

by a deputy, as related in 2 Kings ix. 1-3. During the reigns of Jehu and Jehozabab the Scripture narrative contains no notice of Elisha, but from the circumstances of his death (2 Kings xiii. 14-21) it is clear that he had continued to hold the office and receive the honours of a prophet. Joash the king waited on him on his deathbed, and addressed him in the same words of profound reverence and regret which he himself had used to Elijah: "Oh my father, my father, the chariot of Israel and the horsemen thereof." By the result of a symbolic discharge of arrows he informed the king of his coming success against Syria, and immediately thereafter he died. It seems fitly to complete the contrast between him and his greater predecessor to be told expressly that "he was buried." The miracle wrought at his tomb has been already noticed.

Elisha is canonized in the Greek Church, his festival being on the 14th June, under which date his life is entered in the *Acta Sanctorum*.

ELIZABETH, queen of England, one of the most fortunate and illustrious of modern sovereigns, was born in the palace of Greenwich on the 7th of September 1533. She was the only surviving issue of the ill-starred union between Henry VIII. and Anne Boleyn, which extended over a space of less than three years. Anne was crowned at Westminster June 15, 1533, and was beheaded within the Tower of London May 19, 1536. The girlish beauty and vivacity of Anne Boleyn, with her brief career of royal splendour and her violent death, invest her story with a portion of romantic interest; but she does not seem to have possessed any solid virtues or intellectual superiority. The name of Elizabeth cannot be added to the list of eminent persons who are said to have inherited their peculiar talents and dispositions from the side of the mother. On the contrary, she closely resembled her father in many respects,—in his stout heart and haughty temper, his strong self-will and energy, and his love of courtly pomp and magnificence. Combined with these, however, there was in Elizabeth a degree of politic caution and wisdom, with no small dissimulation and artifice, which certainly does not appear in the character of "bluff King Harry." Early hardships and dangers had taught Elizabeth prudence and suspicion, as well as afforded opportunity in her forced retirement for the pursuit of learning and for private accomplishments. The period of her youth was an interesting and memorable one in English history. The doctrines of the Reformation had spread from Germany to this country; and the passions and interests of Henry led him to adopt in part the new faith, or at least to abjure the grand tenet of the Papal supremacy. Anne Boleyn, by her charms and influence, facilitated this great change; and there is historical truth as well as poetical beauty in the couplet of Gray,

"That Love could teach a monarch to be wise,
And gospel light first dawn'd from Boleyn's eyes."

The Protestantism of England was henceforth linked to Elizabeth's title to the crown. She was in her fourteenth year when her father King Henry died. Her education had been carefully attended to, latterly under the superintendence of good Catherine Parr, the last of Henry's queens. The young princess was instructed in Greek and Latin, first by William Grindal, and afterwards by Roger Ascham, who has described his pupil in glowing terms as "exempt from female weakness," and endued with a masculine power of application, quick apprehension, and retentive memory. She spoke French and Italian with fluency, was elegant in her penmanship, whether in the Greek or Roman character, and was skilful in music, though she did not delight in it. "With respect to personal decoration," adds Ascham, "she greatly prefers a simple elegance to show and splendour." This last characteristic, if it ever existed, did not abide with Elizabeth. Her love of rich dresses, jewels, and other

ornaments was excessive; and at her death she is said to have had about 2000 costly suits of all countries in her wardrobe. Nor can it be said that even at the tender age of sixteen, when Roger Ascham drew her flattering portrait, Elizabeth was exempt from female weakness. After the death of Henry, the queen-dowager married the Lord Admiral Seymour, whose gallantries and ambition embittered her latter days. Seymour paid court to the Princess Elizabeth, and with the connivance of her governess, Mrs Ashley, obtained frequent interviews, in which much boisterous and indelicate familiarity passed. The grayer court ladies found fault with "my lady Elizabeth's going in a night in a barge upon Thames, and for other light parts;" and the scandal proceeded so far as to become matter of examination by the council. Mrs Ashley and Thomas Parry, cofferer of the princess's household (afterwards patronized by Elizabeth), were committed for a time to the Tower, and Elizabeth underwent an examination by Sir Thomas Tyrwhit, but would confess nothing. "She hath a very good wit," said Tyrwhit, "and nothing is gotten of her but by great policy." The subsequent disgrace and death of Seymour closed this first of Elizabeth's love passages; she applied herself diligently to her studies under Ascham, and maintained that "policy" and caution which events rendered more than ever necessary.

The premature death of Edward VI. called forth a display of Elizabeth's sagacity and courage. Edward had been prevailed upon by the duke of Northumberland to dispose of the crown by will to his cousin Lady Jane Grey. The two sisters, Mary and Elizabeth, on whom the succession had been settled by the testamentary provisions of Henry VIII., as well as by statute, were thus excluded. Mary's friends immediately took up arms; Elizabeth was asked to resign her title in consideration of a sum of money, and certain lands which should be assigned to her; but she rejected the proposal, adding that her elder sister should be treated with first, as during Mary's lifetime she herself had no right to the throne. Elizabeth then rallied her friends and followers, and when Mary approached London, successful and triumphant, she was met by Elizabeth at the head of 1000 horse—knights, squires, and ladies, with their attendants. Such a congratulation merited a different acknowledgment from that which Elizabeth was fated to experience. But the temper of Mary, never frank or amiable, had been soured by neglect, persecution, and ill-health; and her fanatical devotion to the ancient religion had become the absorbing and ruling passion of her mind. She was not devoid of private virtues,—certainly excelling Elizabeth in sincerity and depth of feeling; but her virtues "walked a narrow round;" and whenever the Romish Church was in question, all feelings of private tenderness, and all considerations of public expediency or justice, were with Mary as flax in the fire. The five years of her reign are perhaps the most un-English epoch in our annals.¹

¹ Miss Lucy Alkin, in her *Memoirs of the Court of Elizabeth*, praises the magnanimity of Elizabeth in allowing Shakespeare's drama of *Henry VIII.*, in which the wrongs and sufferings of Catherine of Aragon are embalmed, to be publicly offered to the compassion of her people. We wish that this instance of magnanimity could be justly ascribed to the queen; but it seems certain that Shakespeare's *Henry VIII.* was not produced till after Elizabeth's death. No poet would have dared to hint at the death of the queen while she lived; and Cranmer's prophecy in the fifth act speaks of the death of Elizabeth and of her successor James. We have Ben Jonson's testimony as to Shakespeare's favour with Elizabeth,—

"Those fights upon the banks of Thames,
That so did take Eliza and our James."

And the tradition that the poet wrote his *Merry Wives of Windsor* by request of the queen, who wished to see *Falstaff* in love, is at least highly probable. One of the latest Shakespearean discoveries is that the poet, along with his "fellows" Kempe and Burbage, acted in two plays before the queen at Greenwich in December 1594, for which

To escape from indignities and persecution at court, Elizabeth was suffered to retire, though carefully watched, to her house of Ashridge, in Buckinghamshire. Wyatt's insurrection, prompted by the rumoured marriage of Mary with Philip of Spain, made her still more an object of suspicion and distrust, as the hopes of the Protestant party were on all occasions turned to Elizabeth. The young princess was taken from Ashridge and privately committed to the Tower. Her death was demanded by some of the bigoted adherents of the court, but Mary dared not and probably did not desire to proceed to this extremity; Philip, when allied to the English crown, interceded on behalf of the fair captive, and Elizabeth was removed to Woodstock, under care of a fierce Catholic, Sir Henry Bedingfield. Her extreme wariness and circumspection baffled every effort to entrap her. She conformed outwardly to the Catholic Church, opening a chapel in her house at Woodstock, and keeping a large crucifix in her chamber. This conformity was not unnaturally ascribed to dissimulation, but part was probably real. To the end of her life, Elizabeth retained a portion of the old belief. She had always a crucifix with lighted tapers before it in her private chapel; she put up prayers to the Virgin (being, she said, a virgin herself, she saw no sin in this); she disliked all preaching and controversy on the subject of the real presence; and she was zealous almost to slaying against the marriage of the clergy. She was anxious to retain as much as possible of the Catholic ceremonial and the splendid celebrations of the church festivals, which the ardent reformers would gladly have swept away, as had been done in Scotland. The Anglican Church was a compromise.

The wretched and inglorious reign of Mary terminated on the 17th of November 1558. Elizabeth heard the news of her accession at Hatfield, and she fell down on her knees exclaiming: *A Domino factum est istud, et est mirabile oculis nostris*—"It is the Lord's doing, it is marvellous in our eyes"—words which she afterwards caused to be stamped on a gold coin, impressing on her silver coin another pious motto, *Posui Deum adiutorem meum*—"I have chosen God for my helper." All her perils were now passed. The nation received her with unbounded enthusiasm. Church bells were rung, bonfires blazed, tables were spread on the streets, the Protestants exulted with a holy joy.

Elizabeth was in her twenty-fifth year when she ascended the throne. She had been better disciplined and trained for her high trust than most princes, yet the difficulties that surrounded the English crown at this time might well have appalled her. The nation was struggling in a war with France, trade was much decayed, Calais had been lost, and England was distracted by religious divisions and animosities. All Catholic Europe might be expected to be arrayed against the Protestant queen of England. Elizabeth, however, at once chose the better part for herself and the nation. Without waiting for the assembling of her first parliament, she ordered the church service to be read in English, and the elevation of the host to be discontinued. But before this could be known abroad, she had instructed the English ambassador at Rome to notify her accession to the pope. Paul IV., then pontiff, arrogantly replied, that England was a fief of the Holy See, that Elizabeth was illegitimate, and could not inherit the crown, and that she should renounce all her pretensions and submit to his decision. If Elizabeth had ever wavered as to the course she should pursue, this papal fulmination must have fixed her determination. Twelve years afterwards, a subsequent pope, Pius V., issued a bull releasing English Catholics from their allegiance to the queen, and formally depriving

her received, upon the Council's warrant, £13, 6s. 8d. and, "by way of her Majesty's favour," £6, 13s. 4d.—in all £20 (Halliwell's *Illustrations*, 1874).

her of her title to the throne. But the thunders of the Vatican, like the threats of the Escorial, fell harmless on the English shores. The nation, under its Protestant monarch and her wise counsellors, the Lord-Keeper Bacon, Cecil (afterwards Lord Burgheley), Walsingham, Throckmorton, Sir Ralph Sadler, and others, pursued its triumphant course, while its naval strength and glory were augmented beyond all former precedent. The exploits of the gallant sea-rovers Drake, Hawkins, and Frobisher, the heroic deaths of the brave admirals Gilbert and Grenville, and the transatlantic adventures of Raleigh—are still unsurpassed in romantic interest. The government of Elizabeth and the public events of her reign will fall to be recorded in another part of this work, under the head of ENGLAND. Her first parliament passed the famous Acts of Supremacy and Uniformity, which struck directly at the papal power. All clergymen and public functionaries were obliged to renounce the temporal and spiritual jurisdiction of every foreign prince and prelate; and all ministers, whether benefited or not, were prohibited from using any but the established liturgy. These statutes were carried out with considerable severity; many Catholics suffered death; but all might have saved themselves, if they had explicitly denied the right of the pope to depose the queen. The Puritans and nonconformists, on the other hand, were content to bear some portion of the burden of intolerance and oppression, from the consideration that Elizabeth was the bulwark of Protestantism. If they lost her firm hand they lost all; and the numerous plots and machinations of the Catholics against the queen's life showed how highly it was valued, and how precious it was to Protestant Europe. In the latter part of the queen's reign, her domestic and fiscal regulations were justly open to censure. The abuse of monopolies had grown to be a great evil; grants of exclusive right to deal in almost all commodities had been given to the royal favourites, who were exorbitant in their demands, and oppressed the people at pleasure. Elizabeth wisely yielded to the growing strength of the Commons, and the monopolies complained of were cancelled. The monarchy, though as yet arbitrary and in some respects undefined, was still, in essential points, limited by law.

One great object of the Protestants was to secure a successor to the throne by the marriage of Elizabeth. The nearest heir was Mary Queen of Scots, a zealous Catholic, who was supported by all the Catholic states, and had ostentatiously quartered the royal arms of England with her own, thus deeply offending the proud and jealous Elizabeth. The hand of the English queen was eagerly solicited by numerous suitors—by Philip of Spain, who was ambitious of continuing his connection with England, by the Archduke Charles of Austria, by Eric king of Sweden, the duke of Anjou, and others. With some of these Elizabeth negotiated and coquetted for years; to Anjou she seems to have been attached; but her affections were more deeply touched, as Mr Hallam has remarked, by her favourite Dudley, earl of Leicester. Her early resolution, and that which ultimately prevailed over her weakness or vanity, was, that she should remain single and hold undivided power. To a deputation from the Commons on this delicate subject, she emphatically said she had resolved to live and die a virgin queen: "and for me it shall be sufficient that a marble stone declare that a queen, having reigned such a time, lived and died a virgin." She appears often to have wavered in her resolution, and, in her partiality for handsome courtiers and admirers, to have forgotten her prudence and dignity. Her partiality for Essex was undisguised—it was unhappy for both; and making Hatton chancellor because he could dance gracefully was a bold but not unsuccessful achievement. Elizabeth's fits of rage were as violent as her fits of love. Her maids of honour

sometimes felt the weight of the royal hand; and when Essex once turned his back on her, she appropriately dealt him a box on the ear. As a painter to these *nugæ*, we may add, that Elizabeth swore strongly, decided and masculine oaths.

The feminine weakness and egregious vanity of Elizabeth, in the midst of so many masculine qualities of temperament and intellect, have afforded abundant matter for garrulous chroniclers. Five years after she ascended the throne, she issued a proclamation against portrait painters and engravers, who had erred in expressing "that natural representation of her majesty's person, favour, or grace," that was desired by her loving subjects, and who were ordered to desist until some "special cunning painter" might be permitted to have access to the royal presence. The works of the unskilful and common painters were, as Raleigh relates, by the queen's commandment, "knocked in pieces and cast into the fire." A long account is given by the Scottish ambassador Melville of certain interviews he had with Elizabeth when in her most gracious and pleasant mood. She showed him "my lord's picture,"—a portrait of the unworthy favourite Dudley; she changed her dress every day, "one day the English weed, another the French, and another the Italian, and so forth," asking Melville which became her best; her hair, he says, was rather reddish than yellow, and curled naturally; she inquired whether the queen of Scotland or herself was of highest stature, and Melville answering that Mary was tallest, "then," saith she, "she is too high, for I myself am neither too high nor too low." Melville praised Mary's accomplishments as a musician and dancer, and Elizabeth contrived, as if by accident, that he should hear her play upon the virginals: "she inquired whether my queen or she played best; in that I found myself obliged to give her the praise." In the matter of the dancing, Melville was also able to answer, that Mary, did not dance "so high and disposedly" as Elizabeth. Determined to show all her accomplishments, Elizabeth addressed the wary ambassador in Italian, which she spoke "reasonably well," and in German, which, he says, was "not so good." These glimpses of the woman Elizabeth contrast strangely with the sovereign, who, at Tilbury camp, rode from rank to rank of her army, bare-headed, with a general's truncheon in her hand, declaring to her soldiers that she was resolved to live and die amongst them in the midst and heat of the battle; and that she thought it "foul scorn that Parma or Spain, or any prince of Europe, should dare to invade the borders of her realms." Language and sentiments like these, reflecting the feeling of the nation, must have insured the destruction of the troops of Parma or Spain, even if the vaunted Armada had not been sunk by the English fire or scattered by tempests. At this great crisis, however, Elizabeth owed much of her popularity and security to the wisdom of her ministers and the spirit of her people, rather than to her own patriotism and sense of duty. She had from unwise parsimony impoverished the navy, as she had previously neglected the army, and left the country comparatively defenceless. It was only after repeated applications and entreaties that Burghley and Walsingham obtained the royal consent to carry out the necessary preparations. Walsingham made large personal advances, which were never repaid. Irresolution would seem *a priori* to be a weakness alien to the despotic character of Elizabeth, yet it is certain that she was often, on momentous occasions, hesitating, wavering, and undecided. The sagacity and devotedness of her chief counsellors, though not incited or fed by the royal bounty, were her safety and her strength.

The darkest stain on the memory of Elizabeth is her treatment of Mary Queen of Scots. To have cut off Mary from the crown, settling it on her son, would have secured

the Protestant succession, and Mary liberated would most probably have repaired to France, whence her revenue was derived, or to Spain. Thus the conspiracies for her release and her own machinations would have been averted. Her execution, though clamoured for by the English nation, was an act of cruelty peculiarly revolting on the part of a female sovereign and kinswoman. And Elizabeth's affected reluctance to sign the death warrant, her prompting to secretary Davison that Sir Amias Paulet should be instigated to make away with the captive queen (which the "dainty precise fellow," as Elizabeth termed him, refused to do), and her feigned grief and indignation after the event had taken place—throwing the blame on her ministers and on the unfortunate secretary who placed the warrant before her for signature—all this over-acted and disgusting hypocrisy is almost as injurious to the reputation of Elizabeth as the deed itself.

Mr Froude has said that no trace can be found of personal animosity on the part of Elizabeth towards Mary. It is evident, however, that jealousy if not hatred animated the English queen towards her rival. The youth and beauty of Mary were a source of aversion; Elizabeth never forgave her for quartering the royal arms of England; and there was a certain malicious letter, written by Mary to Elizabeth when the captive queen was under the guardianship of the earl of Shrewsbury, that must have chafed the Tudor blood in no ordinary degree. In this epistle Mary reported some alleged speeches of the countess of Shrewsbury charging Elizabeth with licentious amours, physical defects, absurd vanity, folly, and avarice (Hume, chap. xlii.). The original letter in Mary's handwriting was seen by Prince Labanoff (*circa* 1840) among the Cecil papers in Hatfield House, where, we believe, it still remains. It is such an epistle as no woman—royalty apart—would ever forget or forgive, but there is a probability that Burghley or Walsingham may have intercepted the letter, and not ventured to deliver it to their royal mistress.

To the end of her life Elizabeth affected all the airs of a coy beauty and coquette. Even her statesmen addressed her in a strain of fulsome adulation and semi-gallantry. She was the Gloriana of Spenser, the "fair vestal throned in the west" of Shakespeare, and the idol of all the lesser poets, as well as courtiers and politicians. When Raleigh was confined in the Tower, he wrote to Cecil—trusting, no doubt, that his letter would be shown to Elizabeth—that he was in the utmost depth of misery because he could no longer see the queen. "I, that was wont to behold her riding like Alexander, hunting like Diana, walking like Venus, the gentle wind blowing her fair hair about her pure cheeks like a nymph [Elizabeth was then in her fifty-ninth year]; sometime singing like an angel, sometime playing like Orpheus," &c. Elizabeth continued her gorgeous finery and rigorous state ceremonial, and was waited upon by applauding crowds whenever she went abroad. We have a graphic picture of her in her sixty-fifth year by a German, Paul Hentzner, who saw the queen on a Sunday as she proceeded to chapel. She appeared stately and majestic; her face oblong, fair but wrinkled; her eyes small, yet black and pleasant; her nose a little hooked, her lips narrow, her teeth black, her hands slender and her fingers long (there was a special beauty in her delicate white hands, and in her audiences she took care not to hide them). She had pearls with rich drops in her ears, wore false red hair, had a small crown on her head, her bosom uncovered, her dress white silk, bordered with pearls of the size of beans, a collar of gold and jewels; and thus arrayed, Elizabeth passed along smiling graciously on the spectators, who fell down on their knees as she approached; while a marchioness bore up her train, a bevy

of ladies followed her dressed in white, and she was guarded on each side by fifty gentlemen pensioners, carrying gilt battle-axes.

A few years afterwards we see the eclipse of all this splendour and servility. Towards the end of March 1603, Elizabeth was seized with her mortal illness. She became restless and melancholy, refused medicine, and sat for days and nights on cushions, silent, her finger pressed on her mouth. When asked by Cecil who should succeed her on the throne, she characteristically answered, "My seat has been the seat of kings; I will have no rascal to succeed me." She afterwards, when speechless, joined her hands together above her head, "in manner of a crown," to signify, in answer to another interrogatory from Cecil, that she wished the King of Scots to be her successor. She expired on the 24th of March 1603. And thus calmly passed away the last of the Tudors, the lion-hearted Elizabeth. She was in the seventieth year of her age and forty-fifth of her reign—a period of brilliant prosperity and advancement, during which England had put forth her brightest genius, valour, and enterprise, and attained to the highest distinction and glory among the states of Europe. The "golden days of good queen Bess" were long remembered in contrast to those of her pusillanimous successor, and this traditional splendour, in spite of historical research and juster views of government, has scarcely yet "faded into the common light of day."

Horace Walpole has assigned to Elizabeth a place in his *Catalogue of Royal and Noble Authors*, and a list of thirteen productions, exclusive of letters and speeches, is attached to the queen's name. They consist chiefly of translations from the Greek, Latin, and French, with a sonnet printed during her own lifetime, and some prayers and meditations. The learning of Elizabeth is undoubted: it was considerable even in that age of learned ladies; but her style is stiff, involved, quaint, and full of conceits—the whole evincing rather a predilection for literary and scholastic studies than literary taste or power. (R. CA.)

ELIZABETH, St (1207-1231), of Hungary, daughter of Andrew II, king of Hungary, was born in Presburg in 1207. At four years of age she was betrothed to Louis IV., landgrave of Thuringia, and conducted to the Thuringian court to be educated under the direction of his parents. From her earliest years she is said to have evinced an aversion to worldly pleasures, and, making the early Christians her chief model, to have devoted her whole time to religion and to works of charity. She was married at the age of fourteen, and acquired such influence over her husband that he adopted her doctrines and zealously assisted her in all her charitable endeavours. On the death of Louis in 1227, Elizabeth was deprived of the regency by his brother Henry Raspe, on the pretext that she was wasting the estates by her alms; and with her three infant children she was driven from her home without being allowed to carry with her even the barest necessities of life. She lived for some time in great hardship, but ultimately her uncle, the bishop of Bamberg, offered her an asylum in a house adjoining his palace. Through the intercession of some of the principal barons, the regency was again offered her, and her son Hermann was declared heir to the throne; but renouncing all power, and making use of her wealth only for charitable purposes, she preferred to live in seclusion at Marburg under the direction of her confessor Conrad. There she spent the remainder of her days in penances of unusual severity, and in ministrations to the sick, especially those afflicted with the most loathsome diseases. She died at Marburg, 19th November 1231, and four years afterwards was canonized by Gregory IX. on account of the frequent miracles reported to have been performed at her tomb.

A life of Elizabeth was written by Theodore of Thuringia; and *L'Histoire de Sainte Elizabeth de Hongrie*, by Montalembert, was published at Paris in 1836. Her life has also supplied the materials for a dramatic poem by Charles Kingsley, entitled the *Saint's Tragedy*.

ELIZABETH PETROVNA (1709-1762), empress of Russia, daughter of Peter the Great and of Catherine I., was born on the 5th September 1709. In consequence of a law of her father, by which the sovereign had the power to choose his successor, she had no legal claim to the throne. The empress Anna Ivanova died in 1740. She had appointed Ivan, son of her niece Anne duchess of Brunswick, a child only a few months old, to the throne, with Biron, her favourite, regent. Elizabeth was quite contented with this arrangement. She declared that love was the supreme good, and that she had no desire for the cares and honours of a crown. But the prestige of her father's name, and the favour in which she stood with the Russian people, rendered her an object of jealousy to the regent and to the mother of the presumptive heir; and on her refusing a proposal of marriage with the duke of Brunswick, brother-in-law of Anne, it was hinted to her that she should take the veil. She might not even then have listened to the suggestions of those who counselled a conspiracy, had she not been persuaded by Lestocq, her physician and favourite, that the suspicions of the Government were so much aroused that to go back or to delay was no longer compatible with safety. Yielding to those representations, she resolved to make the venture, and on the 6th December 1741 entered the barracks of the Preobrajensky guards and endeavoured to induce them to swear allegiance to her. Notwithstanding her powerful appeal and the promise of high rewards, all hesitated with the exception of a single company—old soldiers of Peter the Great; but placing herself at the head of this small band, she entered the imperial palace and made prisoners of the regent and of Anne and her son. She possessed already the affections of the people, and at once her authority was firmly established. Her administration was successful both at home and abroad. Although she was ruled by worthless favourites, who followed each other in rapid succession, her reign was very popular with the people, who surnamed her the Clement. She was indolent and sensual, but she possessed considerable abilities, and an energetic will when it was roused to exertion. She had some taste for literature and the fine arts, and founded the university of Moscow, and the Academy for the Fine Arts of St Petersburg. In 1743 she brought the war with Sweden to a close by an advantageous treaty. She successfully assisted Maria Theresa against Frederick the Great, and in this way contributed to the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748. After this, irritated, it is said, by a reported witty remark of Frederick, she took part in the Seven Years' War, and by successive victories reduced that monarch to great straits, from which he was only delivered by her death (Jan. 5, 1762).

ELIZABETH, originally ELIZABETHTOWN, a city of the United States, capital of Union county, New Jersey, is situated eleven miles W.S.W. of New York, on the Elizabeth river, near its junction with Staten Sound. It is a well-built and flourishing place, and possesses twenty-eight churches, a Roman Catholic nunnery, a court-house and county jail, a city hall, two high schools, a business college, a collegiate school, an almshouse, and an orphan asylum. Besides a great establishment for the manufacture of the "Singer" sewing machine, there are breweries, foundries, potteries, and factories for edge-tools, saws, stoves, carriages, oil-cloth, &c. The port, which is open to vessels of 300 tons, is one of the greatest coal-shipping depôts in the United States, forming, as it does, the outlet for the Pennsylvanian fields. The town dates from 1665; it was the

capital of New Jersey from February 1755 to September 1790, and obtained its city charter in 1865. Population in 1850, 5583; in 1870, 20,832.

ELIZABETHGRAD, or YELIZAVETGRAD, a fortified town and military depôt of South Russia, in the government of Kherson, is situated on the left bank of the Ingul, 153 miles N. by W. of Kherson; in 48° 31' N. lat. and 31° 17' E. long. It is built with great regularity, and its streets are spacious and in some cases lined with trees. It has a citadel with six bastions, a hospital, and several churches. Its trade is considerable, and its annual autumnal fair is the one most frequented in the government. It was founded in 1754, and was named after the empress Elizabeth. The citadel was garrisoned with Cossacks, and the outskirts were settled with schismatics, or *raskolniks*, who had returned from Turkey. Including its four suburbs, the population of Elizabethgrad in 1873 was 31,962.

ELIZABETHPOL, YELIZAVETPOL, or GANSHA, the chief town of a government in the province of Tiflis, in Russian Transcaucasia, is situated 1449 feet above the sea-level, on an affluent of the Kur, 90 miles south-east of Tiflis, in 40° 40' 42" N. lat. and 46° 21' 19" E. long. It was at one time a place of considerable importance, but on account of having been frequently stormed and pillaged is now in a somewhat dilapidated condition. The streets are narrow, and most of the houses low-roofed and without windows, but it has several elegant mosques and other public buildings. It is divided into four quarters, two of which are inhabited by Armenians and two by Tatars. The inhabitants are engaged chiefly in horticulture, agriculture, and the rearing of silkworms and cattle. Gandzak, Kanga, or Kendzhe, as the town was formerly called, first appears in history in 1088, when it was under the rule of the Turkish emir Vuzan, and was included in the Armenian province of Artzakh. Its extent at that time is attested by the twenty-two ancient cemeteries which still exist. The present town was founded by Shah Abbas, four miles from the site of the older city, which is now marked by the Green Mosque. It continued in Mahometan possession till 1804, when it was stormed by the Russians under Prince Tsitsianoff, and received its present name in honour of Elizabeth, daughter of Alexander I. In 1826 it was the scene of a great victory over the Persians. The population in 1873 was 15,439.

ELK. See DEER, vol. vii. p. 24.

ELLENBOROUGH, EDWARD LAW, BARON (1750–1818), chief-justice of the Court of King's Bench, was born on the 16th November 1750, at Great Salkeld, in Cumberland, of which place his father, afterwards bishop of Carlisle, was at the time rector. Educated at the Charterhouse school and at St Peter's College, Cambridge, he passed as third wrangler, and was soon afterwards elected to a fellowship at Trinity. In spite of his father's strong wish that he should take orders, he chose the legal profession, and on quitting the university was entered at Lincoln's Inn. After spending five years as a "special pleader under the bar," he was called to the bar in 1780. He chose the Northern Circuit, and in a very short time obtained a lucrative practice and a high reputation. In 1787 he was appointed principal counsel for Warren Hastings in the celebrated impeachment trial before the House of Lords, and the ability with which he conducted the defence was universally recognized. He had commenced his political career as a Whig, but, like many others, he saw in the French Revolution a reason for changing sides, and became a supporter of Pitt. On the formation of the Addington ministry in 1801, he was appointed attorney-general, and in the following year he succeeded Lord Kenyon as chief-justice of the King's Bench. On being raised to the bench he was created a peer, taking his title

from the village of Ellenborough in Cumberland, where his maternal ancestors had long held a small patrimony. In 1806, on the formation of Lord Grenville's ministry "of all the talents," Lord Ellenborough declined the offer of the Great Seal, but accepted a seat in the Cabinet. His "doing so while he retained the chief-justiceship was much criticised at the time, and, though not without precedent, is open to obvious objections on constitutional grounds. As a judge he had grave faults, though his decisions displayed profound legal knowledge, and in mercantile law especially were reckoned of high authority. He was harsh and overbearing to counsel, and in the political trials which were so frequent in his time showed an unmistakable bias against the accused. In the trial of Hone for blasphemy in 1817, Ellenborough directed the jury to find a verdict of guilty, and their acquittal of the prisoner is generally said to have hastened his death. He resigned his judicial office in November 1818, and died on the 13th December following.

ELLENBOROUGH, EDWARD LAW, EARL OF (1790–1844), the eldest son of Baron Ellenborough, noticed above, was born in 1790, was educated at Eton and St John's College, Cambridge, and represented the subsequently disfranchised borough of St Michael's in the House of Commons, until the death of his father in 1818 gave him a seat in the House of Lords. He was twice married; his only child died young; his second wife was divorced by Act of Parliament in 1830. By the friendship of the duke of Wellington, which he retained all through his Indian career, Lord Ellenborough was appointed lord privy seal, and then president of the Board of Control, in the year 1828. In 1834 and in 1841 for a few weeks he again held the latter office, the duties of which at once made him familiar with the affairs of India, and gave him control over the court of directors. Sir Robert Peel appointed him governor-general with the Queen's approval. He discharged the duties of the high position from the 28th February 1842 to the 15th June 1844, when the directors exercised their power of recalling him. He finally left Calcutta on the 1st August 1844. His Indian administration of two and a half years, or half the usual term of service, was from first to last a subject of hostile criticism. His own letters sent monthly to the Queen, and his correspondence with the duke of Wellington, published in 1874 after his death, enable us to form an intelligent and impartial judgment of his meteoric career. The events in dispute are his policy towards Afghanistan and the army and captives there, his conquest of Sind, and his campaign in Gwalior. He was fortunate in having as his private secretary Captain (afterwards Sir Henry) Durand, the accomplished engineer officer and statesman, who died in 1871 when lieutenant-governor of the Punjab. Although he was absorbed in military and foreign politics, his administration was fertile in peaceful reforms, due to his colleague, Mr Wilberforce Bird, who purged the police, put down state lotteries, and prohibited slavery, with Ellenborough's hearty support.

The impartial study of Lord Ellenborough's correspondence in the light of the records and criticisms of the times must confirm the contemporary verdict against him on the questions of Afghanistan and Sind, and may lead us to approve of his action in Gwalior. All through his brief Indian career, moreover, his severest critics must admire the splendour of his intellect (which put him in the first rank of orators in the House of Lords down almost to the year of his death), the purity of his public patronage, and the energy of his devotion to the service of his country. The same judgment which marked his later criticism of others was wanting when he held the almost irresponsible power of governor-general, to make his rule as useful as it was remarkable. If men like Durand and Wilberforce Bird helped him by the possession of the official and ethical

virtues which he lacked, we must not forget that Sir Charles Napier led his Government and himself still farther to that extreme of rashness and impulse which was his bane. And against his only too apparent contempt or indifference for all things not military we must set the statesmanlike views expressed to the Queen and the duke of Wellington on the critical position of Great Britain in the East, and the necessity for strengthening it by military reforms. He repeated what the greater governor-general Wellesley had urged, but in vain, on the East India Company at the beginning of the century, and Dalhousie again in 1854–56. The penalty came in the mutiny campaigns of 1857, as it had been foreshadowed in the Cabul disasters of 1838–42.

It was to retrieve these disasters that Lord Ellenborough was sent out. If he had a difficult task, he found the tide of fortune just on the turn. In his proclamation of the 15th March 1842, as in his memorandum for the Queen dated the 18th, he stated with characteristic clearness and eloquence the duty of first inflicting some signal and decisive blow on the Afghans, and then leaving them to govern themselves under the sovereign of their own choice. Unhappily, when he left his council for Upper India, and learned the trifling failure of General England, he instructed Pollock and Nott, who were advancing triumphantly with their avenging columns to rescue the captives, to fall back. Not a word was said of the nine ladies, twenty officers, and fourteen children who were being pursued from prison to prison in the hills, in spite of the heroic efforts of one of their number, Major-General Colin Mackenzie, who still survives, to secure their honourable release. Even such an object as "that of avenging our losses and re-establishing our military character in all its original brilliancy" was declared not fit to be justifiable. How this charge was received by the "illustrious" troops of Jellalabad and the advancing conquerors of Ghuznee and Akbar Khan, the *Life of Pollock* and the journals of the day testify. The shout of indignation was too much even for Ellenborough, but he civilly added to it derision when he shirked responsibility by directing Pollock and Nott to retire by the roundabout way of Cabul if they could! The army proved true to the governor-general's earlier proclamation rather than to his later fears; the hostages were rescued, the scene of Sir Alexander Burnes's murder in the heart of Cabul was burned down. Dost Mahomed was quietly dismissed from a prison in Calcutta to the throne in the Bala Hissar, and Ellenborough presided over the painting of the elephants for an unprecedented military spectacle at Ferozepore, on the south bank of the Sutlej. But this was not the only piece of theatrical display which capped with ridicule the horrors and the follies of these four years in Afghanistan. When Sultan Mahmoud, in 1024, sacked the Hindu temple of Somnauth on the north-west coast of India, he carried off, with the treasures, the richly-studded sandal-wood gates of the fane; and set them up in his capital of Ghuznee. The Mahometan puppet of the English, Shah Shooja, had been asked, when ruler of Afghanistan, to restore them to India; and what he had failed to do the Christian ruler of opposing Mahometans and Hindus resolved to effect in the most solemn and public manner. In vain had Major (now Sir Henry) Rawlinson proved that they were only reproductions of the original gates, to which the Ghuznee Moolvies clung merely as a source of offerings from the faithful who visited the old conqueror's tomb. In vain did the Hindu sepoy show the most chilling indifference to the belauded restoration. Ellenborough could not resist the temptation to copy Napoleon's magniloquent proclamation under the Pyramids. The desecrated or fraudulent folding doors—more "glorious

trophy of successful warfare" than the heroic hostages whose names Lady Sale's *Journals*, Mackenzie's martyr-like courage, and Vincent Eyre's book have made imperishable—were conveyed on a triumphal car to the fort of Agra, and there they lie among the old muskets to this day. That Somnauth proclamation was the first step towards its author's recall, but it had the one good result of calling forth Lord Macaulay's most brilliant philippic in the House of Commons on the 9th March 1843.

Hardly had Ellenborough issued his medal with the legend "Pax Asia Restituta" when he was at war with the Ameers of Sind. The tributary Ameers had on the whole been faithful, for Major (afterwards Sir James) Outram controlled them. But he had reported the opposition of a few, and Ellenborough ordered an inquiry. His instructions were admirable, in equity as well as energy, and if Outram had been left to carry them out all would have been well. But the duty was intrusted to Sir Charles Napier, with full political as well as military powers. And to add to the evil, Meer Ali Morad intrigued with both sides so effectually that he betrayed the Ameers on the one hand, while he deluded Sir Charles Napier to their destruction on the other. Ellenborough was led on till events were beyond his control, and his own just and merciful instructions were forgotten. Sir Charles Napier made more than one confession like this: "We have no right to seize Sind, yet we shall do so, and a very advantageous, useful, and humane piece of rascality it will be." The battles of Meanee and Dubba, or Hyderabad, followed; and the Indus became a British river from Kurrachee to Mooltan, soon to be "red" to its source in the glaciers that fringe Kashgaria. Yet, writing to the Queen on the 27th June 1843, he formally pronounced his policy "at once just and expedient," after remarking that "it would not be ungrateful to him to be relieved from a government which he has conducted amidst uninterrupted misrepresentations and calumny."

Sind had hardly been disposed of when troubles arose on both sides of the governor-general, who was then at Agra. On the north the disordered kingdom of the Sikhs was threatening the frontier. In Gwalior to the south, the feudatory Mahratta state, there were a strong and large mutinous army, a Ranees only twelve years of age, an adopted chief of eight, and factions in the council of ministers. Instead of citing the authority of the forgotten treaty of Burhanpore, the governor-general might have pled the public security—he did talk of "humanity"—as a reason for demanding that the state should be intrusted to one regent. Our nominee proved incompetent, his rival showed himself a traitor; Tara Ranees was herself little more than a child; and the Praetorians controlled the whole. Ellenborough reviewed the danger in the unanswerable minute of 1st November 1845, and told Sir Hugh Gough to advance. Further treachery and military licence rendered the battles of Maharajpore and Punniar, fought on the same day, inevitable though they were, a surprise to the combatants. The governor-general, on his charger, exposed himself with characteristic rashness in the thick of the fight, and when it was over he regaled the wounded with oranges and gifts. The treaty that followed was as merciful as it was wise. The pacification of Gwalior also had its effect beyond the Sutlej, where anarchy was restrained for yet another year, and the work of civilization was left to Ellenborough's two successors. The idol of the army, he did not leave India without a military banquet, which the duke of Wellington, in an official letter to the earl of Ripon, full of curious reminiscences, refused to condemn. Sir Robert Peel's Government, which had sent him out, made him a viscount and earl, and put him at the head of the Admiralty. When again in his old office, as almost the last president of the