with a golden knife by a priest clad in a white robe, two white bulls being sacrificed on the spot. The name given it by the Druids signified in their language All-Heal; and its virtues were believed to be very great. Two other herbs, called selago and samolus, were likewise greatly valued by them for their medicinal efficacy. But the most remarkable of all the Druidical charms was the anguineum, or snake's egg. It was said to be produced from the saliva and frothy sweat of a number of serpents writhing in an entangled mass, and to be tossed up into the air as soon as formed. The fortunate Druid who managed, as it fell, to catch it in his sagum, or cloak, rode off at full speed on a horse that had been in waiting for him, pursued by the serpents till they were stopped by the intervention of a running stream. A genuine specimen of this egg when thrown into the water would float against the current, even if encased in gold. Pliny declares that he had seen one. "It is," he says, "about the size of a moderately large round apple, and has a cartilaginous rind studded with cavities like those on the arms of a polypus." Tacitus, in describing the attack made on the island of Mona (Anglesea) by the Romans under Suetonius Paulinus, represents the legionaries as being awe-struck on landing by the appearance of a band of Druids who, with hands uplifted towards heaven, poured forth terrible imprecations on the heads of the invaders. The courage of the Romans, however, soon overcame such fears; the Britons were put to flight; and the groves of Mona, the scene of many a sacrifice and bloody rite, were cut down. The annalists Lampridius and Vopiscus, two of the *Scriptores Historiæ Augustæ*, introduce us, if the "Dryas" of these writers be connected, as is probable, with the "Druides" of Cæsar and others, to a new branch of the order—Druidesses, who, however, are simply prophetic women. For example, Vopiscus tells us, on the authority of his grandfather, who