

Romans—the biremes, quadriremes, quinquiremes, and hexiremes—owed their pace to the exertions of men who plied the oar rather than to the sails with which they were fitted, and which were only used when the wind was favourable. Professor Gardner has shown that boat racing was not uncommon among the Greeks;<sup>1</sup> and that it was practised among the Romans Virgil testifies in the well-known passage in the fifth book of the *Æneid*. And the Venetian galleys which were subsequently used on the shores of the Mediterranean in mediæval times were only a modified form of the older kind of craft. These were for the most part manned by slaves and criminals, and were in constant employment in most European countries.

Rowing was understood by the ancient Britons, as they trusted themselves to the mercy of the waves in coracles composed of wicker-work covered with leather, similar no doubt in many respects to those now used in Wales; but these frail vessels were propelled by paddles and not by oars. The Saxons seem to have been expert in the management of the oar, as well as the Danes and Norwegians, as it is recorded that the highest nobles in the land devoted themselves to it. Alfred the Great introduced long galleys from the Mediterranean, which were propelled by forty or sixty oars on each side, and for some time these vessels were used for war purposes. It is stated by William of Malmesbury that Edgar the Peaceable was rowed in state on the river Dee from his palace, in the city of West Chester, to the church of St John and back again, by eight tributary kings, himself acting as coxswain.

Boat quintains, or tilting at one another on the water, was first brought into England by the Normans as an amusement for the spring and summer season, and probably much of the success of the champions depended upon the skill of those who managed the boats. Before the beginning of the 12th century the rivers were commonly used for conveying passengers and merchandise on board barges and boats, and until the introduction of coaches they were almost the only means of transit for royalty, and for the nobility and gentry who had mansions and watergates on the banks of the Thames. It is, however, impossible to trace the first employment of bargemen, wherry-men, or watermen, but they seem to have been well established by that time, and were engaged in ferrying and other waterside duties. During the long frosts of the early part of the 13th century, frequent mention is made in the chronicles of the distress among the watermen, from which we may assume that their numbers were large. They were employed in conveying the nobles and their retinues to Runnymede, where they met King John and where Magna Charta was signed. Towards the close of this century the watermen of Greenwich were frequently fined for overcharging at the established ferries, and about the same time some of the city companies established barges for water processions. We learn from Fabian and Middleton that in 1454 "Sir John Norman, then lord mayor of London, built a noble barge at his own expense, and was rowed by watermen with silver oars, attended by such of the city companies as possessed barges, in a splendid manner," and further "that he made the barge he sat in burn on the water"; but there is no explanation of this statement. Sir John Norman was highly commended for this action by the members of the craft, as no doubt it helped to popularize the fashion then coming into vogue of being rowed on the Thames by the watermen who plied for hire in their wherries. The lord mayor's procession by water to Westminster, which figures on the front page of the *Illustrated London News*, was made annually until the year 1856, when it was discontinued. The lord

<sup>1</sup> *Journal of Hellenic Studies*, 1881.

mayor's state barge was a magnificent species of shallow rowed by watermen; and the city companies had for the most part barges of their own, all rowed double-banked with oars in the fore half, the after part consisting of a cabin something like that of a gondola. The watermen became by degrees so large and numerous a body that in the sixth year of the reign of Henry VIII. (1514) an Act was passed making regulations for them. This Act has from time to time been amended by various statutes, and the last was passed in 1858. Much time seems to have been spent in pleasuring on the water in the 15th and 16th centuries, and no doubt competitions among the watermen were not uncommon, though there is no record of them. The principal occupation of watermen, who were obliged to serve an apprenticeship, used to be ferrying and rowing fares on the Thames, but in process of time the introduction of bridges and steamers drove them from this employment, and the majority of them now work as bargemen, lightermen, and steamboat hands, having still to serve an apprenticeship. For many years matches for money stakes were frequent (1831 to 1880), but the old race of watermen, of which Phelps, the senior Kelley, Campbell, Coombes, Newell, the MacKinneys, Messenger, Pocock, and Henry Kelley were prominent members, has almost died out, and some of the best English scullers during the last fifteen years have been landmen.

Apart from the reference already made to the ancients, we do not find any records of boat-racing before the establishment in England of the coat and badge, instituted by the celebrated comedian Thomas Doggett in 1715, in honour of the house of Hanover, to commemorate the anniversary of "King George I.'s happy accession to the throne of Great Britain." The prize was a red coat with a large silver badge on the arm, bearing the white horse of Hanover, and the race had to be rowed on the 1st of August annually on the Thames, by six young watermen who were not to have exceeded the time of their apprenticeship by twelve months. Although the first contest took place in the year above mentioned, the names of the winners have only been preserved since 1791. The race continues at the present day, but under slight modifications. The first regatta appears to have occurred about sixty years later, for we learn from the *Annual Register* of the year 1775 that an entertainment called by that name (*Ital. regata*), introduced from Venice into England, was exhibited on the Thames off Ranelagh Gardens, and a lengthy account of it is given at the end of the work. The lord mayor's and several of the city companies' pleasure barges were conspicuous, and, although we learn very little indeed of the competing wager boats, it seems clear they were rowed by watermen. We find from Strutt's *Sports and Pastimes* (first published in 1801) that the proprietor of Vauxhall Gardens had for some years given a new wherry to be rowed for by watermen, two in a boat, which is perhaps the first pair-oared race on record. Similar prizes were also given by Astley, the celebrated horseman and circus proprietor of the Westminster Bridge Road, about the same period; but thus far rowing was apparently viewed as a laborious exercise, and the rowers were paid. At the commencement of the present century, however, rowing associations were formed, and the "Star," "Arrow," "Shark," and "Siren" Clubs had races amongst themselves, generally over long courses and in heavy six-oared boats. The Star and Arrow Clubs ceased to exist in the early years of this century, and were merged in the newly formed Leander Club. The date of its establishment cannot be fixed exactly, but it was probably about 1818 or 1819. It ranked high, because the majority of its members had frequently distinguished themselves in matches with the oar and sculls. They were the first to patronize and lend

a helping hand to young watermen who showed promise of aquatic fame, and they likewise instituted a coat and badge for scullers.

The first record of public-school racing which can now be seen is the Water Ledger of Westminster School, which commences in the year 1813 with a list of the crew of the six-oared Fly. This craft continued for some time to be the only boat of the school, and in 1816 beat the Temple six-oar in a race from Johnson's Dock to Westminster Bridge by half a length. Eton possessed a fleet of boats in 1811, if not at an earlier date, consisting of a ten-oar and three boats with eight oars. In those days some of the crews had a waterman to pull stroke and drill the crew, but this practice was abolished in 1828, as the waterman frequently rowed a bad stroke and the crew were obliged to subscribe for his day's pay, beer, and clothes; thenceforward the captain of each crew rowed the stroke-oar. The earliest record of a race at Eton is when Mr Carter's four rowed against the watermen and beat them in 1817; but the professionals had a boat too small for them. In 1818 Eton challenged Westminster School to row from Westminster to Kew Bridge against the tide, but the match was stopped by the authorities; and it was not until 1829 that the first contest between the two schools was brought to an issue.

Rowing appears to have commenced at the universities soon after the beginning of the century, but earlier at Oxford than at Cambridge. There were college boats on the river for some time before there were any races. Those first recorded at Oxford were in 1815, said to be college eights, but the boats used are more likely to have been fours, when Brasenose was "head of the river" and Jesus their chief opponent. These two clubs were constantly rowing races, but they were not very particular about the oarsmen in the boats, as the Brasenose crew in 1824 was composed of two members of the college, a Worcester man, and a waterman. The first authentic records commence in 1836, and the Oxford University Boat Club was established in 1839. At Cambridge eight-oared rowing was not in fashion so soon as at Oxford, the first eight (belonging to St John's College) not having been launched until 1826; and between that year and 1829 the Cambridge University Boat Club was formed. Eight-oared races were established on the Cam in 1827, when First Trinity was "head of the river," and in 1828 the first Oxford and Cambridge University boat race was proposed and fixed for June 10, 1829, on the Thames, from Hambleton Lock to Henley Bridge. The race was rowed at intermittent periods up to 1856, since which year it has been annual. In 1830 the amateur championship of the Thames was instituted by Mr Henry C. Wingfield, who presented a pair of silver sculls to be rowed for annually by the amateur scullers of the Thames on the 10th August from Westminster to Putney at half flood, but the course and date of the race have been changed since then. The first scullers' race for the professional championship of the Thames was rowed from Westminster to Putney on the 8th September 1831, Charles Campbell of Westminster defeating John Williams of Waterloo Bridge. During the next eight years rowing increased in favour among amateurs, and, as it had taken its proper place among the national pastimes, and the want of a central spot for a regatta was much felt, Henley-on-Thames was chosen, and it was decided that a regatta should be held there in 1839, and the Grand Challenge cup for eight oars was established. This has been an annual fixture ever since, prizes being given for four oars, pair oars, and scullers, as well as for eight oars. In 1843 the Royal Thames Regatta was started at Putney, and it gave a gold challenge cup for eight oars and a silver challenge cup for four oars, to be rowed by amateurs. In 1844 Oxford beat Cambridge at this regatta, and in the same year the committee added a champion prize for watermen. About this time the Old Thames Club was established, and they carried off the gold challenge cup by winning it for three years in succession, viz., 1846 to 1848. In 1852 the Argonauts Club first appeared at Henley and won the Visitors' cup, and in 1853 the Royal Chester Rowing Club were successful in the Stewards' cup for four oars, and won the Grand Challenge cup for eight oars the next year. In 1856 the London Rowing Club was established, but those members of it who rowed at Henley were obliged to enter under the name of the Argonauts Club, as, not having been in existence a year, its crew could not compete under its name. The next year, however, they carried off the Grand Challenge cup from Oxford University, and were successful in the Stewards' cup as well. Many more clubs, such as the Kingston, Radley, West London, Twickenham, Thames, Moulsey, and other metropolitan and provincial clubs were subsequently established, and have met with varied success.

*Boats.*—The boats of the present day differ very much from those formerly used, and the heavy lumbering craft which alone were known to our forefathers have been superseded by a lighter description,—skiffs, gigs, and racing outriggers. The old Thames wherry with its long projecting bow is now seldom seen, and a roomy skiff, often used with a sail when the wind is favourable, has taken its place. The gig is an open boat with several strakes, having the rowlocks, or pieces of wood between which the oar works, fixed upon the

gunwale, which is level all round. The skiff is wider and longer than the gig and of greater depth, and, rising higher fore and aft, with rowlocks placed on a curved and elevated gunwale, has greater carrying power and rows lighter than the gig. The wherry rises high at the bows with a long nose pointed upwards and a very low stern, being consequently unsuited for rough water. The modern racing boat differs much from the foregoing, as its width has been decreased so as to offer as little resistance to the water as possible, while it is propelled by oars working between rowlocks fixed on projecting iron rods and cross pieces which are made fast to the timbers. These rods and cross pieces are rigged out from the side of the boats, and hence the term outriggers. These boats are constructed for single scullers, for pairs, for fours, for eights, and occasionally for twelve oars. The outrigger was first brought to perfection by the late Henry Clasper of Newcastle-on-Tyne, who is generally believed to have been its inventor; but the first outriggers, which were only rude pieces of wood fastened on the boat's sides, were used in 1828, and were fixed to a boat at Onseburn-on-Tyne. The first iron outriggers were affixed to a boat in 1830 at Dents' Hole on Tyne. In 1844 Clasper, who had been improving upon these inventions, made his first boat of the kind and brought her to London; but her outriggers were only 8 inches in length, and she was built of several strakes, with a small keel. In process of time keels were dispensed with, the outriggers were lengthened, and the skin of the boat is now composed of a single strake of cedar planed very thin and bent by means of hot water to take the form of the timbers of the boat. It is fastened by copper nails to curved timbers of ash, one extremity of which is fixed into the keelson while the other is made fast to long pieces of deal that run from end to end of the boat and are called inwales. The timbers in the middle are thicker than the rest, so as to support the iron outriggers which are fastened to them, and the thwart, which is wider than it used to be in order to carry the sliding seat, which works backward and forward with the oarsman, is screwed to the inwales. This seat moves to and fro on rollers made of steel, wood, or brass, and travels over a distance varying from 12 to 6 inches according to the judgment of the instructor. The sliding seat seems to have been the invention of an American oarsman, who fixed one to a sculling boat in 1857, but it was not until 1870 that he had mastered the principles sufficiently to discover how much was gained mechanically and physically. The value of the improvement is now universally recognized, but it was some little time before it was understood and came into general use. The members of the London Rowing Club, who defeated the representatives of the New York Atalanta Club at Putney in June 1872, used sliding seats, and the club also had them fitted to their eight, which easily carried off the Grand Challenge cup at Henley a few days afterwards. In 1873 the sliding seat was adopted by the crews rowing in the University boat race. The Americans have also the credit of two other inventions, viz., the steering apparatus, which enables a crew to dispense with a coxswain, and the swivel rowlock; but, though the former is now fitted to the majority of non-coxswain pairs and fours, the use of the latter is confined for the most part to sculling boats. In outrigger eights, fours, and pairs the outriggers are placed, one for each thwart, at each side alternately, but in gigs, skiffs, wherries, and funnies they are placed opposite one another, so as to be used on either side at discretion. The oars generally used are about 12 feet long, varying with the width of the boat, and sculls are as much as 10 feet long.

*Directions for Rowing.*—In modern rowing the oarsman, grasping the handle of the oar with both hands, sits forward on the edge of his seat, stretches out his arms until they are fully extended—the blade of the oar being, just previous to entering the water, at right angles to its surface. It is then dipped into the water just so far as to cover it, and the handle pulled towards the oarsman's body, the weight of the latter being thrown backward at the same time, so as to make one movement, and the legs pressed hard against the stretcher, and the handle finally pulled home to the chest with the arms, the elbows being allowed to pass the sides until the handle of the oar just touches the lower extremity of the breast. The blade of the oar thus appears to be forced through the water out in reality this is very slightly the case, as the water, which is the fulcrum, remains almost immovable. In sculling the operation is the same except that the sculler has a scull in each hand and drives the boat himself, whereas a man rowing an oar must have one or more comrades to assist him. Rowing is made up of two parts, the stroke and the feather. Feathering is turning the oar at the end of the stroke by lowering the hands and dropping the wrists, thus bringing the flat blade of the oar parallel with the surface of the water, and is generally considered to include the driving forward of the handle of the oar and the consequent carrying back of the blade previous to the beginning of a new stroke.

When prepared to embark, the pupil should lay his oar on the water if an outside or upon the land if a shoreside oar, and step into the boat with his face to the stern, when he should at once seat himself and ship his oar, and then try the length of his stretcher to see that it suits his length of leg. This arranged, he should

proceed to settle himself firmly upon his thwart, sitting quite square and upright but not too near the edge of it, because if so the chances are that the lower part of the back will not be straight, and if his seat is not firm he cannot aid in balancing the boat. He should sit about three quarters of the thwart aft in an ordinary racing boat, about an inch and a half from the edge, and he must be exactly opposite the handle of his oar. His feet must be planted firmly against the stretcher and immediately opposite his body and oar,—the heel as well as the ball of the foot pressing against the stretcher, and the two heels close together with the toes wide apart, so as to keep the knees open and separate. Of course if the pupil sits fair and square, and immediately opposite the handle of his oar, he will be at one side and not in the centre of the boat. The stretcher, it may be added, should be as short as possible conveniently for clearing the knees and for exercising complete control over the oar. The body should be upright, not bent forward and sunk down upon the trunk; the shoulders should be thrown back, the chest out, and the elbows down close alongside the flanks. The oar should be held firmly, but withal lightly, in both hands, not clutched and cramped as in a vice—the outside hand close to the end of the handle, with the fingers above and the thumb underneath it, and the inside hand, or that nearest the body of the oar, from an inch and a half to 2 inches away from its fellow, but grasping the oar more convexly than the latter, the thumb being kept underneath. The forearms should be below the level of the handle, and the wrists dropped and relaxed, the oar lying flat and feathered upon the surface of the water. The diverse positions of the two hands and wrists enable the oar to be wielded with greater facility than if they were alike, and allow both arms to be stretched out perfectly straight, a crooked arm being perhaps the least pardonable fault in rowing. In taking the stroke the body should be inclined forwards with the backbone straight, the stomach well out and down between the legs, the chest forward and elevated as much as possible. The knees must be pressed slightly outwards; and the shoulders should come moderately forward, but perfectly level, and at an equal height. The arms should play freely in the shoulder joints, and should be perfectly straight from the shoulders to the wrists; the action of the hips also should be free. The inside wrist, however, must be somewhat raised, and the outside one bent slightly round, in order that the knuckles may be parallel to the oar, and the oar itself be firmly grasped with both hands, not with the tips of the fingers but with the whole of the fingers well round it, and each one feeling the handle distinctly; the knuckles of the thumbs should be about an inch and a half or 2 inches apart. In reaching forward the hands should be shot out straight from the body without the least pause, and as soon as the oar has passed the knees the wrists should be raised to bring the blade at right angles to the water preparatory to dipping it, and when the arms are at their extreme limit, which will be just over the stretcher, the oar should be struck down firmly and decisively into the water until covered up to the shoulder, and the weight of the body be thrown entirely upon it, by which the beginning of the stroke is caught, and the stroke itself pulled through; in a word, the pupil should, as it were, knit himself up, and then spring back like a bow when the string is loosed, bringing the muscles of his back and legs into play. The stroke should be finished with the arms and shoulders, the elbows being kept close to the sides, and the shoulders down and back, the head still up, and the chest out, and the oar itself be brought straight home to the chest, the knuckles touching the body about an inch or less below the bottom of the breast bone where the ribs branch off; when there the hands should be dropped down and then turned over, and shot out again close along the legs, the body following at once. Care should likewise be taken not to lessen the force applied to the oar as the stroke draws to a conclusion, but to put the whole strength of the arms and shoulders into the finish of the stroke, where it will naturally diminish quite fast enough, as the oar forms an obtuse angle with that portion of the boat before the rowlock. To effect a quick recovery the back must be kept straight, the knees must not be dropped too low, and the muscles of the body, especially of the stomach, must be used to enable the pupil to get forward for the next stroke. At the same time, no matter how minute and precise written instructions may be, they can never impart the knowledge that can be picked up by watching the actions of an accomplished oarsman for the space of five minutes; hence the imperative necessity of a practical exponent of the principles of the art in contradistinction to a merely theoretical "coach."

The foregoing are the essentials of rowing, and have been given at some length and in detail as the motions are necessarily very complicated. The operations are much the same whether a person be rowing on a fixed or sliding seat, but a novice should be taught to row on a fixed seat, as he will afterwards be easily able to acquire the art of sliding, which may soon be done from following the accompanying directions. The oarsman, in getting forward, should extend his arms to their full length, and with the assistance of the straps on the stretcher, simultaneously draw himself as close up to the latter as he can, his knees being slightly and symmetrically opened, and the body reached forward as much as possible, the

back being kept quite straight. On catching hold of the water, the knees must be gradually straightened and the body thrown back, the two actions going on simultaneously, so that the legs are straight out by the time the stroke is finished and not before, the body and shoulders at the end of the stroke being thrown well back. The body is then recovered to the upright position from the hips, the hands thrown forward, and by the time they are just past the knees the body is being drawn forward, and the knees bent. The motion then begins the same as before. (E. D. B.)

**Boat-Racing in America.**—This pastime can be traced back to the beginning of the present century. The earliest important affair was in 1811,—a sectional match, New York City against all Long Island, four-oared barges, with coxswains, from Harsimus, New Jersey, to the flag-staff on the Battery. New York won easily, and such was the popular enthusiasm over the race that its boat, the "Knickerbocker," was suspended in a public museum, where it remained for fifty-four years, a constant recipient of public admiration until destroyed by fire in July 1865. Since this historic contest no year has been without boat races. At that time the words amateur and professional were unknown on the water; the Castle Garden Amateur Boat Club Association—America's first avowedly amateur club—was founded in 1834.

There had been informal clubs and desultory racing at Yale College as early as 1833, but the first regular organization was in March 1843. Harvard followed in September 1844, and Yale and Harvard first met on the water at Lake Winnepiseogee, New Hampshire, August 3, 1852; since 1878 they have met annually at New London, Conn. In 1865 Harvard, Yale, Trinity, and Brown formed the Union College Regatta Association, which lasted three years. The Racing Association of American Colleges, which at one time included sixteen colleges, died in 1876. In 1883 Bowdoin, Columbia, Cornell, Princeton, Rutgers, University of Pennsylvania, and Wesleyan formed the Intercollegiate Racing Association, which still flourishes and gives annual regattas.

The control of amateur racing in America belongs to the National Association of Amateur Oarsmen, founded in 1873, whose membership includes all the better class of amateur boat clubs. Its management is vested in an Executive Committee of nine members, three of whom are elected at each annual meeting of the association. The rulings of this committee are subject to review, approval, or reversal, at each annual meeting of the full association. This association gives an annual open amateur regatta, similar to the Royal Henley Regatta in being the chief aquatic event of the year, but unlike it in not being rowed always on the same course, but moving about from year to year—having, since 1873, been rowed at Philadelphia, Newark, Troy, and Watkins (N.Y.), Detroit, Washington, and Boston. There are in the United States eleven regularly organized amateur rowing associations, formed by the union of amateur rowing clubs and giving each year one or more regattas. These associations are the National Association of Amateur Oarsmen, the North-Western Amateur Rowing Association, the Mississippi Valley Amateur Rowing Association, the Passaic River Amateur Rowing Association, the Intercollegiate Rowing Association, the Harlem Regatta Association, the Louisiana State Amateur Rowing Association, the Virginia State Rowing Association, the Schuylkill Navy, the Upper Hudson Navy, and the Kill von Kull Regatta Association. At English regattas it is usual to start three boats in a heat, sometimes four, five being the utmost limit, whereas at Saratoga, in the great regattas of 1874 and 1875, there were started abreast, in four separate races, eleven singles (twice), thirteen coxswainless fours, and thirteen coxswainless sixes.

The primary division of American racing craft is into (a) lap-streaks or clinkers, built of wood in narrow streaks with overlapping edges at each joint, and (b) smooth bottoms, made of wood or paper, and having a fair surface, without projecting joint or seam. Lap-streak boats are, however, now rarely used save in barge races. Then follows the subdivision into barges, which are open irrigged boats, gigs, which are open outriggered boats, and shells, which are covered outriggered boats. These three classes of boats are further subdivided, in accordance with the means of propulsion, into single, double, and quadruple sculling boats, and pair-, four-, six-, and eight-oared boats. In America the double-scutt is more frequent than the pair, and the six-oar much more common than the eight-oar.

The sliding seat is now being gradually superseded by various styles of rolling seats, in which the actual seat travels backward and forward on frictionless wheels or balls. The best of these devices run more easily, are cleaner, and less liable to accident than the ordinary sliding seat. English oarsmen use the sliding seat as a means of making their old accustomed stroke longer and more powerful. American oarsmen hold that what is needed by an oarsman is not the addition of the long slide to the old-fashioned long swing, but the almost total substitution of slide for swing, the transfer of the labour from back to legs—in fact, a totally new style.

**ROWLANDSON, THOMAS (1756-1827)**, caricaturist, was born in Old Jewry, London, in July 1756, the son of a tradesman or city merchant. It is recorded that "he could

make sketches before he learned to write," and that he covered his lesson-books with caricatures of his masters and fellow-pupils. On leaving school he became a student in the Royal Academy. At the age of sixteen he resided and studied for a time in Paris, and he afterwards made frequent tours on the Continent, enriching his portfolios with numerous jottings of life and character. In 1775 he exhibited at the Royal Academy a drawing of Delilah visiting Samson in Prison, and in the following years he was represented by various portraits and landscapes. Possessed of much facility of execution and a ready command of the figure, he was spoken of as a promising student; and had he continued his early application he would have made his mark as a painter. But he was the victim of a disastrous piece of good fortune. By the death of his aunt, a French lady, he fell heir to a sum of £7000, and presently he plunged into the dissipations of the town. Gambling became a passion with him, and he has been known to sit at the gaming-table for thirty-six hours at a stretch. In time poverty overtook him; and the friendship and example of Gillray and Bunbury seem to have suggested that his early aptitude for caricature might furnish a ready means of filling an empty purse. His drawing of Vauxhall, shown in the Royal Academy exhibition of 1784, had been engraved by Pollard, and the print was a success. Rowlandson was largely employed by Rudolph Ackermann, the art publisher, who in 1809-1811 issued in his *Poetical Magazine* "The Schoolmaster's Tour"—a series of plates with illustrative verses by Dr William Coombe. They were the most popular of the artist's works. Again engraved by Rowlandson himself in 1812, and issued under the title of the Tour of Dr Syntax in Search of the Picturesque, they had attained a fifth edition by 1813, and were followed in 1820 by Dr Syntax in Search of Consolation, and in 1821 by the Third Tour of Dr Syntax, in Search of a Wife. The same collaboration of designer, author, and publisher appeared in the English Dance of Death, issued in 1814-16, one of the most admirable of Rowlandson's series, and in the Dance of Life, 1822. Rowlandson also illustrated Smollett, Goldsmith, and Sterne, and his designs will be found in *The Spirit of the Public Journals* (1825), *The English Spy* (1825), and *The Humourist* (1831). He died in London, after a prolonged illness, on the 22d April 1827.

Rowlandson's designs were usually executed in outline with the reed-pen, and delicately washed with colour. They were then etched by the artist on the copper, and afterwards aqua-tinted—usually by a professional engraver, the impressions being finally coloured by hand. As a designer he was characterized by the utmost facility and ease of draughtsmanship. He poured forth his designs in ill-considered profusion, and the quality of his art suffered from this haste and over-production. He was a true if not a very refined humorist, dealing less frequently than his fierce contemporary Gillray with politics, but commonly touching, in a rather gentle spirit, the various aspects and incidents of social life. His most artistic work is to be found among the more careful drawings of his earlier period; but even among the gross forms and exaggerated caricature of his later time we find, here and there, in the graceful lines of a figure or the sweet features of some maiden's face, sufficient hints that this master of the humorous might have attained to the beautiful had he so willed.

See J. Grego, *Rowlandson the Caricaturist, a Selection from his Works*, &c. (2 vols., 1880).

**ROWLEY, WILLIAM**, actor and dramatist, collaborated with several of the celebrated dramatists of the Elizabethan period—Dekker, Middleton, Heywood, Fletcher, Webster, Massinger, and Ford. Nothing is known of his life except that he was an actor in various companies, and married in 1637. There was another Rowley, an actor and playwright in the same generation, Samuel, and probably a third, Ralph. Four plays by W. Rowley are extant,—*A Woman never Vext* (printed 1632), *A Match at Midnight* (1633), *All's Lost by Lust* (1633), and *A Shoemaker a*

*Gentleman* (1638). From these an opinion may be formed of his individual style. Effectiveness of situation and ingenuity of plot are more marked in them than any special literary faculty, from which we may conjecture why he was in such request as an associate in play-making. There are significant quotations from two of his plays in Lamb's *Specimens*. It is recorded by Langbaine that he "was beloved of those great men Shakespeare, Fletcher, and Jonson"; and the tradition of his personal amiability is supported by the fact of his partnerships with so many different writers.

**ROWLEY REGIS**, an urban sanitary district of Staffordshire, is situated on the Birmingham Canal, and on the Stourbridge branch of the Great Western Railway, 6 miles west of Birmingham. The original village surrounds the parish church, dating from the 13th century, but rebuilt in 1840 with the exception of the tower, which was also rebuilt in 1858. The village is situated in a rich coal and ironstone district, and round it numerous hamlets have grown up within recent years. Lately the parish has been erected into an urban sanitary district, governed by a local board of fifteen members. Besides collieries, iron works, and extensive quarries for "Rowley rag" (a basaltic intrusion), there are potteries, rivet, chain, and anchor works, breweries, and agricultural implement works, the district being one of the most important manufacturing centres of Staffordshire. The population of the urban sanitary district (area 3670 acres) in 1871 was 23,534 and in 1881 it was 27,385.

**ROXANA**, or **ROXANE**, daughter of the Bactrian Oxyartes and wife of Alexander the Great (see **ALEXANDER**, vol. i. p. 484, and **MACEDONIAN EMPIRE**, vol. xv. p. 142).

**ROXBURGH**, a border county of Scotland, occupying the greater part of the border line with England, is bounded E. and S.E. by Northumberland, S.E. by Cumberland, S.W. by Dumfriesshire, W. by Selkirkshire, N.W. by Midlothian, and N.E. by Berwickshire. It lies between 55° 6' 30" and 55° 42' 30" N. lat., and between 2° 10' and 3° 7' W. long. Its greatest length from north to south is 43 miles, and its greatest breadth about 30 miles. The area is 428,464 acres, or about 670 square miles.

**Surface and Geology.**—The greater part of Roxburgh is included in Teviotdale. The whole course of the Teviot, 40 miles in length, is included within the county. It rises in the ranges of greywacke hills which separate the county from Dumfriesshire and Selkirk, and runs north-eastwards, following the deposition of the greywacke rocks to the Tweed at Kelso, and dividing the county into two unequal parts. On the north a high range of land runs parallel with its banks and slopes to its margin. South-west between Dumfries and Cumberland the greywacke formation constitutes an almost continuous succession of eminences, through which the Liddel finds its way southwards. The highest summits of the greywacke ranges exceed 1800 feet. Although occasionally rocky and rugged, the hills are for the most part rounded in outline and clothed with grass to their summits. This Silurian formation occupies nearly the whole of the western half of the county, but along with the greywacke rocks is associated clay slate of a bluish colour, glimmering with minute scales of mica and frequently traversed by veins of calcareous spar. The formation is succeeded to the eastward by an extensive deposit of Old Red Sandstone, forming an irregular quadrangular area towards the centre of the county, emitting two irregular projections from its southern extremity, and interrupted towards the north by an intrusion of trap rocks. Owing to the sandstone formation the transverse valleys formed by various affluents of the Teviot present features of great interest. The action of the water has scooped deep channels in the rock, and thus formed picturesque narrow defiles, of which the high sandstone scours are a pro-

minent characteristic, their dark red colour blending finely with the bright green woods and sparkling streams. The best example of this species of scenery is on the Jed near Jedburgh. From the left the Teviot receives the Borthwick and the Ale, both rising in Selkirkshire, and from the right the Allan, the Slitrig, the Rule, the Jed, the Oxnam, and the Kale, which rise in the high grounds towards the English border. As the Teviot approaches Hawick the county becomes more cultivated, although frequent irruptions of igneous rocks in the shape of isolated hills lend to it picturesqueness and variety. Towards the Tweed, where the lower division of the coal formation prevails, it expands into a fine champaign country, richly cultivated and finely wooded. The Tweed, which enters the county about two miles north of Selkirk, crosses its northern corner, eastwards by Abbotsford, Melrose, and Kelso to Coldstream. Its tributaries within the county are, besides the Teviot, the Gala, the Leader, and the Eden. One of the principal features of the Tweed district is the beautiful group of the Eildon Hills near Melrose, consisting of felspathic porphyry, the highest of the three peaks reaching 1385 feet. The extensive range of the Cheviots running along the Northumberland border is of similar formation. Within Roxburghshire they reach a height of over 2400 feet. The lochs are comparatively few, the principal being Yetholm or Primside Loch, and Hoselaw in Linton parish.

The principal minerals are calcareous spar and quartz. The spar is frequently of a red or rose character indicating the presence of hematite. In the greywacke strata fossils are very rare, but in the Old Red Sandstone fossil fishes of the genus *Pterichthys* and *Holoptychius* are very numerous, and a great variety of plant impressions have been found, especially fucoids, but also vegetables of a higher origin, including distinct petrifications of *Calamites*.

*Climate and Agriculture.*—The mean annual temperature approximates to that of Scotland generally, but it is much warmer in the low and arable portions, where also the rainfall is much less than in the hilly regions. The soil varies much in different districts, being chiefly loam in the low and level tracts along the banks of the river, where it is also very fertile. In other parts a mixture of clay and gravel prevails, but there is also a considerable extent of mossy land. The hilly district is everywhere covered by a thick green pasturage admirably suited for sheep. Both in the pastoral and in the arable districts agriculture is in a very advanced condition. The chief attention is devoted to cattle and sheep rearing.

Of the total area of 423,464 acres, 184,196 were in crops in 1885, 48,506 being under corn crops, 28,385 green crops, 59,937 clover, 47,058 permanent pasture, and 310 fallow. Of the area under corn crops, 82,624 acres, or fully two-thirds, were occupied by oats, and 13,355 acres by barley. Turnips and swedes were the principal green crops, occupying 25,143 acres, while potatoes occupied only 2118. The total number of horses was 4420, of which 3697 were used solely for purposes of agriculture; of cattle 17,831, of which 5154 were cows and heifers in milk or in calf; of sheep 502,721; and of pigs 4783. The valued rental in 1874 was £314,633 Scots, or £28,219 sterling, while that in 1883-84 was £420,403 including railways. According to the parliamentary return of lands and heritages, the total number of owners was 2455, of whom 1880 possessed less than one acre. The duke of Buccleuch possessed 104,461 acres, or nearly a fourth of the whole; the duke of Roxburgh, 50,459; the countess of Home, 25,380; marquis of Lothian, 19,740; and Sir William F. Elliot of Stobs, 16,475.

*Manufactures.*—Though essentially an agricultural county, Roxburghshire possesses woollen manufactures of some importance, including tweeds, blankets, shawls, and hosiery, the principal seats being Hawick, Jedburgh, and Kelso.

*Railways.*—The county is intersected by one of the lines of railway from Edinburgh to London (the "Waverley" route), which passes Melrose and Hawick. At Riccarton a branch passes south-eastwards to Newcastle. The northern district is crossed by the border railway from St Boswells to Kelso, Coldstream, and Berwick, a branch passing south from near Kelso to Jedburgh.

*Population.*—Between 1831 and 1881 the population increased from 43,663 to 63,442 (25,436 males, 28,006 females), but from 1861 to 1871 there was a decrease from 54,119 to 49,407. The town population numbered 24,273 in 1881, the village 6627, and the rural 22,542. Jedburgh (population 2432) is a royal burgh; it is also a police and parliamentary burgh, as is likewise Hawick

(16,184); Kelso (4687) is a police burgh. The most important villages are Melrose (1550), Newcastleton (924), and Yetholm (746).

*History and Antiquities.*—Among the more important relics of the early inhabitants of the county are the so-called Druidical remains at Tinnishill between the parishes of Castleton and Canonbie, at Ninestanerigg near Hermitage Castle, and at Plenderleath between the Oxnam and the Kale. Of old forts there are two of great size on the summits of Caerby and Tinnishill in Liddesdale, and a number of smaller ones in different parts of the county. On the north-west of the Eildon Hills are two fossæ or ramparts forming a circuit of more than a mile. On Caldshiels Hill there was another British fort, and between them a ditch with rampart of earth defending the country from the east. The famous Catrail, "partition of the fence," the most important of the British remains in the kingdom, extended a distance of 45 miles from near Galashiels in Selkirkshire through Roxburgh to Peel Fell on the border. The Roman Watling Street touched on Roxburgh at Broomhartlaw, whence passing along the mountains now forming the boundary of the county for a mile and a half, until it entered Scotland at Blackhall, it turned northward by Bonjedward, Mount Teviot, Newton, Eildon, and Newstead to Channelkirk in the Lammermuirs. On its line there were important stations at Chewgreen in the Cheviots (*Ad Fines*), Bonjedward (*Gadantica*), and Eildon Hill (*Trimontium*). Another Roman road called the Maidenway from Maiden Castle in Westmoreland entered Roxburgh at Deadwater, and under the name of the Wheelcauseway traversed the north-east corner of Liddesdale into Teviotdale. From Watling Street a branch called the Devil's Causeway passed to the Tweed. After forming part of the kingdom of Northumberland for several centuries, Roxburgh was relinquished along with Lothian to the Scottish king about 1020 (see *LOTHIAN*, vol. xv. p. 10). It is supposed to have been formed into a shire in the reign of David I., its ancient county town of Roxburgh forming, along with Edinburgh, Berwick, and Stirling, the court of the four burghs of Scotland, whose laws were collected by that king. Roxburgh Castle, between the Tweed and Teviot near Kelso, was a royal residence of the Saxon kings of Northumbria and afterwards of the Scottish monarchs. It was frequently taken by the English, and James II. was killed there by the bursting of a cannon. After this it remained in ruins till it was repaired by Protector Somerset, shortly after which it was demolished. Hermitage, in Liddesdale, the scene of Leyden's ballad of *Lord Soullis*, was probably built by Nicholas de Salces in the beginning of the 13th century. On the forfeiture of the Soullis family in 1320, it was granted by Robert the Bruce to Sir John Graham of Abercorn, and passed by the marriage of his heiress Mary to her husband William Douglas, knight of Liddesdale, who starved Sir Alexander Ramsay of Dalhousie to death in it in 1342 in revenge for Ramsay's appointment as sheriff of Roxburgh by David II. In 1492 Archibald Douglas, fifth earl of Angus, exchanged the Hermitage for Bothwell Castle, on the Clyde, with Patrick Hepburn, first earl of Bothwell; and it was there that his descendant, the fourth earl, was visited in 1566 by Mary queen of Scots. The principal of the other old castles are Branxholm on the Teviot, long the residence of the Buccleuchs and the scene of Sir Walter Scott's *Lay of the Last Minstrel*; Cessford, on a ridge inclining towards the Kale, formerly of great strength, besieged in 1520 by Surrey, to whom it surrendered; and Ferniehirst, the mansion of the Kers, on the Jed, occupying the site of a baronial fortress erected in 1410, and the scene of many a fray. The district was for a long time the scene of continual border conflicts, the leaders in which were the Armstrongs and other chiefs occupying the fortresses or peels, chiefly in Liddesdale, as at Gilknochie, Castleton, Whitehaugh, Copshaw, Syde, Mangerton, Goranberry, Hartgarth, and Newcastleton. Among many fine modern mansions mention may be made of Floors Castle, the seat of the duke of Roxburgh; Minto House, the seat of the earl of Minto; and Abbotsford, built by Sir Walter Scott. Few counties can boast of such important ecclesiastical remains as those of the abbeys of Melrose, Jedburgh, and Kelso. There are several ancient crosses in the county, the principal being those at Ancrum, Bowden, Maxton, and Melrose. Among numerous eminent men connected with Roxburgh mention may be made of Samuel Rutherford the theologian, James Thomson, author of *The Seasons*, John Leyden the poet, and Sir Gilbert Elliot of Minto.

See Jeffrey, *History of Roxburghshire*, 4 vols., 1807-64; Armstrong's *History of Liddesdale*, 1884. (T. F. H.)

ROXBURY, formerly a city of Norfolk county, Massachusetts, U.S., now incorporated in Boston (q.v.).

ROY, RÁMMOHUN (1772-1833). Rájá Rámmohun Roy (or Ráy), the founder of the Bráhma Samáj or Theistic Church of India, was born at Rádhánagar, Bengal, in May 1772, of an ancient and honourable Brahman family. His father gave him a good education; he learnt Persian at home, Arabic at Patna (where he studied Euclid, Aristotle, and the Koran), and Sanskrit at Benarés. Although a devout idolater in boyhood, he early began to doubt and

speculate, and at fifteen left home to study Buddhism in Tibet, where his criticisms on the Lama-worship gave much offence. After some years' travel he returned, but, his anti-idolatrous sentiments obliging him to leave home, he lived at Benares until his father's death in 1803. After this, he spent about ten years in the East India Company's service, latterly as dewán or head officer in the collection of revenues.

During this period he first began to assemble his friends together for evening discussions on the absurdities of idolatry, and he also issued his first work, *Tuhfat-al-Muwahhiddin* ("A Gift to Monotheists"). This treatise was in Persian, with an Arabic preface, and was a bold protest against superstition and priestcraft. These proceedings brought on him much hostility, and even persecution, and in 1814 he retired to Calcutta for greater safety. Here he soon established a little Friendly Society (*Atmíya Sabhá*), which met weekly to read the Hindu Scriptures and to chant monotheistic hymns. In 1816 he translated the Vedánta into Bengali and Hindustani, following this by a series of translations from the Upanishads into Bengali, Hindustani, and English, with introductions and comments of his own. These works he published at his own expense and disseminated widely among his countrymen. His writings excited much opposition and gave rise to numerous controversies, in which his ability, tact, and learning rendered him fully a match for his antagonists. But the deadliest blow which he inflicted upon Hindu superstition was his effective agitation against the rite of suttee, the burning of living widows on the funeral piles of their deceased husbands. In 1811 he had been a horrified witness of this sacrifice in his elder brother's family, and had vowed never to rest until he had uprooted the custom. He exposed the hollow pretences of its advocates in elaborate pamphlets, both in Bengali and English, and pressed the matter in every possible way, till at last the tide of public feeling turned, and on December 4, 1829, Lord William Bentinck issued a regulation abolishing suttee throughout all the territories subject to Fort William. Rámmohun was an active politician and philanthropist. He built schoolhouses and established schools in which useful knowledge was gratuitously taught through the medium both of the English and the native languages. He wrote a suggestive Bengali grammar, of which he published one version in English (1826) and one in Bengali (1833). He wrote valuable pamphlets on Hindu law, and made strenuous exertions for the freedom of the native press; he also established (1822) and mainly conducted two native newspapers, the *Sambád Kaumudí* in Bengali, and (if rightly identified) the *Mirát-al-Akhhár* in Persian, and made them the means of diffusing much useful political information. Becoming interested in Christianity, he learned Hebrew and Greek in order to read the Bible in the original languages; and in 1820 he issued a selection from the four Gospels entitled *The Precepts of Jesus, the Guide to Peace and Happiness*. This was attacked by the Baptist missionaries of Serampur, and a long controversy ensued, in which he published three remarkable *Appeals to the Christian Public in Defence of the "Precepts of Jesus."* He also wrote other theological tracts (sometimes under assumed names) in which he attacked both Hindu and Christian orthodoxy with a strong hand. But his personal relations with orthodox Christians were never unfriendly, and he rendered valuable assistance to Dr Duff in the latter's educational schemes. He also warmly befriended a Unitarian Christian Mission which was started in Calcutta (1824) by Mr William Adam, formerly a Baptist missionary, who, in attempting to convert Rámmohun to Trinitarianism, had himself been converted to the opposite view. This Unitarian Mission,

though not a theological success, attracted considerable sympathy among the Hindu monotheists, whose Atmíya Sabhá had then become extinct. At last Rámmohun felt able to re-embodify his cherished ideal, and on August 20, 1828, he opened the first "Bráhma Association" (*Bráhma Sabhá*) at a hired house. A suitable church building was then erected and placed in the hands of trustees, with a small endowment and a remarkable trust-deed by which the building was set apart "for the worship and adoration of the Eternal, Unsearchable, and Immutable Being who is the Author and Preserver of the universe." The new church was formally opened on the 11th Mágh (January 23) 1830, from which day the Bráhma Samáj dates its existence. Having now succeeded in his chief projects, Rámmohun resolved to visit England, and the king of Delhi appointed him his envoy thither on special business, and gave him the title of rájá. He arrived in England on April 8, 1831, and was received with universal cordiality and respect. He watched with special anxiety the parliamentary discussions on the renewal of the East India Company's charter, and gave much valuable evidence before the Board of Control on the condition of India. This he republished with additional suggestions (*Exposition of the Practical Operation of the Judicial and Revenue Systems of India*), and also reissued his important *Essay on the Right of Hindús over Ancestral Property* (1832). He visited France, and wished to visit America, but died unexpectedly of brain fever at Bristol, September 27, 1833.

His Bengali and Sanskrit works were lately reissued in one volume, by Rájárádn Bose and A. C. Vedántabághish (Calcutta, 1880), and his English works will shortly be published in two volumes by Eshanchandra Bose. Nagendranáth Chattopádháya's Bengali memoir of him (1881) is the fullest yet published.

ROY, WILLIAM (c. 1726-1790), a famous geodesist, was employed in some of the great national trigonometrical measurements which were made during last century. In 1746, at the age of twenty, when an assistant in the office of Colonel Watson, deputy quartermaster-general in North Britain, he began the survey of the mainland of Scotland, the results of which were embodied in what is known as the "duke of Cumberland's map." In 1756 he obtained a lieutenancy in the 51st regiment, and proceeded with it to Germany, where his talents as a military draughtsman brought him to notice, and procured him rapid promotion. He ultimately reached the rank of major-general. In 1784, while deputy quartermaster-general at the Horse Guards, his services were called into request for conducting the observations for determining the relative positions of the French and English royal observatories. His measurement of a base line for that purpose on Hounslow Heath in 1784, which was destined to be the germ of all subsequent surveys of the United Kingdom, gained him the gold medal of the Royal Society of London. Owing to unforeseen delays, the triangulation for connecting the meridians of the two observatories was not carried out until 1787. He had completed his undertaking, and was finishing an account of it for the *Phil. Trans.* when he died in 1790.

Besides several papers in *Phil. Trans.*, Roy was author of the work entitled *Military Antiquities of the Romans in North Britain*, published in 1783.

ROYAL HOUSEHOLD. In all the mediæval monarchies of western Europe the general system of government sprang from, and centred in, the royal household. The sovereign's domestics were his officers of state, and the leading dignitaries of the palace were the principal administrators of the kingdom. The royal household itself had, in its turn, grown out of an earlier and more primitive institution. It took its rise in the *comitatus* described by Tacitus, the chosen band of *comites* or companions who, when the Roman historian wrote, constituted the personal following, in peace as well as in war, of the Teutonic

princeps or chieftain. In England before the Conquest the *comitatus* had developed or degenerated into the thegnhood, and among the most eminent and powerful of the king's thegns, were his dishthegn, his bowthegn, and his horsethegn or staller. In Normandy at the time of the Conquest a similar arrangement, imitated from the French court, had long been established, and the Norman dukes, like their overlords the kings of France, had their seneschal or steward, their chamberlain, and their constable. After the Conquest the ducal household of Normandy was reproduced in the royal household of England; and since, in obedience to the spirit of feudalism, the great offices of the first had been made hereditary, the great offices of the second were made hereditary also, and were thenceforth held by the grantees and their descendants as grand-serjeanties of the crown. The consequence was that they passed out of immediate relation to the practical conduct of affairs either in both state and court or in the one or the other of them. The steward and chamberlain of England were superseded in their political functions by the justiciar and treasurer of England, and in their domestic functions by the steward and chamberlain of the household. The marshal of England took the place of the constable of England in the royal palace, and was associated with him in the command of the royal armies. In due course, however, the marshalship as well as the constableness became hereditary, and, although the constable and marshal of England retained their military authority until a comparatively late period, the duties they had successively performed about the palace had been long before transferred to the master of the horse. Under these circumstances the holders of the original great offices of state and the household ceased to attend the court except on occasions of extraordinary ceremony, and their representatives either by inheritance or by special appointment have ever since continued to appear at coronations and some other public solemnities, such as the opening of the parliament or trials by the House of Lords.<sup>1</sup>

The materials available for a history of the royal household are somewhat scanty and obscure. The earliest record relating to it is of the reign of Henry II.; and is contained in the *Black Book of the Exchequer*. It enumerates the various inmates of the king's palace and the daily allowances made to them at the period at which it was compiled. Hence it affords valuable evidence of the antiquity and relative importance of the court offices to which it refers, notwithstanding that it is silent as to the functions and formal subordination of the persons who filled them.<sup>2</sup> In addition to this record we have a series of far later, but for the most part equally meagre, documents bearing more or less directly on the constitution of the royal household, and extending, with long intervals, from the reign of Edward III. to the reign of William and Mary.<sup>3</sup> Among them, however, are what are known as the

<sup>1</sup> The great officers of state and the household whom we have particularly mentioned do not of course exhaust the catalogue of them. We have named those only whose representatives are still dignitaries of the court and functionaries of the palace. If the reader consults Hallam (*Middle Ages*, vol. i. p. 181 sq.), Freeman (*Norman Conquest*, vol. i. p. 91 sq.), and vol. v. p. 426 sq.), and Stubbs (*Const. Hist.*, vol. i. p. 343, sq.), he will be able himself to fill in the details of the outline we have given above.

<sup>2</sup> The record in question is entitled *Constitutio Domus Regis de Procuracionibus*, and is printed by Hearne (*Liber Niger Saecularis*, vol. i. p. 341 sq.). It is analysed by Stubbs (*Const. Hist.*, vol. i. note 2, p. 345).

<sup>3</sup> A *Collection of Ordinances and Regulations for the Government of the Royal Household, made in Divers Reigns from King Edward III. to King William and Queen Mary*, printed for the Society of Antiquaries, London, 1790. See also Pegge's *Curialia*, published partly before and partly after this volume; and Carlisle's *Gentlemen of the Privy Chamber*, published in 1829. Pegge and Carlisle, however, deal with small and insignificant portions of the royal establishment.

*Black Book of the Household and the Statutes of Eltham*, compiled the first in the reign of Edward IV. and the second in the reign of Henry VIII., from which a good deal of detailed information may be gathered concerning the arrangements of the court in the 15th and 16th centuries. The *Statutes of Eltham* were meant for the practical guidance merely of those who were responsible for the good order and the sufficient supply of the sovereign's household at the time they were issued. But the *Black Book of the Household*, besides being a sort of treatise on princely magnificence generally, professes to be based on the regulations established for the governance of the court by Edward III., who, it affirms, was "the first setter of certeynties among his domestical meyne, upon a grounded rule" and whose palace it describes as "the house of very policie and flowre of England;" and it may therefore possibly, and even probably, take us back to a period much more remote than that at which it was actually put together.<sup>4</sup> Various orders, returns, and accounts of the reigns of Elizabeth, James I., Charles I., Charles II., and William and Mary throw considerable light on the organization of particular sections of the royal household in times nearer to our own.<sup>5</sup> Moreover, there were several parliamentary inquiries into the expenses of the royal household in connexion with the settlement or reform of the civil list during the reigns of George III., George IV., and William IV.<sup>6</sup> But they add little or nothing to our knowledge of the subject in what was then its historical as distinguished from its contemporary aspects. So much, indeed, is this the case that, on the accession of Queen Victoria, Chamberlayne's *Present State of England*, which contains a catalogue of the officials at the court of Queen Anne, was described by Lord Melbourne the prime minister as the "only authority" which the advisers of the crown could find for their assistance in determining the appropriate constitution and dimensions of the domestic establishment of a queen regnant.<sup>7</sup>

In its main outlines the existing organization of the royal household is essentially the same as it was under the Tudors or the Plantagenets. It is now, as it was then, divided into three principal departments, at the head of which are severally the lord steward, the lord chamberlain, and the master of the horse, and the respective provinces of which may be generally described as "below stairs," "above stairs," and "out of doors." But at present, the sovereign being a queen, the royal household is in some other respects rather differently arranged from what it would be if there were a king and a queen consort. When there is a king and a queen consort there is a

<sup>4</sup> *Liber Niger Domus Regis Edward IV. and Ordinances for the Household made at Eltham in the seventeenth year of King Henry VIII., A.D. 1526*, are the titles of these two documents. The earlier documents printed in the same collection are *Household of King Edward III. in Peace and War from the eighteenth to the twenty-first year of his reign; Ordinances of the Household of King Henry IV. in the thirty-third year of his reign, A.D. 1455, and Articles ordained by King Henry VI. for the Regulation of his Household, A.D. 1494.*

<sup>5</sup> *The Book of the Household of Queen Elizabeth as it was ordained in the forty-third year of her Reign delivered to our Sovereign Lord King James, &c.*, is simply a list of officers' names and allowances. It seems to have been drawn up under the curious circumstances referred to in *Archæologia* (vol. xii. pp. 80-85). For the rest of these documents see *Ordinances and Regulations, &c.*, pp. 299, 340, 347, 352, 368, and 380.

<sup>6</sup> Burke's celebrated Act "for enabling His Majesty to discharge the debt contracted upon the civil list, and for preventing the same from being in arrear for the future, &c.," 22 Geo. III. c. 82, was passed in 1782. But it was foreshadowed in his great speech on "Economic Reform" delivered two years before. Since the beginning of the current century select committees of the House of Commons have reported on the civil list and royal household in 1803, 1804, 1815, and 1831.

<sup>7</sup> Torrens's *Memoirs of William, second Viscount Melbourne*, vol. ii. p. 303.

separate establishment "above stairs" and "out of doors" for the queen consort. She has a lord chamberlain's department and a department of the master of the horse of her own, and all the ladies of the court from the mistress of the robes to the maids of honour are in her service. At the commencement of the reign of Queen Victoria the two establishments were combined, and on the whole considerably reduced. Hence the royal household, although it is of course much larger than that of a queen consort would be, is also appreciably smaller than that of a king and queen consort together has been since the reigning family acceded to the throne.<sup>1</sup>

**I. Department of the Lord Steward of the Household.**—The hall; the kitchen, ewry, and pantry; the wine, beer, and coal cellars; and the almonry are in the lord steward's department. The lord steward is the first dignitary of the court, and presides at the Board of Green Cloth, where all the accounts of the household are examined and passed.<sup>2</sup> He is always a member of the Government of the day, a peer, and a privy councillor. He receives his appointment from the sovereign in person, and bears a white staff as the emblem and warrant of his authority.<sup>3</sup> In his department the treasurer and comptroller of the household are the officers next in rank to him. They also sit at the Board of Green Cloth, carry white staves, and belong to the ministry. They are always peers or the sons of peers, and privy councillors. But the duties which in theory belong to the lord steward, treasurer, and comptroller of the household are in practice performed by the master of the household, who is a permanent officer and resides in the palace. It is he who really investigates the accounts and maintains discipline among the ordinary servants of the royal establishment. He is a white-staff officer and a member of the Board of Green Cloth but not of the ministry, and among other things he presides at the daily dinners of the suite in waiting on the sovereign.<sup>4</sup> In the lord steward's department are the secretary and three clerks of the Board of Green Cloth; the coroner and paymaster of the household; and the officers of the almonry, namely, the hereditary grand almoner, the lord high almoner, the sub-almoner, the groom of the almonry, and the secretary to the lord high almoner.<sup>5</sup>

**II. Department of the Lord Chamberlain of the Household.**—The bedchamber, privy chamber, and presence chamber, the wardrobe, the housekeeper's room, and the guardroom, the metropolitan theatres, and the chapels royal are in the lord chamberlain's department. The lord chamberlain is the second dignitary of the court, and is always a member of the Government of the day, a peer, and a privy councillor. He carries a white staff, and wears a golden or jewelled key, typical of the key of the palace, which is supposed to be in his charge, as the ensigns of his office. He is responsible for the necessary arrangements connected with state ceremonies, such as coronations and royal marriages, christenings, and funerals. All invitations to court are sent out in his name by command of the sovereign, and at drawing rooms and levees he stands next to the sovereign and announces the persons who are approaching the throne. It is also part of his duty to conduct the sovereign to and from his or her carriage.<sup>7</sup> The vice-chamberlain of the household is the lord chamberlain's assistant and deputy. He also is one of the ministry, a white-staff officer, and the bearer of a key; and he is always a peer or the son of a peer as well as a privy councillor.

<sup>1</sup> Hansard, *Parl. Debates*, vol. xxxix. pp. 146 sq. 1342 sq.

<sup>2</sup> In the *Statutes of Eltham* he is called "the lord great master," but in the *Household Book of Queen Elizabeth* "the lord steward," as before and since. In 31 Hen. VIII. c. 10, "for placing of the lords," he is described as "the grand master or lord steward of the king's most honourable household." The whole business of purveyance and pre-emption was anciently managed by the Board of Green Cloth. See under heading "The counting house of the king's household, *Donus Computus Hospitii Regis*," in Coke, *Institutes*, iv. cap. 19. It is designated "the court of the verge or green cloth" in 22 Geo. III. c. 82, § 5.

<sup>3</sup> In the old time the lord steward had three courts besides the board of green cloth under him, namely, the lord steward's court, the court of the Marshal, and the palace court (Coke, *Inst.*, iv. caps. 20 and 21; Reeves, *Hist. of the Law of England*, vol. ii. pp. 138 and 297; Stephen, *Commentaries on the Law of England*, vol. iv. p. 222). The lord steward or his deputies formerly administered the oaths to the members of the House of Commons, and frequent inconveniences were the consequence (see Hatsell, *Precedents of Proceedings in the House of Commons*, London, 1818, vol. ii. pp. 84-91). In certain cases now "the lords with white staves" are the proper persons to bear communications between the sovereign and the Houses of Parliament.

<sup>4</sup> In the case of the master of the household we see history repeating itself. He is not named in the *Black Book of Edward IV.* or in the *Statutes of Henry VIII.*, and is entered as "master of the household and clerk of the green cloth" in the *Household Book of Queen Elizabeth*. But practically he has superseded the lord steward of the household, as the lord steward of the household at one time superseded the lord high steward of England.

<sup>5</sup> The marquess of Exeter.

<sup>6</sup> In the lord steward's department the offices of cofessor of the household, treasurer of the chamber, paymaster of pensions, and six clerks of the Board of Green Cloth were abolished by 22 Geo. III. c. 82.

<sup>7</sup> The lord chamberlain of the household at one time discharged some important political functions, which are described by Sir Harris Nicolas (*Proceedings of the Privy Council*, vol. vi., Preface, p. xxiii).

When there is a king the groom of the stole comes next to the vice-chamberlain in rank and authority. At present, however, the mistress of the robes in some measure occupies the position of the groom of the stole.<sup>8</sup> She is the only lady of the court who comes into office and goes out with the administration, and the duties she performs are merely occasional and formal. She is always a duchess, and attends the queen at all state ceremonies and entertainments, but is never in permanent residence at the palace.<sup>9</sup> On the contrary the ladies of the bedchamber share the function of personal attendance on the sovereign throughout the year. Of these there are eight, always peeresses, and each is in waiting for about a fortnight or three weeks at a time. But the women of the bedchamber, of whom there are also eight, appear only at court ceremonies and entertainments according to a roster annually issued under the authority of the lord chamberlain. They are usually the daughters of peers or the wives of the sons of peers, and in the old time, like the mistress of the robes and the ladies of the bedchamber, habitually assisted the queen at her daily toilette. But this has long ceased to be done by any of them. The maids of honour, whose situations are by no means sinecures, are likewise eight in number and have the same terms of waiting as the ladies of the bedchamber. They are commonly if not always the daughters or granddaughters of peers, and when they have no superior title and precedence by birth are called "honourable" and placed next after the daughters of barons. The queen as a special mark of her favour nominates "extra" ladies and women of the bed-chamber and maids of honour. But their position is altogether honorary and involves no charge on the civil list. There are eight lords and eight grooms, who are properly described as "of the bedchamber" or "in waiting," according as the reigning sovereign is a king or a queen, and whose terms of attendance are of similar duration to those of the ladies of the bedchamber and the maids of honour. Occasionally "extra" lords and grooms in waiting are nominated by the queen, who, however, are unpaid and have no regular duties. The master, assistant master, and marshal of the ceremonies are the officers whose special function it is to enforce the observance of the *etiquette* of the court. The reception of foreign potentates and ambassadors is under their particular care, and they assist in the ordering of all entertainments and festivities at the palace.<sup>10</sup> The gentleman usher of the black rod—the black rod which he carries being the ensign of his office—is the principal usher of the court and kingdom. He is one of the original functionaries of the order of the Garter, and is in constant attendance on the House of Lords, from whom, either personally or by his deputy the yeoman usher of the black rod, it is part of his duty to carry messages and summonses to the House of Commons. The gentlemen ushers of the privy chamber and the gentlemen ushers daily waiters, of whom there are four each, and the gentlemen ushers quarterly waiters and the sergeants-at-arms, of whom there are eight each, are in waiting only at drawing rooms and levees and state balls and concerts. But of the sovereign's sergeants-at-arms there are two others to whom special duties are assigned, the one attending the speaker in the House of Commons, and the other attending the lord chancellor in the House of Lords, carrying their maces and executing their orders.<sup>11</sup> The yeomen of the guard date from the reign of Henry VII., and the gentlemen-at-arms from the reign of Henry VIII. The captain of each corps is always a member of the ministry and a peer. Besides the captains, the former, now called the queen's bodyguard, consists of a lieutenant, ensign, clerk of the cheque and adjutant, four exons, and a hundred yeomen; and the latter, once called the gentlemen pensioners, consists of a lieutenant, standard-bearer, clerk of the cheque and adjutant, a sub-officer, and forty gentlemen. The comptroller and examiner of accounts, the licenser of plays, the dean and subdean of the chapel royal, the clerk of the closet, the groom of the robes, the pages of the backstairs, of the chamber, and of the presence, the poet laureate, the royal physicians and surgeons, chaplains, painters and sculptors, librarians and musicians, &c., are all under the superintendence of the lord chamberlain of the household.<sup>12</sup>

**III. Department of the Master of the Horse.**—The stables and coachhouses, the stud, mews, and kennels, are in the master of the horse's department. The master of the horse is the third

<sup>8</sup> In the reign of Queen Anne, Sarah duchess of Marlborough from 1704, and Elizabeth duchess of Somerset from 1710, held the combined offices of mistress of the robes and groom of the stole.

<sup>9</sup> Since the great "bedchamber question" of 1839 the settled practice has been for all the ladies of the court except the mistress of the robes to receive and continue in their appointments independently of the political connexions of their husbands, fathers, and brothers (see Mr Gladstone's *Speeches of Past Years*, vol. i. p. 40; and Torrens's *Memoirs of Lord Melbourne*, vol. ii. p. 80).

<sup>10</sup> The office of master of the ceremonies was created by James I. The master of the ceremonies wears a medal attached to a gold chain round his neck, on one side being an emblem of peace with the motto "Beati pacifici," and on the other an emblem of war with the motto "Deu et mon dicit" (see *Finetti Philozensis*, by Sir John Finetti, master of the ceremonies to James I. and Charles I., 1646; and D'Israeli's *Curiosities of Literature*, 10th ed., p. 242 sq.).

<sup>11</sup> See May, *Parliamentary Practice*, pp. 236, 244.

<sup>12</sup> The offices of master of the great wardrobe and master of the jewel house in the lord chamberlain's department were abolished by 22 Geo. III. c. 82.