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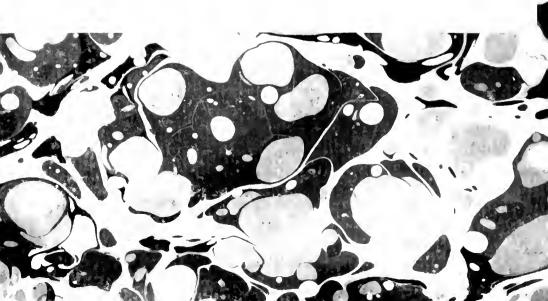
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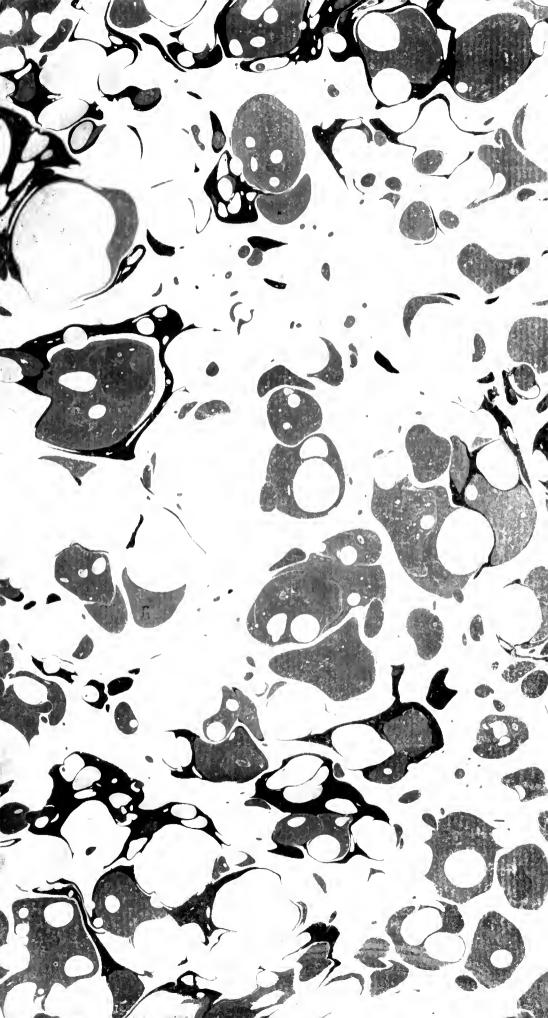
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AN

Ecclesiastical History,

ANCIENT AND MODERN,

FROM

THE BIRTH OF CHRIST,

TOTHE

BEGINNING OF THE PRESENT CENTURY.

VOLUME III.

Ecclesiastical History,

ANCIENT AND MODERN,

FROM

THE BIRTH OF CHRIST,

TO THE

BEGINNING OF THE PRESENT CENTURY:

IN WHICH

The Rife, Progress, and Variations of Church Power

ARE CONSIDERED

In their Connexion with the State of LEARNING and PHILOSOPHY, and the POLITICAL HISTORY OF EUROPE during that Period.

By the late learned

JOHN LAWRENCE MOSHEIM, D. D.

And Chancellor of the University of Gottingen.

Translated from the Original Latin, and accompanied with Notes and Chronological Tables,

By ARCHIBALD MACLAINE, D. D.

Electric Contract of the Contr

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To the whole is added AN Accurate Index.

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THE

TWELFTH CENTURY.

PART I.

The External HISTORY of the CHURCH.

CHAPTER I.

Concerning the prosperous events that happened to the church during this century.

I. A CONSIDERABLE part of Europe CENT. lay yet involved in Pagan darkness, which reigned xII. more especially in the northern provinces. It was, PART I. therefore, in these regions of gloomy superstition, several of that the zeal of the missionaries was principally the norexerted in this century; though their efforts were thern pro-not all equally successful, nor the methods they ceived the employed for the propagation of the gospel equally light of the prudent. Boleslaus, duke of Poland, having con-gospel. quered the Pomeranians, offered them peace upon condition that they would receive the Christian doctors, and permit them to exercise their ministry in that vanquished province. This condition was accepted, and Отно, bishop of Bamberg, a man of eminent piety and zeal, was fent, in the year 1124, to inculcate and explain the doctrines of Christianity among that superstitious and barbarous people. Many were converted to the faith by his ministry, while great numbers stood firm against his most vigorous efforts, and perfilted with an invincible obstinacy in the religion of their idolatrous ancestors. Nor was this the only mortification which that illustrious prelate received in the execution of his pious Vol. III.

enterprise; for, upon his return into Germany, CENT. XII. many of those, whom he had engaged in the proand relapsed into their ancient prejudices; this obliged Отно to undertake a fecond voyage into Pomerania, A. D. 1126, in which, after much opposition and difficulty, his labours were crowned with a happier iffue, and contributed much to enlarge the bounds of the rifing church, and to establish it upon folid foundations $\lceil a \rceil$. From this period, the Christian religion scemed to acquire daily new degrees of stability among the Pomeranians; who could not be perfunded hitherto to permit the fettlement of a bifliop among them. They now received

The Sclaof the ifle of Rugen.

was accordingly the first bishop of Pomerania. II. Of all the northern princes in this century, vomans and inhabitants none appeared with a more distinguished lustre than WALDEMAR I. king of Denmark, who acquired an immortal name by the glorious battles he fought against the Pagan nations, such as the Sclavonians, Venedi, Vandals, and others, who, either by their incursions or this revolt, drew upon them the weight of his victorious arm. He unsheathed his fword not only for the defence and happiness of his people, but also for the propagation and advancement of Christianity; and wherever his arms were successful, there he pulled down the temples and images of the gods, destroyed their altars, laid waste their facred groves, and substituted in their place the Christian

Adalbert, of Albert, in that character, who

[[]a] See Henr. Canisii Lediones Antiqua, tom. iii. part II. p. 34. where we find the life of Отно, who, A. D. 1189, was canonifed by CLEMENT III. See the Ada Sandor. mensis Julii, tom. i. p. 3.9.—DAN. CRAMFRI Chronicon Ecclef. Pomerania, lib. i. as also a learned Differtation concerning the conversion of the Pomeranians by the ministry of Otho, written in the German language by Christopher Schotgen, and published at Stargard in the year 1724. Add to these, MABILLON, Annal. Benedici. tom. vi. p. 123. 146. 323.

worship, which deserved to be propagated by better CENT. means than the fword, by the authority of reason rather than by the despotic voice of power. The PART I. island of Rugen, which lies in the neighbourhood of Pomerania, submitted to the victorious arms of WALDEMAR, A. D. 1168; and its fierce and favage inhabitants, who were, in reality, no more than a band of robbers and pirates, were obliged, by that prince, to hear the instructions of the pious and learned doctors that followed his army, and to receive the Christian worship. This falutary work was brought to perfection by ABSALOM, archbishop of Lunden, a man of a superior genius, and of a most excellent character in every respect, whose eminent merit raised him to the summit of power, and engaged WALDEMAR to place him at the head of affairs $\lceil b \rceil$.

III. The Finlanders received the gospel in the The Finfame manner in which it had been propagated among landers, the inhabitants of the isle of Rugen. They were also a fierce and savage people, who lived by plunder, and insested Sweden in a terrible manner by their perpetual incursions, until, after many bloody battles, they were totally defeated by Enic IX. and were, in consequence thereof, reduced under the

[b] SAXO-GRAMMATICUS, Histor. Danie. lib. xiv. p. 239. Helmoldus, Chron. Sclavorum, lib. ii. cap. xii. p. 234. & Henr. Bangertus, ad h. l.—Pontoppidani Annales Ecclesia Danica, tom. i. p. 404.

Besides the historians here mentioned by Dr. Mosheim, we refer the curious reader to an excellent history of Denmark, written in French by M. Mallet, professor at Copenhagen. In the sirst volume of this history, the ingenious and learned author has given a very interesting account of the progress of Christianity in the northern parts of Europe, and a particular relation of the exploits of Absalom, who was, at the same time, archbishop, general, admiral, and prime minister, and who led the victorious Danes to battle by sea and land, without neglecting the cure of souls, or diminishing, in the least, his pious labours in the propagation of the gospel abroad, and its maintenance and support at home.

CENT. Swedish yoke. Historians differ about the precise time when this conquest was completed $\lceil c \rceil$; but PART 1. they are all unanimous in their accounts of its effects. The Finlanders were commanded to embrace the religion of the conqueror, which the greatest part of them did, though with the utmost reluctance $\lceil d \rceil$. The founder and ruler of this new church was Henry, archbishop of Upsal, who accompanied the victorious monarch in that bloody campaign. This prelate, whose zeal was not fufficiently tempered with the mild and gentle spirit of the religion he taught, treated the new converts with great feverity, and was affassinated at last in a cruel manner on account of the heavy penance he imposed upon a person of great authority, who had been guilty of manshaughter. This melancholy event procured HENRY the honours of faintship and martyrdom, which were folemnly conferred on him by pope Adrian IV. [e].

The Livonians.

IV. The propagation of the gospel among the Livonians was attended with much difficulty, and also with horrible scenes of cruelty and bloodshed. The first missionary, who attempted the conversion of that favage people, was MAINARD, a regular canon of St. Augustin, in the monastery of Sigeberg, who, towards the conclusion of this century [f], travelled to Livonia, with a company of merchants of Bremen, who traded thither, and improved this

[d] Oernhielmii Hiftor. Ecclef. gentis Suecorum, lib. iv. cap. iv. § 13.-Jo. Locenti Histor. Suecica, lib. iii. p. 76. ed. Francof.—ERLANDI Vita Erici Sandi, cap. vii.—VASTOVII Vitis Aquilonia, p. 65.

[e] VASTOVII Vilis Aquilon, scu Vitæ Sanctorum regni Suegothici, p. 62. ERIC. BENEZLII Monumenta Ecclesia Suegothica, part I. p. 33.

[f] In the year \$186.

[[]c] Most writers, with BARONIUS, place this event in the year 1151. Different, however, from this is the chronology of VASTOVIUS and OERNHIELMIUS, the former placing it A. D. 1150, and the latter A. D. 1157.

opportunity of fpreading the light of the gospel in CENT. that barbarous region of superstition and darkness. The instructions and exhortations of this zealous PART I. apostle were little attended to, and produced little or no effect upon that uncivilized nation: whereupon he addressed himself to the Roman pontiff URBAN III. who confecrated him bishop of the Livonians, and, at the fame time, declared a holy war against that obstinate people. This war, which was at first carried on against the inhabitants of the province of Esthonia, was continued with still greater vigour and rendered more universal by Berthold, abbot of Lucca, who left his monastery to share the labours and laurels of MAINARD, whom he, accordingly, fucceeded in the fee of Livonia. The new bishop marched into that province at the head of a powerful army which he had raifed in Saxony, preached the gospel sword in hand, and proved its truth by blows instead of arguments. ALBERT, canon of Bremen, became the third bishop of Livonia, and followed, with a barbarous enthusiasm, the same military methods of conversion that had been practifed by his predecessor. He entered Livonia, A. D. 1198, with a fresh body of troops, drawn out of Saxony, and encamping at Riga, instituted there, by the direction of the Roman pontiff Innocent III. the military order of the knights sword-bearers [g], who were commissioned to dragoon the Livonians into the profession of Christianity, and to oblige them, by force of arms, to receive the benefits of baptism [b]. New legions were fent from Germany to fecond the efforts, and add efficacy to the mission, of these booted apostles; and they, together with the knights fword-bearers, fo cruelly oppressed, slaughtered, and tormented this wretched people, that exhausted, at

[[]g] Equestris Ordo Militum Ensisterorum.

[[]b] See Henr. Leonh. Schurzfleischii Historia Ordinis Ensiserorum Equitum, Witteberg, 1701, 8vo.

The arm of perfecution, strengthened still by new PART! accessions of power, they abandoned the statues of their pagan deities, and substituted in their place the images of the saints. But while they received the blessings of the gospel, they were, at the same time, deprived of all earthly comforts; for their lands and possessions were taken from them with the most odious circumstances of cruelty and violence, and the knights and bishops divided the spoil [1].

The Sclavonians.

V. None of the northern nations had a more rooted aversion to the Christians, and a more obstinate antipathy to their religion, than the Sclavonians, a rough and barbarous people, who inhabited the coast of the Baltic sea. This excited the zeal of feveral neighbouring princes, and of a multitude of pious missionaries, who united their efforts in order to conquer the prejudices of this people, and to open their eyes upon the light of the gospel. HENRY duke of Saxony, furnamed the Lion, distinguished himself, in a particular manner, by the ardour which he discovered in the execution of this pious design, as well as by the wife methods he employed to render it fuccessful. Among other measures that were proper for this purpose, he restored from their ruins, and endowed richly, three bishoprics $\lceil k \rceil$ that

[[]i] See the Origines Livonia feu Chronicon vetus Livonicum, published in folio, at Francfort, in the year 1740, by Jo. Daniel Gruberus, and enriched with ample and learned observations and notes, in which the laborious author enumerates all the writers of the Livonian history, and corrects their mistakes.

[[]k] CF Dr. Mosheim's account of this matter is very different from that which is given by Fleury, who afferts, that it was Hartwick, archbishop of Bremen, who restored the three ruined sees, and confecrated Vicelinus, bishop of Oldenbourg; and that, having done this without addressing himself to Henry, that prince seized the tithes of Vicelinus, until a reconciliation was afterwards brought about between the offended prince and the worthy bishop. See Fleury, Hist. Eccles. live. 1xix. p. 665. 668. edit. Bruxelle. Fleury, in this and other parts of his

had been ravaged and destroyed by these Barbarians; CENT. to wit, the bishoprics of Ratzebourg and Schwerin, and that of Oldenbourg, which was afterwards trans-PART I. planted to Lubec. The most eminent of the Christian doctors, who attempted the conversion of the Sclavonians, was Vicelinus, a native of Hamelen, a man of extraordinary merit, who surpassed almost all his cotemporaries in genuine piety and folid learning, and who, after having prefided many years in the fociety of the regular canons of St. Augustin at Falderen, was at length confecrated bishop of Oldenbourg. This excellent man had employed the last thirty years of his life [1], amidst numberless vexations, dangers, and difficulties, in instructing the Sclavonians, and exhorting them to comply with the invitations of the gospel of CHRIST; and as his pious labours were directed by true wisdom, and carried on with the most indefatigable industry and zeal, so were they attended with much fruit, even among that fierce and untractable people. Nor was his ministry among the Sclavonians the only circumstance that redounds to the honour of his memory; the history of his life and actions in general furnishes proofs of his piety and zeal, fufficient to transmit his name to the latest generations $\lceil m \rceil$.

history, shews, that he is but indifferently acquainted with the history of Germany, and has not drawn from the best sources. The authorities which Dr. Mosheim produces for his account of the matter, are, the Origines Guelphicæ, tom. iii. p. 16. 19. 34. 55. 61. 63. 72. 82. with the celebrated Preface of Scheidius, siv. p. 41.—Ludewig's Reliquia Manuscriptorum, tom. vi. p. 230.—Jo. Ern de Westphalen, Monumenta inedita rerum Cimbricarum et Megapolens. tom. ii. p. 1998.

[1] That is, from the year 1124 to the year 1154, in which he died.

[m] There is a particular and ample account of VICELINUS in the Cimbria Literata of Mollerus, tom. ii. p. 910. and in the Hamburg. of Lambecius, lib. ii. p. 12. See also upon this subject the Origines Neomonaster. et Bordesholmens. of the most learned and industrious Joh. Ern. DE Westphalen, which are

CENT. XII. Part 1.

The judgment we bught to form of these

VI. It is needless to repeat here the observation we have had so often occasion to make upon such conversions as these we have been now relating, or to advertise the reader that the favage nations, who were thus dragooned into the church, became the disciples of CHRIST, not so much in reality, as in torm of these conversions. Outward appearance. [They professed, with an inward reluctance, a religion which was inculcated by violence and bloodshed, which recalled to their remembrance nothing but scenes of desolation and mifery, and which, indeed, when confidered in the representations that were given of it by the greatest part of the missionaries, was but a few degrees removed from the absurdities of paganism. The pure and rational religion of the gospel was never prefented to these unhappy nations in its native fimplicity; they were only taught to appeale the Deity, and to render him propitious, by a fenfeless round of trifling ceremonies and bodily exercises. which, in many circumstances, resembled the superstitions they were obliged to renounce, and might have been easily reconciled with them, had it not been that the name and history of CHRIST, the fign of the cross, and some diversity between certain rites and ceremonies of the two religions, opposed this coalition. Befides, the missionaries, whose zeal for imposing the name of Christians upon this people was fo vehement and even furious, were extremely indulgent in all other respects, and opposed their prejudices and vices with much gentleness and forbearance. They permitted them to retain several rites and observances that were in direct opposition to the spirit of Christianity, and to the nature of true piety. The truth of the matter feems to have been this, that the leading views of these Christian heralds,

> published in the fecond tome of the Monumenta inedita Cimbrica; p. 2344, and the Preface to this tome, p. 33. There is in this work a print of Vicelinus well engraven.

and propagators of the faith, a small number CENT. excepted, were rather turned towards the advance- XII. ment of their own interests, and the confirming and PARTI. extending the dominion of the Roman pontists, than towards the true conversion of these savage Pagans, that conversion which consists in the removal of ignorance, the correction of error, and the reformation of vice.

VII. A great revolution in Afiatic Tartary, which The state of borders upon Cathay, changed the face of things in affairs in that distant region about the commencement of this changes in century, and proved, by its effects, extremely bene-favour of the Christficial to the Christian cause. Towards the conclusion ians. of the preceding century, died Koiremchan, otherwise called Kenchan, the most powerful monarch that was known in the eastern regions of Afia; and while that mighty kingdom was deprived of its chief, it was invaded, with fuch uncommon valour and fuccess, by a Nestorian priest, whose name was John, that it fell before his victorious arms, and acknowledged this warlike and enterprising presbyter as its monarch. This was the famous PRESTER JOHN, whose territory was, for a long time, confidered by the Europeans as a fecond paradife, as the feat of opulence and complete felicity. As he was a presbyter before his elevation to the royal dignity, many continued to call him presbyter Fohn, even when he was feated on the throne [n];

[n] The account I have here given of this famous presbyter, commonly called Prester John, who was, for a long time, considered as the greatest and happiest of all earthly monarchs, is what appeared to me the most probable among the various relations that have been given of the life and adventures of that extraordinary man. This account is moreover consistent by the testimonies of cotemporary writers, whose knowledge and impartiality render them worthy of credit: such as William of Tripoli (see Dufresne's Adnot. ad vitam Ludovici Sti. à Joinvillio scriptam, p. 89.) as also a certain bishop of Gabala, mentioned by Otto Frising, Chronic. lib. vii. cap. xxxiii. See also Guillaume Rubruouis, Voyage, cap. xviii. p. 36. in the Antiqua Vol. III.

CENT. but his kingly name was UNGCHAN. The high XII. notions the Greeks and Latins generally entertained PART I of the grandeur and magnificence of this royal presbyter, were principally owing to the letters he wrote to the Roman emperor FREDERIC I. and to EMANUEL emperor of the Greeks, in which, pussed

in Afiam Itinera, collected by father BERGERON, and ALBERIC in Chronico. ad A. 1165 and 1170, in LEIBNITH Accessionibus Historicis, ton. ii. p. 345. 355. It is indeed furprising, that fuch authentic records as these should have escaped the observation of the learned, and that so many different opinions should have been advanced concerning PRESTER JOHN, and the place of his residence. But it is too generally the fate of learned men, to overlook those accounts that carry the plainest marks of evidence, and, from a passion for the marvellous, to plunge into the regions of uncertainty and doubt. In the fifteenth century, John II. king of Portugal, employed PEDRO COUVILLIANO in a laborious inquiry into the real fituation of the kingdom of PRESTER JOHN. The curious voyager undertook this talk, and, for information in the matter, travelled with a few companions into Abyssinia; and, observing in the emperor of the Abyssinians, or Ethiopians, many circumstances that resembled the accounts which, at that time, prevailed in Europe concerning PRESTER JOHN, he persuaded himself that he had fulfilled his commission, and found out the residence of that extraordinary monarch, who was the object of his refearches. His opinion gained easily credit in Europe, which had not as yet emerged out of its ignorance and barbarifm. See Morinus, De facris Ecclef. Ordinationibus, part II. p. 367. But a new light was cast upon this matter in the seventeenth century, by the publication of several pieces, which the industry of the curious drew forth from their obscurity, and by which a great number of learned men were engaged to abandon the Portuguese opinion, and were convinced that PRESTER JOHN reigned in Asia, though they still continued to dispute about the situation of his kingdom, and other particular circumstances. There are, notwithflanding all this, some men of the most eminent learning in our times, who maintain, that John was emperor of the Abyshnians, and thus prefer the Portuguese opinion, though destitute of authentic proofs and testimonies, to the other above mentioned, though supported by the strongest evidence, and the most unquestionable authorities. See Euseb. Renaudot, Hist. Patriarch. Alexandr. p. 223. 337 .- Jos. Franc. Latitau, Hist. des Decouvertes des Portugais. tom. i. p. 58. and tom. iii. p. 57 .- HENR. LE GRAND, Diff. de Johanne Presbytero in Lobe's Voyage de Abvssinie, tom. i. p. 295.

up with prosperity and flushed with success, he vaunts cent. his victories over the neighbouring nations that XII. disputed his passage to the throne, describes, in PART I. the most pompous and extravagant terms, the splendor of his riches, and the grandeur of his state, and the extent of his dominions, and exalts himfelf far above all other earthly monarchs. All this was cafily believed, and the Nestorians were extremely zealous in confirming the boafts of their vain-glorious prince. He was succeeded by his son, or, as others think, his brother, whose name was DAVID, though, in common discourse, he was also called PRESTER John, as his predecessor had been. The reign of DAVID was far from being happy, nor did he end his days in peace; GENGHIZ KAN, the great and warlike emperor of the Tartars, invaded his territories towards the conclusion of this century, and deprived him both of his life and his dominions.

VIII. The new kingdom of Jerusalem, which had The affairs been erected by the holy warriors of France towards of the Christians the conclusion of the preceding century, seemed to in Palestine flourish considerably at the beginning of this, and to in a declinrest upon firm and folid foundations. This prosperous scene was, however, but transitory, and was soon succeeded by the most terrible calamities and desolations. For when the Mahometans faw vast numbers of those that had engaged in this holy war returning into Europe, and the Christian chiefs that remained in Palestine divided into factions, and advancing, every one, his private interest, without any regard to the public good, they refumed their courage, recovered from the terror and consternation into which they had been thrown by the amazing valour and rapid fuccess of the European legions, and gathering troops and foliciting fuccours from all quarters, they harraffed and exhausted the Christians by invafions and wars without interruption. Christians, on the other hand, sustained their efforts with their usual fortitude, and maintained their

ZENGHI [0], after a long siege, made himself master of the city of Edessa, and threatened Antioch with the same fate, their courage began to fail, and a dissidence in their own strength obliged them to turn their eyes once more towards Europe. They accordingly implored, in the most lamentable strain, the assistance of the European princes; and requested that a new army of cross-bearing champions might be sent to support their tottering empire in the Holy land. Their entreaties were favourably received by the Roman pontists, who left no method of persuasion unemployed, that might engage the emperor and other Christian princes to execute a new expedition into Palestine.

The crufade renewed.

IX. This new expedition was not, however, refolved upon with fuch unanimity and precipitation as the former had been; it was the subject of long deliberation, and its expediency was keenly debated both in the cabinets of princes, and in the affemblies of the clergy and the people. BERNARD, the famous abbot of Clairval, a man of the boldest resolution and of the greatest authority, put an end to those disputes under the pontificate of Eugenius III. who had been his disciple, and who was wholly governed by his counsels. This eloquent and zealous ecclesiastic preached the cross, i. e. the crusade, in France and Germany, with great ardour and fuccess; and in the grand parliament affembled at Vezelai, A. D. 1146, at which Lewis VII. king of France, with his queen, and a prodigious concourse of the principal nobility were present, BERNARD recommended this holy expedition with fuch a perfuafive power,

^[0] Atabeck was a title of honour given by the Sultans to the viceroys or lieutenants, whom they intrusted with the government of their provinces. The Latin Authors, who have wrote the history of this holy war, and of whom Bongarsius has given us a complete list, call this Ataleck Zenghi, Sanguinus. See Herbelot, Billioth. Orient. at the word Atabeck, p. 142.

and declared with fuch affurance that he had a CENT. divine commission to foretel its glorious success, that the king, the queen, and all the nobles, immedi-PART I. ately put on the military cross, and prepared themfelves for the voyage into Palestine. Conrad III. emperor of Germany, was, for some time, unmoved by the exhortations of BERNARD; but he was foon gained over by the urgent folicitations of the fervent abbot, and followed, accordingly, the example of the French monarch. The two princes, each at the head of a numerous army, fet out for Palestine, to which they were to march by different roads. But, before their arrival in the Holy land, the greatest part of their forces were melted away, and perished miferably, fome by famine, fome by the fword of the Mahometans, fome by shipwreck, and a considerable number by the perfidious cruelty of the Greeks, who looked upon the western nations as more to be feared than the Mahometans themselves. LEWIS VII. left his kingdom A. D. 1147, and, in the month of March of the following year, he arrived at Antioch, with the wretched remains of his army, exhausted and dejected by the hardships they had endured. Conrad fet out also in the year 1147, in the month of May; and, in November following, he arrived at Nice, where he joined the French army, after having lost the greatest part of his own by calamities of various kinds. From Nice the two princes proceeded to ferufalem A. D. 1148, from whence they led back into Europe, the year following, the miferable handful of troops, which had furvived the difasters they met with in this expedition. Such was the unhappy iffue of this fecond crusade, which was rendered ineffectual by a variety of causes, but more particularly by the jealousies and divisions that reigned among the Christian chiefs in Palestine. Nor was it more ineffectual in Palestine than it was detrimental to Europe, by draining the wealth of its fairest provinces, and

CENT. destroying such a prodigious number of its inhabi-

tants [p]. XII. PART L

The kingrufilem overturned.

X. The unhappy iffue of this fecond expedition was not however fufficient, when considered alone, The king-dom of Je- to render the affairs of the Christians in Palestine entirely desperate. Had their chiefs and princes laid afide their animofities and contentions, and attacked the common enemy with their united force, they would have foon repaired their losses, and recovered their glory. But this was far from being the case. A fatal corruption of sentiments and manners reigned among all ranks and orders. Both the people and their leaders, and more especially the latter, abandoned themselves without reluctance to all the excesses of ambition, avarice, and injustice; they indulged themselves in the practice of all forts of vices; and by their intestine quarrels, jealousies, and discords, they weakened their efforts against the enemies that furrounded them on all fides, and confumed their strength by thus unhappily dividing it. SALADIN, viceroy, or rather fultan of Egypt and Syria [q], and the most valiant chief of whom the Mahometan annals boast, took advantage of these He waged war against the lamentable divisions. Christians with the utmost valour and success; took prisoner Guy of Lusignan, king of Jerusalem,

[g] SALADIN, so called by the western writers, SALAH'-ADDIN by the Orientals, was no longer vizir or viceroy of Egypt, when he undertook the fiege of Jerusalem, but had usurped the sovereign power in that country, and had also added to his dominions, by right of conquest, several provinces of Syria.

[[]p] Besides the historians enumerated by Bongareius, see MABILLON, Annal. Benedict. tom. vi. p. 399. 404. 407. 417. 451. JAC. GERVASII Histoire de l'Abbé Suger, tom. iii. p. 104. 128. 173. 190. 239. This was the famous Suger, abbot of St. Dennis, who had feconded the exhortations of BERNARD in favour of the crusade, and whom Lewis appointed regent of France during his absence. VERTOT, Histoire des Chevaliers de Malta, tom. i. p. 86. Joh. JAC. MASCOVIUS, De rebus imperii fub Conrado III.

in a fatal battle fought near Tiberias, A. D. 1187; CENT. and, in the course of the same year, reduced Jeru-XII. salem itself under his dominion [r]. The carnage PART I. and desolations that accompanied this dreadful campaign, threw the affairs of the Christians in the east into the most desperate condition, and lest them no glimpse of hope, but what arose from the expected succours of the European princes. The succours were obtained for them by the Roman pontists with much difficulty, and in consequence of repeated solicitations and entreaties. But the event, as we shall now see, was by no means answerable to the deep schemes that were concerted, and the pains that were employed, for the support of the tottering kingdom of Jerusalem.

XI. The third expedition was undertaken, A. D. A third 1189, by FREDERIC I. furnamed BARBAROSSA, dertaken.

emperor of Germany, who, with a prodigious army, marched through feveral Grecian provinces, where he had innumerable difficulties and obstacles to overcome, into the Lesser Asia, from whence, after having defeated the sultan of Iconium, he penetrated into Syria. His valour and conduct promised successful and glorious campaigns to the army he commanded, when, by an unhappy accident, he lost his life in the river Saleph [s], which runs through

[r] See the Life of Saladin, by Bohao'edin Ebn Sheddad, an Arabian writer, whose history of that warlike sultan was published at Leyden in the year 1732, by the late celebrated professor Albert Schultens, and accompanied with an excellent Latin translation. See also Herbelot, Biblioth. Orient. at the article Salah'addin, p. 742. and Mariany's Histoire des Arabes, tom. iv. p. 289. But above all, see the learned History of the Arabians in the Modern Part of the Universal History.

[s] Maimbourg, in his Histoire des Crusades, and Marigni, in his Hist. du xii Siecle, say, that Frederic perished in the Cydnus, a river in Cilicia. But they are easily to be reconciled with our author, since, according to the descriptions, given of the river Saleph by several learned geographers, and among others by Roger the Annalist, it appears that the Saleph and the

Eydnus were the same river under different names.

NII. With any degree of certainty; the loss however of PART I fuch an able chief dejected the spirits of his troops, so that considerable numbers of them returned into Europe. Those that remained continued the war under the command of FREDERIC, son of the deceased emperor; but the greatest part of them perished miserably by a pestilential disorder, which raged with prodigious violence in the camp, and swept off vast numbers every day. The new general died of this terrible disease, A. D. 1191; those that escaped

own country [t].

Its issue.

XII. The example of FREDERIC BARBAROSSA was followed, in the year 1190, by PHILIP Au-GUSTUS king of France, and lion-hearted RICHARD, king of England. These two monarchs set out from their respective dominions with a considerable number of thips of war, and transports $\lceil u \rceil$, arrived in Palestine in the year 1191, each at the head of a feparate army, and were pretty fuccessful in their first encounters with the infidels. After the reduction of the strong city of Accá, or Ptolemais, which had been defended by the Moslems with the most obstinate valour, the French monarch returned into Europe, in the month of July, 1191, leaving, however, behind him a confiderable part of the army which he had conducted into Palestine. After his departure, the king of England pushed the war with the greatest vigour, gave daily marks of his heroic intrepidity and military skill, and not only

its fury were dispersed, and few returned to their

[t] See an ample and fatisfactory account of this unhappy campaign in the Life of Frederic I. written in German by HENRY Count BUNAU, p. 278. 293. 309.

The learned authors of the Modern Univerfal History tell us, that PHILIP arrived in Palesline with a supply of men, money, &c. on board six skips, whereas Renaudot mentions 100 sail as employed in this expedition. The seet of Richard consisted of 150 large ships, besides galleys, &c.

defeated Saladin in several engagements, but also cent. made himself master of Y'affa [w] and Cæsarea. XII. Deserted, however, by the French and Italians, and influenced by other motives and considerations of the greatest weight, he concluded, A. D. 1192, with Saladin, a truce of three years, three months, and as many days, and soon evacuated Palestine with his whole army [x]. Such was the issue of the third expedition against the insidels, which exhausted England, France, and Germany, both of men and money, without bringing any solid advantage, or giving even a favourable turn, to the affairs of the Christians in the Holy land.

XIII. These bloody wars between the Christians Institution and the Mahometans gave rise to three famous mili-of the military orders, whose office it was to destroy the robbers of knightthat infested the public roads, to harrass the Moslems hood. by perpetual inroads and warlike atchievements, to affift the poor and fick pilgrims, whom the devotion of the times conducted to the holy sepulchre, and to perform feveral other fervices that tended to the general good [y]. The first of these orders was that of the knights of St. John of Jerusalem, who derived their name, and particularly that of Hospitallers, from an hospital dedicated, in that city, to St. John the Baptist, in which certain pious and charitable brethren were constantly employed in relieving and refreshing with necessary supplies the indigent and difeafed pilgrims, who were daily arriving at Jerusalem. When this city became the metropolis of a new kingdom, the revenues of the hospital were

[av] More commonly known by the name of Joppa.

[y] The writers, who have given the history of these three orders, are enumerated by Jo. ALB. FABRICIUS, Bibliograph.

Antiquar. p. 465. but his enumeration is not complete.

[[]x] Daniel, Histoire de France, tom. iii. p. 426.—RAPIN THOYRAS, Histoire d'Angleterre, tom. ii. See there the reign of RICHARD Caur de Lion.—MARIGNY, Histoire des Arabes, tom. iv. p. 285.

XII. princes, and the pious donations of fuch opulent PART I persons as frequented the boly places, that they far

PART I. persons as frequented the holy places, that they far furpaffed the wants of those whom they were defigned to cherish and relieve. Hence it was that RAYMOND DU PUY, who was the ruler of this charitable honse, offered to the king of Jerusalem to make war upon the Mahometans at his own expence, feconded by his brethren, who ferved under him in this famous hospital. BALDUIN II. to whom this propofal was made, accepted it readily, and the enterprise was folemnly approved of and confirmed by the authority of the Roman pontiff. Thus, all of a fudden, the world was furprifed with the strange transformation of a devout fraternity, who had lived remote from the noise and tumult of arms in the performance of works of charity and mercy, into a valiant and hardy band of warriors. The whole order was upon this occasion divided into three classes; the first contained the knights, or foldiers of illustrious birth, who were to unsheath their fwords in the Christian cause; in the second were comprehended the priests, who were to officiate in the churches that belonged to the order; and in the third, the ferving brethren, or the foldiers of low condition. This celebrated order gave, upon many occasions, eminent proofs of their resolution and valour, and acquired immenfe opulence by their heroic atchievements. When Palestine was irrecoverably loft, the knights passed into the isle of Cyprus; they afterwards made themselves masters of the ifle of Rhodes, where they maintained themselves for a long time; but being, at length, driven thence by the Turks, they received from the emperor CHARLES V. a grant of the island of Malta, where their chief, or grand commander, still resides [z].

[2] The best and the most recent history of this order is that which was composed by Vertor at the request of the knights of Mala; it was first published at Paris, and afterwards at

XIV. Another order, which was entirely of acent. military nature, was that of the knights templars, fo XII. called from a palace, adjoining to the temple of PART I. Ferusalem, which was appropriated to their use for Theknights a certain time by BALDUIN II. The foundations templars of this order were laid at Jerufalem, in the year 1118, by Hugues des Payens, Geoffry of St. ALDEMAR, or St. OMER, as fome will have it, and feven other persons whose names are unknown; but it was not before the year 1228, that it acquired a proper degree of stability, by being confirmed folemnly in the council of Troyes, and subjected to a rule of discipline drawn up by St. Bernard [a]. These warlike templars were to defend and support the cause of Christianity by force of arms, to have inspection over the public roads, and to protect the pilgrims, who came to visit Jerusalem, against the infults and barbarity of the Mahometans. order flourished for some time, and acquired, by the valour of its knights, immense riches and an eminent degree of military renown; but, as their prosperity increased, their vices were multiplied, and their arrogance, luxury, and inhuman cruelty rose at last to fuch a monstrous height, that their privileges were revoked, and their order suppressed with the most terrible circumstances of infamy and severity, by a decree of the pope and of the council of Vienne in Dauphiny, as we shall see in the history of the fourteenth century $\lceil b \rceil$.

Amsterdam, in sive volumes, 8vo. in the year 1732. See also HELYOT'S Hist. des Ordres, tom. iii. p. 72.

[[]a] See Mabillon, Annal. Benedia. tom. vi. p. 159.

[[]b] See MATTHEW PARIS, Histor. Major. p. 56. for an account of the commencement of this order. See also Putean, Histoire de l'Ordre Militaire des Templiers; which was republished, with considerable additions, at Brussels, in 4to. in the year 1751. Nic. Gurtleri Historia Templariorum Militum, Amstelodam. 1691. in 8vo.

CENT.

The Teuto-

XV. The third order refembled the first in this respect, that, though it was a military institution, the care of the poor and the relief of the fick were not excluded from the fervices it prescribed. members were distinguished by the title of Teutonic knights of St. Mary of Jerusalem; and as to its first rise, we cannot, with any degree of certainty, trace it farther back than the year 1190, during the fiege of Acca, or Ptolemais, though there are Historians adventurous enough to feek its origin (which they place at 'ferufalem') in a more remote period. During the long and tedious fiege of Acca, feveral pious and charitable merchants of Bremen and Lubec, touched with compassion at a fight of the miseries that the besiegers suffered in the midst of their success, devoted themselves entirely to the service of the sick and wounded foldiers, and erected a kind of hospital or tent, where they gave constant attendance to all fuch unhappy objects as had recourse to their charity. This pious undertaking was fo agreeable to the German princes, who were present at this terrible fiege, that they thought proper to form a fraternity of German knights to bring it to a greater degree of perfection. Their resolution was highly approved of by the Roman pontiff CELESTINE III. who confirmed the new order by a bull issued out the twentythird of February, A. D. 1192. This order was entirely appropriated to the Germans, and even of them none were admitted as members of it, but fuch as were of an illustrious birth. The support of Christianity, the defence of the Holy land, and the relief of the poor and needy, were the important duties and fervice to which the Teutonic knights devoted themselves by a solemn vow. Austerity and frugality were the first characteristics of this rifing order, and the equestrian garment $\lceil c \rceil$, with bread and water, were the only rewards which the

[[]c] This garment was a white mantle with a black cross-

knights derived from their generous labours. But CENT. as, according to the fate of human things, prosperity XII. engenders corruption, so it happened that this PART I. austerity was of a short duration, and diminished in proportion as the revenues and possessions of the order augmented. The Teutonic knights, after their retreat from Palestine, made themselves masters of Prussia, Livonia, Courland, and Semigallen; but, in process of time, their victorious arms received several checks, and when the light of the reformation arose upon Germany, they were deprived of the richest provinces which they possessed in that country; though they still retain there a certain portion of their ancient territories [d].

CHAPTER II.

Concerning the calamitous events that happened to the church during this century.

I. THE progress of Christianity in the The state of west had disarmed its most inveterate enemies, and the church deprived them of the power of doing much mischief, ern and though they still entertained the same aversion to northern the disciples of Jesus. The Jews and Pagans were no longer able to oppose the propagation of the

[d] See RAYMUNDI DUELLII Histor. Ord. Teutonici, published in solio at Vienna in 1727.—Petri Dusburg, Chronicon Prussia, published in 4to. at Jena, in the year 1679, by Christoph. Hartknochius.—Helyot, Hist. des Ordres, tom. iii. p. 140.—Chronicon Ordinis Teutonici in Anton. Matthæl Analedis veteris ævi, tom. v. p. 621. 658. ed. nov.—Privilegia Ordinis Teutonici in Petr. à Ludewig Reliquiis Manuscriptore tom. vi. p. 43.

CENT. gospel, or to oppress its ministers. Their malignity remained, but their credit and authority were gone. PART I. The Jews were accused by the Christians of various crimes, whether real or fictitious we shall not determine; but, instead of attacking their accusers, they were fatisfied to defend their own lives, and to secure their persons, without daring to give vent to their refentment. The state of things was somewhat different in the Northern provinces. The Pagans were yet numerous there in several districts, and wherever they were the majority, they perfecuted the Christians with the utmost barbarity, the most unrelenting and merciless fury [e]. It is true, the Christian kings and princes, who lived in the neighbourhood of these persecuting Barbarians, checked by degrees their impetuous rage, and never ceased

independency and their superstitions. Itsfufferings II. The writers of this century complain grievously in the east. of the inhuman rage with which the Saracens perfecuted the Christians in the east, nor can we question the truth of what they relate concerning this terrible perfecution. But they pass over in filence the principal reasons that inflamed the resentment of this fierce people, and voluntarily forget that the Christians were the first aggressors in this dreadful war. If we confider the matter with impartiality and candour, the conduct of the Saracens, however barbarous it may have been, will not appear fo furprising, particularly when we reflect on the provocations they received. In the first place, they had a right, by the laws of war, to repel, by force, the violent invasion of their country, and the

to harafs and weaken them by perpetual wars and

incursions, until, at length, they subdued them entirely, and deprived them, by force, both of their

[[]e] Helmold, Chronic. Sclavor. lib. i. cap. xxxiv. p. 88: eap. xxxv. p. 89. cap. xl. p. 99.—LINDENBROGII Scriptor. Septentrional. p. 195, 196. 201, PETRI LAMBECH Res Hamburg. lib. 1. p. 23.

Christians could not expect, without being chargeable CENT. with the most frontless impudence, that a people whom they attacked with a formidable army, and PART I. whom, in the fury of their misguided zeal, they massacred without mercy, should receive their insults with a tame submission, and give up their lives and possessions without resistance. It must also be confessed, though with forrow, that the Christians did not content themselves with making war upon the Mahometans in order to deliver Jerusalem and the holy sepulchre out of their hands, but carried their brutal fury to the greatest length, disgraced their cause by the most detestable crimes, filled the eastern provinces, through which they passed, with fcenes of horror, and made the Saracens feel the terrible effects of their violence and barbarity wherever their arms were successful. Is it then so furprifing to fee the infidel Saracens committing, by way of reprifal, the fame barbarities that the holy warriors had perpetrated without the least provocation? Is there any thing so new and so extraordinary in this, that a people naturally fierce, and exasperated, moreover, by the calamities of a religious war, carried on against them in contradiction to all the dictates of justice and humanity, should avenge themselves upon the Christians who resided in Palestine, as profeiling the religion which gave occasion to the war, and attached, of consequence, to the cause of their enemies and invaders?

III. The rapid and amazing victories of the great prefer John Genghizkan, emperor of the Tartars, gave an departs this unhappy turn to the affairs of the Christians in the northern parts of Asia, towards the conclusion of this century. This heroic prince, who was by birth a Mogul, and whose military exploits raise him in the list of same above almost all the commanders either of ancient or modern times, rendered his name formidable throughout all Asia, whose most flourishing dynasties fell successively before his victorious arms.

CENT. DAVID, or UNGCHAN, who, according to fome, was the fon, or, as others will have it, the brother, PART I. but who was certainly the fucceffor, of the famous PRESTER JOHN, and was himself so called in common discourse, was the first victim that GENGHIZKAN facrificed to his boundlefs ambition. He invaded his territory, and put to flight his troops in a bloody battle, where DAVID lost, at the same time, his kingdom and his life [f]. The princes, who governed the Turks, Indians, and the province of Cathay, fell, in their turn, before the victorious Tartar, and were all either put to death, or rendered tributary; nor did GENCHIZKAN stop here, but proceeding into Persia, India, and Arabia, he overturned the Saracen dominion in those regions, and fubstituted that of the Tartars in its place [g]. From this period the Christian cause lost much of its authority and credit in the provinces that had been ruled by PRESTER JOHN and his fuccessor DAVID, and continued to decline and lose ground from day to day, until, at length, it funk entirely

[f] The Greek, Latin, and Oriental writers are far from being agreed concerning the year in which the emperor of the Tartars attacked and defeated Prester John. The most of the Latin writers place this event in the year 1202, and consequently in the xiith century. But Marcus Paulus Venetus (in his book De Regionibus Orientalibus, lib. i. cap. li, lii, liii.) and other historians, whose accounts I have followed as the most probable, place the defeat of this second Prester John in the year 1187. The learned and illustrious Demetrius Cantemir (in his Prass. ad Histor. imperii Ottomanici, p. 45. tom. i. of the French edition) gives an account of this matter different from the two now mentioned, and assirms, upon the authority of the Arabian writers, that Genghizkan did not invade the territories of his neighbours before the year 1214.

[g] See Petit de la Croix, Histoire de Genghizkan, p. 120, 121. published in 12mo. at Paris in the year 1711. Herbelot, Biblioth. Oriental. at the article Genghizkan, p. 378.—Assemanni Biblioth. Oriental. Vatican. tom. iii. part I. p. 101, and 295.—Jean du Plan Carpin, Voyage en Tartarie, ch. v. in the Recueil des Voyages au Nord, tom. vii. p. 350.

under the weight of oppression, and was succeeded CENT. in some places by the errors of Mahomet, and in KII. others by the superstitions of paganism. We must Part Lexcept, however, in this general account, the kingdom of Tangut, the chief residence of Prester John, in which his posterity, who persevered in the profession of Christianity, maintained, for a long time, a certain fort of tributary dominion, which exhibited, indeed, but a faint shadow of their former grandeur [h].

[b] Assemanni Biblioth. Oriental. Vatican. tom. iii. part II. p. 500.

Vol. III.

PART H.

The INTERNAL HISTORY of the CHURCH

CHAPTER I.

Concerning the state of letters and philosophy during this century.

I. NOTWITHSTANDING the decline of CENT. the Grecian empire, the calamities in which it was XII. PART II. frequently involved, and the perpetual revolutions and civil wars that confumed its strength and were precipitating its ruin, the arts and fciences still among the flourished in Greece, and covered with glory such as Greeks. cultivated them with affiduity and fuccess. was owing, not only to the liberality of the emperors, and to the extraordinary zeal which the family of the Comnent discovered for the advancement of learning, but also to the provident vigilance of the patriarchs of Constantinople, who took all possible measures to prevent the clergy from falling into ignorance and floth, left the Greek church should thus be deprived of able champions to defend its cause against the Latins. The learned and ingenious commentaries of Eustathius, bishop of Thessalonica, upon Homer, and Dionysius the Geographer, are fufficient to shew the diligence and labour that were employed by men of the first genius in the improvement of classical erudition and in the study of antiquity. And if we turn our view towards the various writers who composed in this century the history of their own times, such as CINNAMUS,

GLYCAS, ZONARAS, NICEPHORUS, BRYENNIUS, CENT. and others, we shall find in their productions un- XII. doubted marks of learning and genius, as well as of PART II. a laudable ambition to obtain the esteem and approbation of future ages.

II. Nothing could equal the zeal and enthufiasm The state of with which MICHAEL ANCHIALUS, patriarch of philosophy. Constantinople, encouraged the study of philosophy by his munificence, and still more by the extraordinary influence of his illustrious example $\lceil a \rceil$. feems, however, to have been the Aristotelian philofophy that was favoured in fuch a diftinguished manner by this eminent prelate; and it was in the illustration and improvement of this profound and intricate fystem that such of the Greeks, as had a philofophical turn, were principally employed, as appears evident from several remains of ancient erudition, and particularly from the commentaries of EUSTRA-Tius upon the ethics and other treatifes of the Grecian fage. We are not, however, to imagine that the sublime wisdom of PLATO was neglected in this century, or that his doctrines were fallen into difrepute. It appears, on the contrary, that they were adopted by many. Such, more especially, as had imbibed the precepts and spirit of the Mystics, preferred them infinitely before the Peripatetic philofophy, which they confidered as an endless fource of fophistry and presumption, while they looked upon the Platonic fystem as the philosophy of reason and piety, of candour and virtue. This diversity of fentiments produced the famous controversy, which was managed with fuch vehemence and erudition among the Greeks, concerning the respective merit and excellence of the Peripatetic and Platonic doctrines.

[[]a] Theodorus Balsamon, Præf. ad Pholii Nomocanonem in Henr. Justelli Bibliotheca juris canonici veteris, tom. ii. p. 814.

III. In the western world, the pursuit of know-

The state of learning

Latins.

CENT.

XII.

ledge was now carried on with incredible emulation PART II. and ardour, and all the various branches of science were studied with the greatest application and industry. This literary enthusiasm was encouraged and among the supported by the influence and liberality of certain of the European monarchs, and Roman pontiffs, who perceived the happy tendency of the sciences to foften the favage manners of uncivilized nations, and thereby to administer an additional support to civil government, as well as an ornament to human fociety. Hence learned focieties were formed, and colleges established in several places, in which the liberal arts and sciences were publicly taught. The prodigious concourse of students, who resorted thither for instruction, occasioned, in process of time, the enlargement of these schools, which had arisen from small beginnings, and their erection into suniversities, as they were called, in the succeeding age. The principal cities of Europe were adorned with establishments of this kind; but Paris surpassed them all in the number and variety of its schools, the merit and reputation of its public teachers, and the immense multitude of the studious youth that frequented their colleges. And thus was exhibited in that famous city the model of our prefent schools of learning; a model indeed defective in several respects, but which, in after-times, was corrected and improved, and brought gradually to higher degrees of perfection [b]. About the same time the famous school of Angers, in which the youth were instructed in various sciences, and particularly and principally in the civil law, was founded by the zeal and industry of ULGERIUS, bishop of that

[[]b] DE BOULAY, Hift. Acad. Parif. tom. ii. p. 463.—Pas-Quier, Recherches de la France, livr. iii. ch. xxix.—Petri LAMBECH Hiftor. Biblioth. Vindebon. lib. ii. cap. v. p. 260 .--Histoire Litter. de la France, tom. ix. p. 60-80.

city $\lceil c \rceil$, and the college of *Montpelier*, where law and cent. physic were taught with great fuccess, had already acquired a confiderable reputation [d]. The fame P_{ART} II. literary spirit reigned also in *Italy*. The academy of Bolonia, whose origin may certainly be traced higher than this century, was now in the highest renown, and was frequented by great numbers of students, and of fuch more especially as were desirous of being instructed in the civil and canon laws. The fame of this academy was, in a great measure, owing to the munificence of the emperor Lotharius II. who took it under his protection, and enriched it with new privileges and immunities $\lceil e \rceil$. In the fame province flourished also the celebrated school of Salernum, where great numbers reforted, and which was wholly fet apart for the study of physic. While this zealous emulation, in advancing the cause of learning and philosophy, animated so many princes and prelates, and discovered itself in the erection of fo many academies and schools of learning,

[c] Boulay, Histor. Acad. Paris. tom. ii. p. 215.—Pasquet de la Livoniere Dissert. sur l'Antiquité de l'Université d'Angers, p. 21. published in 4to. at Angers, 1736.

[d] Histoire Gen. de Languedoc, par les Benedictins, tom. ii.

p. 517. [c] The inhabitants of Bolonia pretend, that their academy was founded in the fifth century by Theodosius II. and they shew the diploma by which that emperor enriched their city with this valuable establishment. But the greatest part of those writers, who have studied with attention and impartiality the records of ancient times, maintain, that this diploma is a spurious production, and allege many weighty arguments to prove that the academy of Bolonia is of no older date than the eleventh century, and that in the fucceeding age, particularly from the time of LOTHARIUS II. it received those improvements that rendered it so famous throughout all Europe. See CAR. SIGONII Historia Bononiensis, as it is published, with learned observations, in the works of that excellent author. Muratori Antiq. Italic. medii evi, toni. iii. p. 23. 884. 898.—Just. Hen. Bohmeri Praf. ad Corpus juris ad Canon. p. 9. as also the elegant History of the Academy of Bolonia, written in the German language by the learned Keufelius, and published at Helmsladt in 8vo in the year 1750.

xII. also with this noble enthusiasm. In a council held at Rome, A. D. 1179, he caused a solemn law to be published, for the erecting new schools in the monasteries and cathedrals, and restoring to their primitive lustre those which, through the sloth and ignorance of the monks and bishops, had fallen into ruin [f]. But the effect which this law was intended to produce was prevented by the growing same of the new erected academies, to which the youth resorted from all parts, and left the episcopal and monastic schools entirely empty; so that they gradually declined, and sunk, at last, into a total oblivion.

A new division of fciences.

IV. Many were the fignal advantages that attended these literary establishments; and what is particularly worthy of notice, they not only rendered knowledge more universal by facilitating the means of instruction, but were also the occasion of forming a new circle of sciences, better digested, and much more comprehensive than that which had been hitherto studied by the greatest adepts in learning. The whole extent of learning and philosophy, before this period, was confined to the feven liberal arts, as they were commonly called, of which three were known by the name of the trivium, which comprehended grammar, rhetoric, and logic; and the other four by the title of quadrivium, which included arithmetic, music, geometry, and astronomy. greatest part of the learned, as we have formerly observed, were satisfied with their literary acquifitions, when they had made themselves masters of the trivium, while fuch as, with an adventurous flight, aspired after the quadrivium, were considered as stars of the first magnitude, as the great luminaries of the learned world. But in this century the aspect of letters underwent a considerable and an

[f] See B. Bohmeri Jus Ecclef. Protestant. tom. iv. p. 705.

advantageous change. The number of the liberal CENT. arts and fciences was augmented, and new and unfrequented paths of knowledge were opened to PARTH. the emulation of the studious youth. Theology was placed in the number of the sciences; not that ancient theology which had no merit but its fimplicity, and which was drawn, without the least order or connexion, from divers paffages of the holy fcriptures, and from the opinions and inventions of the primitive doctors, but that philosophical or scholastic theology, that with the deepest abstraction traced divine truth to its first principles, and followed it from thence into its various connexions and branches. Nor was theology alone added to the ancient circle of sciences; the study of the learned languages, of the civil and canon law, and of physic [g], were now brought into high repute. Particular academies were confecrated to the culture of each of these sciences in various places; and thus it was natural to consider them as important branches of erudition, and an acquaintance with them as a qualification necessary to such as aimed at universal learning. All this required a confiderable change in the division of the sciences hitherto received; and this change was accordingly brought about. The feven liberal arts were, by degrees, reduced to one general title, and were comprehended under the name of philofophy, to which theology, jurisprudence, and physic, were added. And hence the origin of the four classes of science, or, to use the academical phrase, of the four faculties, which took place in the univerfities in the following cenutry.

V. A happy and unexpected event restored in Italy Thessudy of the lustre and authority of the ancient Roman law, Roman law revived.

If [g] The word physica, though, according to its etymology, it denotes the study of natural philosophy in general, was, in the twelfth century, applied particularly to medical studies, and it has also preserved that limited sense in the English language.

CENT. and, at the fame time, leffened the credit of all the XII. other systems of legislation that had been received PART II. for several ages past. This event was the discovery of the original manuscript of the famous Pandect of Instrument, which was found in the ruins of

JUSTINIAN, which was found in the ruins of Amalphi, or Melfi, when that city was taken by LOTHARIUS II. in the year 1137, and of which that emperor made a present to the inhabitants of Pisa, whose fleet had contributed, in a particular manner, to the fuccess of the siege. This admirable collection, which had been almost buried in oblivion, was no fooner recovered, than the Roman law became the grand object of the studies and labours of the learned. In the academy of Bolonia, there were particular colleges erected expressly for the study of the Roman jurisprudence; and these excellent institutions were multiplied in feveral parts of Italy in process of time, and animated other European nations to imitate fo wife an example. Hence arose a great revolution in the public tribunals, and an entire change in their judicial proceedings. Hitherto different fystems of law were followed in different courts, and every person of distinction, particularly among the Franks, had the liberty of choosing the body of laws that was to be the rule of his conduct. But the Roman law acquired fuch credit and authority, that it superseded, by degrees, all other laws in the greatest part of Europe, and was substituted in the place of the Salic, Lombard, and Burgundian codes, which before this period were in the highest reputation. It is an ancient opinion. that LOTHARIUS II. purfuant to the counsels and folicitations of IRNERIUS [b], principal professor of the Roman law in the academy of Bolonia, published an edict enjoining the abrogation of all the statutes then in force, and fubflituting in their place the Roman law, by which, for the future, all without

exception were to modify their contracts, terminate CENT. their differences, and to regulate their actions. But XII. this opinion, as many learned men have abundantly PARTIL proved [i], is far from being supported by sufficient evidence.

VI. No fooner was the civil law placed in the Ecclefiaffinumber of the sciences, and considered as an im-cal or canon portant branch of academical learning, than the Roman pontiffs, and their zealous adherents, judged it not only expedient, but also highly necessary, that the canon law should have the same privilege. There were not wanting before this time certain collections of the canons or laws of the church; but these collections were fo destitute of order and method, and were fo defective both in respect to matter and form, that they could not be conveniently explained in the schools, or be made use of as systems of ecclesiastical polity. Hence it was, that GRATIAN, a Benedictine monk, belonging to the convent of St. FELIX and NABOR at Bolonia, and by birth a Tuscan, composed about the year 1130, for the use of the schools, an abridgment, or Epitome of canon law, drawn from the letters of the pontiffs, the decrees of councils, and the writings of the ancient doctors. Pope Eugenius III. was extremely fatisfied with this work, which was also received with the highest applause by the doctors and professors of Bolonia, and was unanimously adopted, as the

[[]i] See HERM. CONRINGIUS, De origine juris Germanici, cap. XXII.—GUIDO GRAGDUS, Epift. de Pandectis, p. 21. 69. published at Florence, in 4to, in 1737.—HENRY BRENCMANN, Historia Pandectar. p. 41.—Lud. Ant. Muratori Praf. ad Leges Langobardicas, scriptor. rerum Italicar. tom. i. part II. p. 4. & Antiq. Ital. medii avi, tom. ii. p. 285. There was a warm controversy carried on concerning this matter between George Callixtus and Barthol. Nihusius, the latter of whom embraced the vulgar opinion concerning the edict of Lotharius, obtained by the solicitations of Irnerius; of this controversy there is a circumstantial account in the Cimbria Literata of Molerius, tom. iii. p. 142.

CENT. text they were to follow in their public lectures, The professors at *Paris* were the first that followed XII.

PART I the example of those of Bolonia, which, in process of time, was imitated by the greatest part of the European colleges. But, notwithstanding encomiums bestowed upon this performance, which was commonly called the decretal of GRATIAN $\lceil k \rceil$, and was entitled by the author himself, the re-union or coalition of the jarring canons [1], feveral most learned and eminent writers of the Romish communion acknowledge, that it is full of errors and defects of various kinds $\lceil m \rceil$. As, however, the main defign of this abridgment of the canons was to support the despotism, and to extend the authority of the Roman pontifis, its innumerable desects were overlooked; its merits were exaggerated; and, what is still more furprifing, it enjoys at this day, in an age of light and liberty, that high degree of veneration and authority, which was inconfiderately, though more excufably, lavished upon it in an age of tyranny, fuperstition, and darkness $\lceil n \rceil$.

Fk] Decretum GRATIANI.

[1] Concordia Discordantium Ganonum.

m See, among others, Anton. Augustinus, De Emendatione GRATIANI, published in 8vo. at Arnhem, A. D. 1678, with the learned observations of Steph. Baluzius and Ger. a MASTRICHT.

[n] See Gerhard, a Mastricht, Historia juris Ecclesiastici, \$ 293. p. 325.—B. Just. Hen. Bohmeri Juf. Ecclef. Proteftant, tom. i. p. 100. and more particularly the learned Preface, with which this last-mentioned author enriched the new edition of the Canon Law, published at Hal, in 4to, in the year 1747. See also ALEX. MACHIAVELLI Observationes ad Sigonii Histor. Bononiensem, tom. iii. Oper. Sigonii, p. 128. This writer has drawn from the Kalendarium Archigymnessii Bononiensis, several particularities concerning GRATIAN and his work, which were generally unknown, but whose truth is also much disputed. What increases the suspicion of their being subulous is, that this famous Kalendar, of which the Bolonians boast so much, and which they have so often promised to publish in order to dispel the doubts of the learned, has never as yet feen the light. in the fragments that have appeared, there are manifest marks of unfair dealing.

VII. Such among the Latins as were ambitious of CENT. making a figure in the republic of letters, applied x11. themselves, with the utmost zeal and diligence, to PART II. the study of philosophy. Philosophy, taken in its The state of most extensive and general meaning, comprehended, Philosophy according to the method which was the most univer-among the fally received towards the middle of this century, Latins. four classes; it was divided into theoretical, practical, mechanical, and logical. The first class comprehended natural theology, mathematics, and natural philosophy. In the fecond class were ranked ethics, aconomics, and politics. The third contained the feven arts that are more immediately subservient to the purposes of life, fuch as navigation, agriculture, bunting, &c. The fourth was divided into grammar and composition, the latter of which was farther subdivided into rhetoric, dialectic, and fophistry; and under the term dialectic was comprehended that part of metaphyfic which treats of general notions. This division was almost universally adopted. Some, indeed, were for separating grammar and mechanics from philosophy; a separation highly condemned by others, who, under the general term philosophy, comprehended the whole circle of the sciences [o].

VIII. The learned, who treated these different Dissensions branches of science, were divided into various among the factions, which attacked each other with the utmost philosophic animosity and bitterness [p]. There were, at this time, three methods of teaching philosophy that were practised by the different doctors. The first was, the ancient and plain method, which confined

[0] These literary anecdotes I have taken from several writers, particularly from Hugo a St. Victor, Didascali Libro ii. cap. ii. p. 7. tom. i. opp. and from the Metalogicum of John of

Salifoury.

[p] See Godof. de St. Victor Carmen de Sellis Philosoph. published by LE Boeuf, in his Diff. fur l' Histoire Ecclesiast. et Civile de Paris. tom. ii. p. 254.—Boulay, Hist. Acad. Paris. tom. ii. p. 562.—Ant. Wood, Antiq. Oxoniens. tom. i. p. 51.—Jo. Sarisburiensis Metalog. et Policrat. passim.

CENT. its refearches to the philosophical notions of Por-PHYRY, and the dialectic system, commonly attributed PART II. to St. AUGUSTINE, and in which was laid down this general rule, that philosophical inquiries were to be limited to a fmall number of fubjects, left, by their becoming too extensive, religion might suffer by a profane mixture of human fubtility with its divine wisdom. The fecond method was called the Aristotelian, because it consisted in explications of the works of that philosopher $\lceil q \rceil$, feveral of whose books, being translated into Latin, were now almost every where in the hands of the learned. These translations were, indeed, extremely obscure and incorrect, and led those who made use of them in their academical lectures, into various blunders, and often into notions, which were not more abfurd than whimfical and fingular. The third was termed the free method, employed by fuch as were bold enough to fearch after truth, in the manner they thought the most adapted to render their inquiries successful, and who followed the bent of their own genius, without rejecting, however, the fuccours of ARISTOTLE and PLATO. Laudable as this method was, it became an abundant fource of fophistry and chicane, by the imprudent management of those that employed it; for these subtle doctors, through a wanton indulgence of their metaphyfical fancies, did little more than puzzle their disciples with vain

[q] Rob. De Monte, Append. ad Sigebertum Gemblacens. published by Luc. Dacherius, among the works of Guibert, abbot of Nogent, ad A. 1128, p. 753. Jacobus Clericus de Venecia transsulit de Graco in Latinum quosalam libros Aristotelis et comentatus est, scilicet Topica, Annal. priores et posseriores et elenchos. Quamvis antiquior translatio super eosdem libros haberetur. Thom. Becket, Epislolar. lib. ii. ep. xciii. p. 454. edit. Bruxell. 1682, in 4to. Itero preces, quatenus libros Aristotelis, quos habetis, mihi faciatis exscribi... Precor etiam iterata supplicatione quatenus in operibus Aristotelis, ubi dissiciliora fuerint, notulas faciatis, eo quod interpretem aliquatenus suspetum habeo, quia licet eloquens fuerit elias, ut sape audivi, minus tamen suit in grammatica institutus.

questions, and satigue them with endless distinctions CENT. and divisions [r]. These different systems, and XII. vehement contests that divided the philosophers, PART II. gave many persons a disgust against philosophy in general, and made them desire, with impatience, its banishment from the public schools.

IX. Of all the controversies that divided the The conphilosophers in this century, there were none carried tests of the Dialecticion with greater animosity, and treated with greater ans, Realists, subtilty and refinement, than the contests of the and Nominalists concerning universals. These sophistical described described described described about the intricate questions relating to genus and species, to the solution of which they directed all their philosophical efforts, and the whole course of their metaphysical studies; but not all in the same method, nor upon the same principles [s]. The two leading sects into which they had been divided long before this period, and which were distinguished by the titles of Realists and Nominalists, not only subsisted still, but were

[r] See Jo. SARISBURIENSIS Policrat. p. 434. et Aletalog. p.

814, &c.

[s] JOHN of Salisbury, a very elegant and ingenious writer of this age, cenfures, with a good deal of wit, the crude and unintelligible speculations of these sophists, in his book entitled, Policraticon seu de Nugis Curialium, lib. vii. p. 451. He observes, that there had been more time confumed in refolving the question relating to genus and species, than the Casars had employed in making themselves masters of the whole world; that the riches of Croesus were inferior to the treasures that had been exhausted in this controversy; and that the contending parties, after having fpent their whole lives upon this fingle point, had neither been fo happy as to determine it to their fatisfaction, nor to make, in the labyrinths of science where they had been groping, any discovery that was worth the pains they had taken. His words are: Veterem paratus est solvere questionem de generibus et speciebus (he speaks here of a certain philosopher) in qua laborans mundus jam senuit, in qua plus temporis consumptum est, quam in acquirendo et regendo orbis imperio confumpferit Cæfarea domus: plus etfusum pecunia, quam in omnibus divitiis suis possederit Crassus. Hac enim tam din multos tenuit, ut cum hoc unum tota vita quarerent, tandem nec istud, nec aliud invenirent.

The Nominalists, though they had their followers, were nevertheless much inferior to the Realists both with respect to the number of their disciples, and to the credit and reputation of their doctrine. A third sect arose under the name of Formalists, who pretended to terminate the controversy, by steering a middle course between the two jarring systems now mentioned; but, as the hypothesis of these new doctors was most obscure and unintelligible, they only perplexed matters more than they had hitherto been, and furnished new subjects of contention and dispute [t].

[t] See the above-cited author's Policrat. lib. vii. p. 451. where he gives a succinct account of the Formalists, Realists, and Nominalists in the following words: Sunt qui more mathematicorum FORMAS abstrahunt, et ad illas quicquid de universalibus dicitur referent. Such were the Formalists, who applied the doctring of universal ideas to what the mathematicians call abstract forms. Alii discutiunt INTELLECTUS et eos universalium nominibus censeri confirmant. Here we find the Realists pointed out, who, under the name of univerfals, comprehended all intellectual powers, qualities, and ideas. Fuerunt et qui voces ipsas genera dicerent et species: sed eorum jam enplosa sententia est et facile cum autore suo evanuit. Sunt tamen adhuc, qui deprehenduntur in vestigiis eorum, licet erubescant vel auctorem vel scientiam profiteri, solis nominibus, inharentes, quod rebus et intellectibus subtrahunt, sermonieus This was a fect of the Noninalists, who, ashamed (as this author alleges) to profess the exploded doctrine of Roscel-LINUS, which placed genus and species in the class of mere words or fimple denominations, modified that system by a slight change of expression only, which did not essentially distinguish their doctrine from that of the ordinary Nominalifts. It appears from all this, that the fect of the Formalifts is of more ancient date than John Duns Scotus, whom many learned men confider as its founder. See Jo. SARISBUR. Metalogic. lib. ii. cap. xvii. p. \$14. where that eminent author describes at large the various contests of these three sects, and sums up their differences in the following words: Alius consistit in vocibus, licet hac opinio cum Roscellino suo fere jam evanuerit: alius sermones intuetur; alius versatur in intellectibus, &c.

Those among the learned, who turned their pur-CENT. suits to more interesting and beneficial branches of XII. science, than the intricate and puzzling doctrine of PART II. universals, travelled into the different countries, where the kinds of knowledge they were bent upon cultivating, slourished most. The students of physic, astronomy, and mathematics, continued to frequent the schools of the Saracens in Spain. Many of the learned productions of the Arabians were also translated into Latin [u]; for the high esteem in which the erudition of that people was held, together with a desire of converting the Spanish Saracens to Christianity, had excited many to study their language, and to acquire a considerable knowledge of their doctrine.

[u] GERHARD of Cremona, who was so famous among the Italians for his eminent skill in astronomy and physic, undertook a voyage to Toledo, where he translated into Latin feveral Arabian treatises; see Muratori Antiq. Ital. medii ævi, tom. iii. p. 936, 937.-MIRMET, a French monk, travelled into Spain and Africa, to learn geography among the Saracens. See Luc. DACHERII Spicilegium vet. scriptor. tom. ix. p. 443. ed. Antiq .-DANIEL MORLACH, an Englishman, who was extremely fond of mathematical learning, went a journey to Toledo, from whence he brought into his own country a considerable number of Arabian books; Ant. Wood, Antiquit. Oxon. tom. i. p. 55.-Perer, abbot of Clugni, furnamed the Venerable, after having fojourned for fome time among the Spaniards, in order to make himself master of the Arabian language, translated into Latin, the Alcoran, and the Life of Mahomet; fee MABILLON, Annal. Bened. tom. vi. lib. lxxvii. p. 345. This eminent ecclefiastic, as appears from the Bibliotheca Čluniacensis, p. 1169. found, upon his arrival in Spain, persons of learning from England and other nations, who applied themselves with extraordinary assiduity and ardour to the study of astrology. We might multiply the examples of those who travelled in quest of science during this century; but those now alleged are sufficient for our purpose.

CHAPTER II.

Concerning the doctors and ministers of the church, and its form of government, during this century.

I. W HEREVER we turn our eyes among CENT. the various ranks and orders of the clergy, we per-XII. PART II. ceive, in this century, the most flagrant marks of -licentioufness and fraud, ignorance and luxury, and The lives other vices, whose pernicious effects were deeply and manners of the felt both in church and state. If we except a very fmall number, who retained a fense of the fanctity of their vocation, and lamented the corruption and clergy. degeneracy of their order, it may be faid, with respect to the rest, that their whole business was to fatisfy their lusts, to multiply their privileges by grasping perpetually at new honours and distinctions, to increase their opulence, to diminish the authority, and to encroach upon the privileges of princes and magistrates, and, neglecting entirely the interests of religion and the cure of fouls, to live in eafe and pleafure, and draw out their days in an unmanly and luxurious indolence. This appears manifestly from two remarkable treatifes of St. BERNARD, in one of which he exposes the corruption of the pontiffs and bishops [w], while he describes in the other the enormous crimes of the monastic orders, whose licentiousness he chastises with a just severity $\lceil x \rceil$.

[w] In the work entitled, Confiderationum Libri v. ad Eugenium Pentificem.

[x] See his defence of the crusades, under the title of Apologia ad Gulielmum Abbatem; as also Gerhohus, De corrupto Ecclesiae Statu, in Baluzii Miscell. tom. v. p. 63.—Gallia Christiana, tom. i. p. 6. App. tom. ii. p. 265. 273, &c. Boulay, Histor. Academ. Paris. tom. ii. p. 490. 690.

II. The Roman pontiffs, who were placed fuccef-CENT. fively at the head of the church, governed that spiri- x11. tual and mystical body by the maxims of worldly PART II. ambition, and thereby fomented the warm contest Thepontiss that had already arisen between the imperial and ambitiousto facerdotal powers. On the one hand, the popes extend their not only maintained the opulence and authority they authority. had already acquired, but extended their views farther, and laboured strenuously to enlarge both, though they had not all equal fuccess in this ambitious attempt. The European emperors and princes, on the other hand, alarmed at the strides which the pontiffs were making to universal dominion, used their utmost efforts to disconcert their measures, and to check their growing opulence and power. These violent diffensions between the empire and the priestbood (for so the contending parties were styled in this century) were most unhappy in their effects, which were felt throughout all the European provinces. PASCAL II. who had been raifed to the pontificate about the conclusion of the preceding age, feemed now to fit firm and fecure in the apostolic chair, without the least apprehension from the imperial faction, whose affairs had taken an unfavourable turn, and who had not the courage to elect a new pope of their party in the place of Guibert, who died in the year 1100 [y].

Pascal, therefore, unwilling to let pass unim-The dispute proved the present success of the papal faction, concerning investitures renewed, in a council assembled at Rome, A. D. is somented 1102, the decrees of his predecessors against investance.

Vol. III.

TEDORIC and MAGNULF were fuccessively chosen after Albert, but could not support for any time their claim to the pontificate. See Fleury, Hist. Eccles. livr. lxv. vol. xiv. p. 10. Brussles edition in 8vo.

PAR II.

CENT. fitures, and the excommunications they had thundered out against HENRY IV. and used his most vigorous endeavours to raife up on all fides new enemies to that unfortunate emperor. Henry, however, opposed, with great constancy and resolution, the efforts of this violent pontiff, and eluded with much dexterity and vigilance his perfidious stratagems. But his heart, wounded in the tenderest part, lost all its firmness and courage, when, in the year 1106, an unnatural fon, under the impious pretext of religion, took up arms against his person and his cause. Henry V. so was this monster afterwards named, feized his father in a most treacherous manner, and obliged him to abdicate the empire; after which the unhappy prince retired to Liege, where, deferted by all his adherents, he departed this life, and so got rid of his misery, in the year 1106. It has been a matter of dispute, whether it was the instigation of the pontiff, or the ambitious and impatient thirst after dominion, that engaged Henry V. to declare war against his father; nor is it, perhaps, eafy to decide this question with a perfect degree of evidence. One thing, however, is unquestionably certain, and that is, that PASCAL II. diffolved, or rather impiously pretended to diffolve, the oath of fidelity and obedience that HENRY had taken to his father; and not only fo, but adopted the cause and supported the interests of this unnatural rebel with the utmost zeal, assiduity, and fervour [z].

The prodebate.

III. The revolution that this odious rebellion grefs of this caused in the empire, was, however, much less favourable to the views of PASCAL than that lordly pontiff expected. HENRY V. could by no means be perfuaded to renounce his right of investing the

^[2] These accounts are drawn from the most authentic sources, and also from the eminent writers, whose authority I made use of, and whose names I mentioned, in that part of the preceding century that corresponds with the subject here treated.

bishops and abbots, though he was willing to grant CENT. the right of election to the canons and monks, as was x11. usual before his time. Upon this the exasperated PARTH. pontiff renewed, in the councils of Guastalla and Troyers, the decrees that had so often been issued out against investitures, and the flame broke our with new force. It was, indeed, suspended during a few years, by the wars in which HENRY V. was engaged, and which prevented his bringing the matter to an issue. But no sooner had he made peace with his enemies, and composed the tumults that troubled the tranquillity of the empire, than he fet out for Italy with a formidable army, A. D. 1110, in order to put an end to this long and unhappy contest. He advanced towards Rome by flow marches, while the trembling pontiff, feeing himfelf destitute of all fuccour, and reduced to the lowest and most defenceless condition, proposed to him the following conditions of peace: That he, on the one hand, should renounce the right of investing with the ring and crosser; and that the bishops and abbots should, on the other hand, refign and give over to the emperor all the grants they had received from CHARLEMAGNE, of those rights and privileges that belong to royalty, fuch as the power of raising tribute, coining money, and possessing independent lands and territories, with other immunities of a like nature. These conditions were agreeable to HENRY, who accordingly gave a formal confent to them in the year 1111; but they were extremely displeasing to the Italian and German bishops, who expressed their diffent in the strongest terms. Hence a terrible tumult arose in the church of St. Peter, where the contending parties were affembled with their respective followers; upon which HENRY ordered the pope to be feized, and to be confined in the castle of Viterbo. After having lain there for some time, the captive pontiff was engaged, by the unhappy circumstances of his present condition, to

CENT. enter into a new convention, by which he folemnly receded from the article of the former treaty that PART II. regarded investitures, and confirmed to the emperor the privilege of inaugurating the bishops and abbots with the ring and crosser. Thus was the peace concluded, in confequence of which the vanguished pontiff arrayed Henry with the imperial diadem

Pafeal convention, and dies.

[a]. IV. This transitory peace, which was the fruit of breaks this violence and necessity, was followed by greater tumults and more dreadful wars, than had yet afflicted the church. Immediately after the conclusion of this treaty, Rome was filled with the most vehement commotions, and a universal cry was raifed against the pontiss, who was accused of having violated, in a scandalous manner, the duties and dignity of his station, and of having prostituted the majesty of the church by his ignominious compliance with the demands of the emperor. To appeale these commotions, PASCAL affembled, in the year 1112, a council in the church of Lateran, and there not only confessed, with the deepest contrition and humility, the fault he had committed in concluding fuch a convention with the emperor, but fubmitted moreover the decision of that matter to the determination of the council, who accordingly took that treaty into confideration, and folemnly annulled it $\lceil b \rceil$. This step was followed by many events that gave, for a long time, an unfavourable turn to the affairs of the emperor. He was excommunicated in

[[]a] Besides the writers already mentioned, see MABILLON, Annal. Benedia. tom. v. p. 681. and tom. vi. p. 1. at the particular vears to which the events here taken notice of belong.

[[]b] PASCAL, upon this occasion, as GREGORY VII. had formerly done in the case of BERENGER, submitted his proceedings and his authority to the judgment of a council, to which, of consequence, he acknowledged his subordination. Nay, still more, that council condemned his measures, and declared them frandalous.

many fynods and councils both in France and Ger-CENT. many; nay, he was placed in the black list of heretics, XII. a denomination, which exposed him to the greatest PART II. dangers in these superstitious and barbarous times $\lceil c \rceil$; and, to complete his anxiety, he saw the German princes revolting from his authority in feveral places, and taking up arms in the cause of the church. To put an end to the calamities that thus afflicted the empire on all fides, HENRY fet outafecond time for Italy, with a numerous army, in the year 1116, and arrived the year following at Rome, where he affembled the confuls, fenators, and nobles, while the fugitive pontiff retired to Benevento. PASCAL, however, during this forced absence, engaged the Normans to come to his assistance, and, encouraged by the prospect of immediate succour, prepared every thing for a vigorous war against the emperor, and attempted to make himself master of Rome. But in the midst of these warlike preparations, which drew the attention of Europe, and portended great and remarkable events, the military pontiff yielded to fate, and concluded his days, A. D. 1118.

V. A few days after the death of PASCAL, JOHN of Gaieta, a Benedictine monk of Montcassin, and chancellor of the Roman church, was raised to the pontificate under the title of Gelasius II. In opposition to this choice, Henry elected to the same dignity Maurice Burdin, archbishop of Braga in Spain [d], who assumed the denomination of Gregory VIII. [e]. Upon this, Gelasius, not

[c] See GERVAISE, Diff. fur l'Herefie des investitures, which is the fourth of the Differtations which he has prefixed to his History of the Abbot Suger.

cf [d] Braga was the metropolis of ancient Galicia, but at prefent is one of the three archbithoprics of Portugal, in the province of Entre Duero è Migno. The archbithop of that fee claims the title of primate of Spain, which is annexed in Spain to the fee of Toledo.

[[]e] See Stephani Baluzii Vita Mauritii Burdini Misce?-laneor. tom. iii. p. 471.

CENT. thinking himself safe at Rome, nor indeed in Italy, set XII. out for France, and in a little time after died at PART II. Clugni. The Cardinals, who accompanied him in

his journey, elected to the papacy, immediately after his departure, Guy archbishop of Vienne, count of Burgundy, who was nearly related to the emperor, and is diffinguished in the list of the Roman pontiss by the name of CALLIXTUS II. The elevation of this eminent ecclefiaftic was, in the iffue, extremely happy both for church and state. Remarkably diffinguished by his illustrious birth, and still more by his noble and heroic qualities, this magnanimous pontiff continued to oppose the emperor with courage and fuccefs, and to carry on the war both with the fword of the spirit, and with the arm of flesh. made himself master of Rome, threw into prison the pontiff that had been chosen by the emperor, and fomented the civil commotions in Germany. But his fortitude and refolution were tempered with moderation, and accompanied with a spirit of generosity and compliance, which differed much from the obstinate arrogance of his lordly predecessors. Accordingly he lent an ear to pacific councils, and was willing to relinguish a part of the demands upon which the former pontiffs had so vehemently insisted, that he might restore the public tranquillity, and satisfy the ardent defires of fo many nations, who groaned under the difmal effects of these deplorable divisions [f].

It will appear unquestionably evident to every attentive and impartial observer of things, that the illiberal and brutish manners of those who ruled the church were the only reason that rendered the dispute concerning investitures so violent and cruel, so tedious in its duration, and so unhappy in its effects. During the space of sive-and-sifty years,

G [f] The paragraph following is the note [t], of the original placed in the text.

the church was governed by monks, who, to the CENT. obscurity of their birth, the asperity of their natural XII. temper, and the unbounded rapacity of their ambi-PART II. tion and avarice, joined that inslexible obstinacy which is one of the essential characteristics of the monastic order. Hence those bitter feuds, those furious efforts of ambition and vengeance, that dishonoured the church and afflicted the state during the course of this controversy. But as soon as the papal chair was filled by a man of an ingenuous turn, and of a liberal education, the sace of things changed entirely, and a prospect of peace arose to the desires and hopes of ruined and desolate countries.

VI. These hopes were not disappointed; for, after Peace is much contestation, peace was, at length, concluded between the between the emperor and the pope's legates, at a popeand the general diet held at Worms, A. D. 1122. The emperor upconditions were as follow:

"That for the future the bishops and abbots shall

"be chosen by those to whom the right of election

"belongs [g]; but that this election shall be made in presence of the emperor, or of an ambassador

"appointed by him for that purpose [h]:

"That, in case a dispute arise among the electors,

"the decision of it shall be left to the emperor, who is to consult with the bishops upon that occasion:

"That the bishop or abbot elect shall take an oath of allegiance to the emperor, receive from

"his hand the regalia, and do homage for them:

"That the emperor shall no more confer the "regalia by the ceremony of the ring and crosser, "which are the ensigns of a ghostly dignity, but

[g] The expression is ambiguous; but it signifies that the election of bishops and abbots was to be made by monks and canons as in former times.

[b] From this period the people in Germany were excluded from the right of voting in the election of bishops. See Petr, DE Marca, De concordia facerdoiii et imperii, lib. vi. cap. ii. § 9. p. 783. edit. Bohmeri.

CENT. " by that of the fceptre, which is more proper to " invest the person elected in the possession of rights

PART II. " and privileges merely temporal [i]."

This convention was folemnly confirmed the year following in the general council of Lateran, and remains still in force in our times; though the true fense of some of its articles has occasioned disputes

between the emperors and pontiffs $\lceil k \rceil$.

Two popes

VII. CALLIXTUS did not long enjoy the fruits of raifed at the this peace, to which he had so much contributed by the pontifical his prudence and moderation. He departed this life in the year 1124, and was succeeded by LAM-BERT, bishop of Offia, who assumed the title of Honorius II. and under whose pontificate nothing worthy of mention was transacted. His death, which happened A. D. 1130, gave rife to a confiderable schifm in the church of Rome, or rather in the college of cardinals, of whom one party elected to the papal chair, GREGORY, a cardinal deacon of St. Angelo, who was distinguished by the name of INNOCENT II. while the other chose for successor to Honorius, Peter, the fon of Leo, a Roman prince, under the title of ANACLETUS II. The party of Innocent was far from being numerous in Rome, or throughout Italy in general, for which reason he judged it expedient to retire into France, where he had many adherents, and where he fojourned during the space of two years. His credit was very great out of Italy; for, belides the emperor LOTHARIUS, the kings of England, France, and Spain, with other princes, espoused warmly the cause of Innocent,

[[]i] See Muratori Antig. Ital. medii evi, tom. vi. p. 76 .--Schilterus, De Libertate Eccl. Germanica, lib. iv. cap. iv. p. 545.—Cæsar Rasponus, De Basilica Lateranensi, lib. iv. p. 295.

[[]k] It was disputed among other things, whether the confecration of the bishop elect was to precede or follow the collation of the regalia? See Jo. WILH. HOFFMAN, ad concordatum Henrici V. et Callisli II. Vitemberg. 1739, in 4to.

and that principally by the influence of St. Bernard, Cent. who was his intimate friend, and whose counsels had XII. the force and authority of laws in almost all the PART II. countries of Europe. The patrons of ANACLETUS were fewer in number, and were confined to the kings of Sicily and Scotland; his death, however, which happened A. D. 1138, terminated the contest, and left Innocent in the entire and undisputed possession of the apostolic chair. The surviving pontiff prefided, in the year 1139, at the fecond council of Lateran, and about four years after ended his days in peace $\lceil l \rceil$.

VIII. After the death of INNOCENT, the Roman Succession fee was filled by Guy, cardinal of St. Mark, who of the ponruled the church about five months, under the title the death of of CELESTINE II. If his reign was flort, it was innocent to the end of however peaceable, and not like that of his fucceffor this century Lucius II. whose pontificate was disturbed by various tumults and feditions, and who, eleven months after his elevation to the papacy, was killed in a riot which he was endeavouring to suppress by his prefence and authority. He was fucceeded by Bernard a Ciftertian monk, and an eminent disciple of the famous St. Bernard, abbot of Clairval. This worthy ecclefiaftic, who is diffinguished among the popes by the title of Eugenius III. was raised to that high dignity in the year 1145, and, during the space of nine years, was involved in the fame perils and perplexities that had embittered the ghostly reign of his predecessor. He was often obliged to leave Rome, and to fave himself by flight from the fury of the people $\lceil m \rceil$; and the

^[1] Besides the ordinary writers of the papal history, see Jean DE LANNES, Histoire du pontificat du Pape Innocent II. Paris. 1741, in 8vo.

[[]m] There was a party formed in Rome at this time, whose design was to restore the Roman senate to its former privileges and to its ancient splendor and glory; and, for this purpose, to reduce the papal revenues and prerogatives to a narrower

CENT. fame reason engaged him to retire into France, where he fojourned for a confiderable time. At length, PART II. exhaufted by the opposition he met with in supporting what he looked upon as the prerogatives of the papacy, he departed this life in the year 1153. The pontificate of his fuccessor Conrad, bishop of Sabino, who, after his elevation to the fee of Rome, assumed the title of Anastasius IV. was less disturbed by civil commotions, but it was also of a very short duration; for Anastasius died about a

year and four months after his election. IX. The warm contest between the emperors and

The contest between the emperors and

the popes, which was confidered as at an end ever fince the time of CALLIXTUS II. was unhappily popes is re-newed un-renewed under the pontificate of ADRIAN IV. who der Frederic was a native of England, and whose original name Barbaroffa was NICOLAS BREAKSPEAR. FREDERIC I. furnamed Barbaroffu, was no fooner feated on the imperial throne, than he publicly declared his refolution to maintain the dignity and privileges of the Roman empire in general, and more particularly to render it respectable in Italy; nor was he at all studious to conceal the design he had formed of reducing the overgrown power and opulence of the pontiffs and clergy within narrower limits. ADRIAN perceived the danger that threatened the majesty of the church, and the authority of the clergy, and prepared himfelf for defending both with vigour and constancy. The first occasion of trying their strength was offered at the coronation of the emperor at Rome, in the year 1155, when the pontiff infifted upon FREDERIC's performing the office of equerry, and holding the stirrup to his holiness. This humbling

> compals, even to the tithes and oblations that were offered to the primitive bishops, and to the spiritual government of the church, attended with an utter exclusion from all civil jurisdiction over the city of Rome. It was this party that produced the feuds and feditions to which Dr. Mosheim has an eye in this eighth fection.

proposal was at first rejected with disdain by thecent. emperor, and was followed by other contests of a x11. more momentous nature relating to the political PARTII. interests of the empire. These differences were no fooner reconciled than new disputes equally important arose in the year 1158, when the emperor, in order to put a stop to the enormous opulence of the pontiffs, bishops, and monks, which increased from day to day, enacted a law to prevent the transferring of fiefs, without the knowledge or confent of the fuperior or lord in whose name they were held $\lceil n \rceil$, and turned the whole force of his arms to reduce the little republics of Italy under his dominion. An open rupture between the emperor and the pontisf was expected as the inevitable confequence of fuch vigorous measures, when the death of ADRIAN, which happened on the first of September, A. D. 1159, suspended the storm [0].

X. In the election of a new pontiff, the cardinals A dispute were divided into two factions. The most numerous arises in the and powerful of the two raised to the pontificate a new pon Roland, bishop of Sienna, who assumed the name tiff. of Alexander III. while the opposite party elected to that high dignity Octavian, cardinal of St. Cecilia, known by the title of Victor IV. The latter was patronised by the emperor, to whom Alexander was extremely disagreeable on several accounts. The council of Pavia, which was assembled by the emperor in the year 1160, adopted his

[[]n] This prohibition of transferring the possession of stefs, from one to another, without the consent of the supreme lord, or sovereign, under whom they were held, together with other laws of a like nature, was the first effectual barrier that was opposed to the enormous and growing opulence and authority of the clergy. See Muratori Antiq. Ital. medii evi, tom vi. p. 239.

^[0] See the accurate and circumstantial account of this whole affair that is given by the illustrious and learned Count Bunau, in his *History of Frederic* I. wrote in German, p. 45. 49. 73. 99. 105, &c.

XII. who became thereby triumphant in Germany and Italy;

PART II. fo that France alone was left open to ALEXANDER,

who accordingly left Rome, and fled thither for fafety and protection. Amidst the tumults and commotions which this fchifm occasioned, Victor died at Lucca in the year 1164, but his place was immediately filled by the emperor, at whose defire Guy, cardinal of St. Calixtus, was elected pontiff under the title of PASCHAL III. and acknowledged in that character by the German princes affembled in the year 1167, at the diet of Wurtzbourg. In the mean time ALEX-ANDER recovered his spirits, and returning into Italy maintained his cause with uncommon resolution and vigour, and not without fome promifing hopes of fuccess. He held at Rome, in the year 1167, the council of Lateran, in which he folemnly deposed the emperor (whom he had, upon feveral occasions before this period, loaded publicly with anathemas and execrations), diffolved the oath of allegiance which his subjects had taken to him as their lawful fovereign, and encouraged and exhorted them to rebel against his authority, and to shake off his But, foon after this audacious proceeding, the emperor made himself master of Rome, upon which the infolent pontiff fled to Benevento, and left the apostolic chair to PASCHAL, his competitor.

XI. The affairs of ALEXANDER feemed to take foon after a more prosperous turn, when the greatest part of the imperial army being consumed by a pestilential disorder, the emperor was forced to abandon Italy, and when the death of PASCHAL, which happened in the year 1168, delivered him from such a powerful and formidable rival. But this fair prospect soon vanished. For the imperial faction elected to the pontificate John, abbot of Strum, under the title of Callixtus III. whom FREDERIC, notwithstanding his absence in Germany, and the various wars and disputes in which he was

involved, supported to the utmost of his power. CENT. When peace was, in a good measure, restored to xII. the empire, FREDERIC marched into Italy, A. D. PART II. 1174, with a design to chastise the persidy of the states and cities that had revolted during his absence, and feized the first favourable opportunity of throwing off his yoke. Had this expedition been crowned with the expected fuccess, ALEXANDER would, undoubtedly, have been obliged to desift from his pretenfions, and to yield the papal chair to CAL-LIXTUS. But the event came far short of the hopes which this grand expedition had excited, and the emperor, after having, during the space of three years, been alternately defeated and victorious, was, at length, fo fatigued with the hardships he had fuffered, and fo dejected at a view of the difficulties he had yet to overcome, that, in the year 1177, he concluded a treaty of peace at Venice with ALEXANDER III. and a truce with the rest of his enemies [p]. Certain writers affirm, that, upon this occasion, the haughty pontiff trod upon the neck of the fuppliant emperor, while he kiffed his foot, repeating at the same time those words of the royal Pfalmist: Thou shalt tread upon the lion and adder: the young lion and the dragon shalt thou trample under feet [q]. The greatest part, however, of modern authors have called this event in question,

[[]p] All the circumstances of these conventions are accurately related by the above-mentioned Count Bunau, in his History of Frederic I. p. 115—242.—See also Fortunati Olmi Istoria della Venuta à Venetia occultamente nel A. 1177. di Papa Alessandro III. Venet. 1629, in 4to.—Muratori Antiq. Italica medii avi, tom. iv. p. 2. 9.—Origines Guelphica, tom. ii. p. 379.—Ad Sandarum, tom i. April. p. 46. in Vita Hugonis, abbatis Bona vallis, & tom ii. April. in Vita Galdini Mediolanensis, p. 596. two samous ecclesiastics, who were employed as ambassadors and arbiters in the treaty of peace here mentioned.

^[7] Pfalm xci. 13.

CENT. and confider it as utterly destitute of authority and

unworthy of credit $\lceil r \rceil$. PART II.

arifes between Alexander III. II. king of England.

XII. ALEXANDER III. who was rendered fo famous by his long and fuccessful contest with Frederstanding DERIC 1. was also engaged in a warm dispute with HENRY II. king of England, which was occasioned by the arrogance of Thomas Becket, archbishop and Henry of Canterbury. In the council of Clarendon, which was held in the year 1164, feveral laws were enacted, by which the king's power and jurisdiction over the clergy were accurately explained, and the rights and privileges of the bishops and priests reduced within narrower bounds [s]. Becker refused obedience to

> [r] See Bunau's Life of Frederic I. p. 242.—HEUMANNI Paciles, tom. iii. lib. i. p. 145 .- Bibliotheque Italique, tom. vi. p. 5. as also the authors mentioned by CASPAR. SAGITTARIUS, in his Introduct. in Histor. Eccles. tom. i. p. 630. tom. ii. p. 600.

> [5] See MATTH. PARIS, Hiftor. Major. p. 82, 83. 101. 114. -DAV. WILKINS, Concilia Magne Britannia, tom. i. p. 434.

> HENRY II. had formed the wife project of bringing the clergy under the jurisdiction of the civil courts, on account of the scandalous abuse they had made of their immunities, and the crimes which the ecclefialtical tribunals let pass with impunity. The Constitutions of Clarendon, which consisted of fixteen articles, were drawn up for this purpose: and as they are proper to give the reader a just idea of the prerogatives and privileges that were claimed equally by the king and the clergy, and that occasioned of consequence such warm debates between state and church, it will not be altogether useless to transcribe them here at length.

> I. When any difference relating to the right of patronage arises between the laity, or between the clergy and laity, the controverfy

is to be tried and ended in the King's Court.

II. Those churches which are fees of the crown cannot be

granted away in perpetuity without the king's confent.

III. When the clergy are charged with any misdemeanor, and fummoned by the justiciary, they shall be obliged to make their appearance in his court, and plead to fuch parts of the indictment as shall be put to them; and likewife to answer such articles in the Ecclefiastical Court as they shall be profecuted for by that jurifdiction: always provided, that the king's justiciary shall fend an officer to inspect the proceedings of the Court Christian. in case any clerk is convicted, or pleads guilty, he is to sorfeit the the privilege of his character, and to be protected by the church no longer.

these laws, which he looked upon as prejudicial to CENT. the divine rights of the church in general, and to XII.

PART II.

IV. No archbishops, bishops, or parsons, are allowed to depart the kingdom, without a licence from the crown; and, provided they have leave to travel, they shall give security, not to act or solicit any thing during their passage, stay, or return, to the

prejudice of the king, or kingdom.

V. When any of the laity are profecuted, in the Ecclesiastical Courts, the charge ought to be proved before the bishop by legal and reputable witnesses: and the course of the process is to be so managed, that the archdeacon may not lose any part of his right, or the profits accruing to his office: and, if any offenders appear screened from profecution upon the score either of savour or quality, the sheriss, at the bishops's instance, shall order twelve sufficient men of the neighbourhood to make oath before the bishop, that they will discover the truth according to the best of their knowledge.

VI. Excommunicated persons shall not be obliged to make oath, or give security to continue upon the place where they live; but only to abide by the judgment of the church in order to their

absolution.

VII. No person that holds in chief of the king, or any of his barons, shall be excommunicated, or any of their estates put under an interdiat, before application made to the king, provided he is in the kingdom; and, in case his highness be out of England, then the justiciary must be acquainted with the dispute, in order to make satisfaction: and thus what belongs to the cognizance of the King's Court, must be tried there; and that which belongs to the Court Christian, must be remitted to that jurisdiction.

VIII. In case of appeals in ecclesiastical causes, the first step is to be made from the archdeacon to the bishop: and from the bishop to the archbishop: and, if the archbishop fails to do justice, a farther recourse may be had to the king, by whose order the controversy is to be finally decided in the archbishop's Court. Neither shall it be lawful for either of the parties to move for any

farther remedy without leave from the crown.

IX. If a difference happens to arise between any clergyman and layman concerning any tenement; and that the clerk pretends it held by frank-almoine*, and the layman pleads it a lay-fee; in this case, the tenure shall be tried by the inquiry and verdict of twelve sufficient men of the neighbourhood, summoned according to the custom of the realm. And, if the tenement or thing in controversy shall be found frank-almoine, the dispute concerning it shall be tried in the Ecclesiastical Court. But, if

^{*} i. e. A tenure by divine service, as Britton explains it.

CENT. the prerogatives of the Roman pontiffs in particular.

XII. Upon this there arose a violent debate between the

tit is brought in a lay-fee, the suit shall be followed in the King's Courts, unless both the plaintiff and defendant hold the tenement in question of the same bishop; in which case, the cause shall be tried in the court of such bishop or baron, with this farther proviso, that he who is seized of the thing in controversy, shall not be disseized, hanging the suit (i. e. during the suit, pendente

lite) upon the score of the verdict above mentioned.

X. He who holds of the king in any city, castle, or borough, or resides upon any of the demesne-lands of the crown, in case he is cited by the archdeacon or bishop to answer any misbehaviour belonging to their cognizance; if he resules to obey their summons, and stand to the sentence of the court, it shall be lawful for the ordinary to put him under an interdict, but not to excommunicate him, till the king's principal officer of the town shall be pre-acquainted with the case, in order to enjoin him to make satisfaction to the church. And if such officer or magistrate shall sail in his duty, he shall be sined by the king's judges. And then the bishop may exert his discipline on the resractory person as he thinks sit.

XI. All archbishops, bishops, and ecclesiastical persons, who hold of the king in chief, and the tenure of a barony, are for that reason obliged to appear before the king's justices and ministers, to answer the duties of their tenure, and to observe all the usages and customs of the realm; and, like other barons, are bound to be present at trials in the King's Court, till sentence is to be pro-

nounced for the losing of life or limbs.

XII. When any archbishoprick, bishoprick, abbey, or priory or royal foundation, becomes vacant, the king is to make seizure: from which time all the profits and issues are to be paid into the Exchequer, as if they were the demesne-lands of the crown. And when it is determined the vacancy shall be silled up, the king is to summon the most considerable persons of the chapter to Court, and the election is to be made in the chapel royal, with the consent of our sovereign lord the king, and by the advice of such persons of the government, as his highness shall think sit to make use of. At which time, the person elected, before his consecration, shall be obliged to do homage and fealty to the king, as his liege lord; which homage shall be personned in the usual form, with a clause for the saving the privilege of his order.

XIII. If any of the temporal barons, or great men shall encroach upon the rights or property of any archbishop, bishop, or archdeacon, and refuse to make satisfaction for wrong done by themselves, or their tenants, the king shall do justice to the party

resolute monarch and the rebellious prelate, which CENT. obliged the latter to retire into France, where XII. ALEXANDER III. was at that time in a kind of exile. PART II. This pontiff and the king of France interposed their good offices in order to compose these differences, in which they succeeded so far, after much trouble and difficulty, as to encourage Becket to return into England, where he was re-instated in his forseited dignity. But the generous and indulgent proceedings of his sovereign towards him, were not sufficient to conquer his arrogant and rebellious obstinacy in maintaining, what he called, the privileges of the church, nor could he be induced by

aggrieved. And, if any person shall disseize the king of any part of his lands, or trespass upon his prerogative, the archbishops, bishops, and deacons shall call him to an account, and oblige him to make the crown restitution; i.e. They were to excommunicate such disseizers and injurious persons in case they proved refractory and incorrigible.

XIV. The goods and chattels of those who lie under forseitures of felony or treason are not to be detained in any church or church-yard, to secure them against seizure and justice; because such goods are the king's property, whether they are lodged within the precincts of a church or without it.

XV. All actions, and pleas of debts, though never fo folcome in the circumstances of the contract, shall be tried in the King's Courts.

XVI. The fons of copy-holders are not to be ordained without the confent of the lord of the manor where they were born.

Such were the articles of the constitutions of Clarendon, against the greatest part of which the pope protested. They were signed by the English clergy and also by Becket. The latter, however, repented of what he had done, and, retiring from court, suspended himself from his office in the church for about forty days, till he received absolution from Alexander III. who was then at Sens. His aversion to these articles manifested itself by an open rebellion against his sovereign, in which he discovered his true character, as a most daring, turbulent, vindictive, and arrogant priest, whose ministry was solely employed in extending the despotic dominion of Rome, and whose sixed purpose was to aggrandize the church upon the ruins of the state. See Collier's Ecclesiassical History, vol. i. XII century. RAPIN THOY-RAS, in the reign of Henry II.

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CENT. any means to comply with the views and measures XII. of Henry. The consequences of this inflexible PART II resistance were fatal to the haughty prelate, for he was, soon after his return into England, affassinated before the altar, while he was at vespers in his cathedral, by four persons, who certainly did not commit this act of violence without the king's knowledge and connivance [t]. This event produced

This affertion is, in our opinion, by much too strong. It can only be founded upon certain indifcreet and passionate expressions, which the intolerable insolence and frenetic obstinacy of BECKET drew from HENRY in an unguarded moment, when, after having received new affronts, notwithstanding the reconciliation he had effected with so much trouble and condescension, he expressed himself to this purpose: Am I not unhappy, that, among the numbers, who are attached to my interests, and employed in my fervice, there is none poffeffed of spirit enough to refent the affronts which I am conflantly receiving from a miferable prieft? These words, indeed, were not pronounced in vain. Four gentlemen of the court, whose names were Fitz-Urse, Tracy, Britton, and Morville, murdered BECKET in his chapel, and thus performed, in a licentious and criminal manner, an action which the laws might have commanded with justice. But it is extremely remarkable, that, after the murder, the affaffins were afraid they had gone too far, and durst not return to the king's court, which was then in Normandy; but retired, at first, to Knarefborough in Yorkfhire, which belonged to Morville, from whence they repaired to Rome for absolution, and being admitted to penance by ALEXANDER III. were fent, by the orders of that pontiff, to ferufalem, and passed the remainder of their lives upon the Black Mountain in the serverest acts of authority and mortification. All this does not look as if the king had been deliberately concerned in this murder, or had expressly confented to it. On the contrary, various circumflances concur to prove that Henry was entirely innocent of this murder. Mr. Hume mentions particularly one, which is worthy of notice. king, suspecting the defign of the four gentlemen above mentioned, by tome menacing expressions they had dropt, "dispatched " (fays Mr. Hume) a meffenger after them, charging them to " attempt nothing against the person of the primate. But these " orders came too late." See his History of England, vol. i. p. 294. RAPIN THOYRAS, Hiftory of England; Collier's Ecclefinstical History of England, vol. i. p. 370. The authors which Dr. Mosherm refers to for an account of this matter are as follow: warm debates between the king of England and the CENT. Roman pontiff, who gained his point fo far as to XII. make the suppliant monarch undergo a severe course PART II. of penance, in order to expiate a crime of which he was considered as the principal promoter, while the murdered prelate was solemnly enrolled in the highest rank of saints and martyrs in the year 1173 [u].

XIII. It was not only by force of arms, but also Alexander by uninterrupted efforts of dexterity and artifice, by hutes by wife councils and prudent laws, that ALEXANDER prudent III. maintained the pretended rights of the church, counsels to and extended the authority of the Roman pontiffs. privileges of For, in the third council of the Lateran, held at the church, and to ex-Rome, A. D. 1179, the following decrees, among tend the many others upon different subjects, were passed by papalautho. his advice and authority: 1st, That in order to put an end to the confusion and diffensions which so often accompanied the election of the Roman pontiffs, the right of election should not only be vested in the cardinals alone, but also that the person, in whose favour two-thirds of the college of cardinals voted, should be considered as the lawful and duly elected pontiff. This law is still in force; it was therefore from the time of ALEXANDER that the election of the pope acquired that form which it still retains. and by which not only the people, but also the Roman clergy, are excluded entirely from all share in the honour of conferring that important dignity.

Guiliel. Stephanidæ, Historia Thomæ Cantuariensis in Sparke Scriptores rerum Anglicarum, published in solio at London in the year 1723.—Chrisp. Lupi Epistolæ et vita Thomæ Cantuar.—Epistolæ Alexandri III. Ludovici VII. Henrici II. in hac causa ex MSS. Vaticano, Bruxelles 1682, 2 vols. 4to.—Natalis Alexander, Select. Histor. Eccles. Capitib. Sæc. xii. Diss. x. p. 833.—Thomæ Stapletoni Tres Thomæ, seu res gestæ Thomæ Apostoli, S. Thomæ Cantuariensis, et Thomæ Mori, Colon 1612, in 8vo.

[u] Boulay, Histor. Academ. Paris. tom. ii. p. 328. et De Die Festo ejus, p. 397. Dom. Colonia, Histoire Litteraire de la Ville de Lyon, tom. ii. p. 249.

CENT. 2dly, A spiritual war was declared against Heretics, whose numbers increasing considerably about this PARTIL time, created much disturbance in the church in general, and infested, in a more particular manner, feveral provinces in France, which groaned under the fatal diffensions that accompanied the propagation of their errors [w]. 3dly, The right of recommending and nominating to the faintly order was also taken away from councils and bishops, and canonization was ranked among the greater and more important causes, the cognizance of which belonged to the pontiff alone $\lceil \kappa \rceil$. To all this we must not forget to add, that the power of erecting new kingdoms, which had been claimed by the pontiffs from the time of GREGORY VII. was not only affumed, but also exercised by ALEXANDER in a remarkable instance; for, in the year 1179, he conferred the title of king, with the enfigns of royalty, upon Alphonso I. duke of Portugal, who, under the pontificate of Lucius II. had rendered his province tributary to the Roman fee [y].

[w] See NATALIS ALEXANDER, Select. Histor. Eccles. Capit. Sec. xii. Diss. p. 819. where he treats particularly concerning this council.—See also tom. vi. part II. Conciliorum HARDUINI,

Dr. Mosheim, as also Spanheim and Fleury, call this the 3d council of Lateran, whereas other historians mention eight preceding councils held in the Lateran, viz. Those of the years 649, 864, 1105, 1112, 1116, 1123, 1139, 1167. Our author has also attributed to this council of 1179, decrees that probably belong to a later period.

[N] See what has been observed already, under the xth century, concerning the election of the popes, and the canonization

of faints.

[y] BARONIUS, Annal. ad A. 1179.—INNOCENTII III.

Epistola Lib. ep. xlix. p. 54. tom. i. ed. Baluzian.

king of Portugal, in the year 1136, in the midst of the glorious exploits he had performed in the war against the Moors; so that ALEXANDER III. did no more than consum this title by an arrogant bull, in which he treats that excellent prince as his vassal.

XIV. Upon the death of ALEXANDER, UBALD, CEN'T. bishop of Oftia, otherwise known by the name of XII. Lucius III. was raised to the pontificate, A. D. PART II. 1181, by the suffrages of the cardinals alone, in His succession fequence of the law mentioned in the preceding fors. fection. The administration of this new pontiff was embittered by violent tumults and feditions; for he was twice driven out of the city by the Romans, who could not bear a pope that was elected in oppofition to the ancient custom, without the knowledge and confent of the clergy and the people. In the midst of these troubles he died at Verona in the year 1185, and was succeeded by HUBERT CRIVELLI, bishop of Milan, who assumed the title of URBAN III. and without having transacted any thing worthy of mention during his short pontificate, died of grief in the year 1187, upon hearing that SALADIN had made himself master of Jerusalem. The pontificate of his successor Albert [z], whose papal denomination was GREGORY VIII. exhibited still a more striking instance of the fragility of human grandeur; for this pontiff yielded to fate about two months after his elevation. He was succeeded by PAUL, bishop of Preneste, who filled the papal chair above three years under the title of CLEMENT III. and departed this life, A. D. 1191, without having distinguished his ghostly reign by any memorable atchievement, if we except his zeal for draining Europe of its treasures and inhabitants by the publication of new crusades. Celestine III. [a] makes a more shining figure in history than the pontiffs we have been now mentioning; for he thundered his excommunications against the emperor HENRY VI. and LEOPOLD, duke of Austria, on account of their having seized and imprisoned RICHARD I. king of England, as he

[[]z] This prelate, before his elevation to the papacy, was bishop of *Benevento*, and chancellor of the Roman church.

[[]a] Whose name was HYACINTH, a native of Rome, and a cardinal deacon.

CENT. was returning from the Holy Land; he also subjected XII. to the same malediction Alphonso X. king of PART II. Gallicia and Leon, on account of an incestuous marriage into which that prince had entered, and commanded PHILIP Augustus, king of France, to re-admit to the conjugal state and honours INGEL-BURG his queen, whom he had divorced for reasons unknown; though this order, indeed, produced but little effect [b]. But the most illustrious and resolute pontisf, that filled the papal chair during this century, and whose exploits made the greatest noise in Europe, was Lotharius, count of Segni, cardinal deacon, otherwise known by the name of INNOCENT III. The arduous undertakings and bold atchievements of this eminent pontiff, who was placed at the head of the church in the year 1108, belong to the history of the following century.

A view of the other ecclesiastical

church in this century, we descend to the other orders, and ecclesiastical orders, such as the bishops, priests, and their vices. deacons, the most disagreeable objects will be exhibited to our view. The unanimous voice of the historians of this age, as well as the laws and decrees of fynods and councils, declare loudly the gross ignorance, the odious frauds, and the flagitious crimes, that reigned among the different ranks and orders of the clergy now mentioned. It is not therefore at all furprifing, that the monks, whose rules of discipline obliged them to a regular method of living, and placed them out of the way of many temptations to licentiousness, and occasions of sinning to which the epifcopal and facerdotal orders were exposed, were held in higher esteem than they were.

XV. If, from the series of pontiffs that ruled the

⁽³⁾ It was in confequence of the vigorous and terrible proceedings of Innocent III. that the re-union between Philip and Ingelburg was accomplished. See L'Histoire de France, par l'Abbé Velly, tom. iii. p. 367, 368, 369.

The reign of corruption became, however, fo general, CENT. that it reached at last even the convents; and the monks, who were gaining with the most ardent PAR II. efforts the fummit of ecclesiastical power and authority, and who beheld both the fecular clerks and the regular canons with aversion and contempt $\lceil c \rceil$, began, in many places, to degenerate from that fanctity of manners, and that exact obedience to their rules of discipline, by which they had been formerly distinguished, and to exhibit to the people scandalous examples of immorality and vice [d]. The Benedictines of Clugni, who undoubtedly furpassed, in regularity of conduct and purity of manners, all the monastic orders who lived under their rule, maintained their integrity for a long time, amidst the general decay of piety and virtue. They were, however, at length carried away with the torrent; feduced by the example of their abbot Pontius, and corrupted by the treasures that were poured daily into their convent by the liberality of the opulent and pious, they fell from their primitive austerity, and, following the dissolute examples of the other Benedictines, they gave themselves up to pleasure, and dwelt carelessly [e]. Several of the fucceeding abbots endeavoured to remedy this diforder, and to recover the declining reputation of their convent; but their efforts were much less fuccessful than they expected, nor could the monks

[c] See RUPERTI Epistola in MARTENE Thefaur. Anecditom. i. p. 285. This writer prefers the monks before the

apostles.

[[]d] See Bernard. Consideration. ad Eugenium, lib. iii. cap. iv.—See also the Speculum Stultorum, or Brunellus, a Poem, composed by Nigel Wireker, an English bard of no mean reputation, who lived about the middle of the xiith century. In this Poem, of which several editions have been published, the different orders of monks are severely censured; the Carthusians alone have escaped the keen and virulent satire of this witty writer.

[[]e] Isaiah, xlvii. 8.

CENT. of Clugni ever be brought back to their primitive fanctity and virtue $\lceil f \rceil$.

of the Ciftertian Order.

PART II. XVI. The Cistertian Order, which was much inferior to the monks of Clugni, both with respect to The prot-perous state the antiquity of their institution, and the possessions and revenues of their convent, surpassed them far in the external regularity of their lives and manners, and in a certain striking air of innocence and fanctity, which they still retained, and which the others had almost entirely lost. Hence they acquired that high degree of reputation and authority, which the order of Clugni had formerly enjoyed, and increased daily in number, credit, and opulence. The famous St. BERNARD, abbot of Clairval, whose influence throughout all Europe was incredible, whose word was a law, and whose counsels were regarded by kings and princes as fo many orders to which the most respectful obedience was due; this eminent ecclefiastic was the person who contributed most to enrich and aggrandize the Ciftertian Order. Hence he is justly considered as the second parent and founder of that Order; and hence the Cistertians, not only in France, but also in Germany and other countries, were diffinguished by the title of Bernardin monks $\lceil g \rceil$. A hundred and fixty religious communities derive their origin, or their rules of discipline, from this illustrious abbot, and he left, at his death, feven hundred monks in the monastery of Clairval. The church abounded with bishops and archbishops that had been formed and prepared for the ministry by his instructions, and he counted also, among the number of his disciples, Eugenius III. one of the best and wifest of the Roman pontiss.

[[]f] See MARTENE, Amplissima Collectio Monumentor. Veter. tom. ix. p. 1119.

[[]g] See Jo. Mabillon, Annal. Ordin. Benediët. tom. vi. passim, in vita Sti. Bernardi, which he has prefixed to his edition of the works of that faint .- See also Angeli Manriquez Annales Ciflercienses, tom. ii. and iii,

XVII: The growing prosperity of the Cistertian CENT. Order excited the envy and jealoufy of the monks XII. of Clughi, and, after feveral diffentions of less PART II. consequence, produced at length an open rupture, Jealousies a declared war between these two opulent and arise bepowerful monasteries. They both followed the rule tween the of St. Benedict, though they differed in their and the habit, and in certain laws, which the Cistertians monks of more especially, had added to that rule. The monks of Clugni accused the Cistertians of affecting an extravagant austerity in their manners and discipline; while the Cistertians, on the other hand, charged them, and that upon very good grounds, with having degenerated from their former fanctity, and regularity of conduct. St. BERNARD, who was the oracle and protector of the Ciftertians, wrote, in the year 1127, an Apology for his own conduct in relation to the division that subsisted between the two convents, and inveighed with a just, though decent, severity against the vices that corrupted the monks of Clugni $\lceil h \rceil$. This charge was answered, though with uncommon moderation and candour, by PETER MAURICIUS, abbot of Clugni; and hence it occasioned

[h] This apology, as it is called, of St. Bernard is well worth the attention of the curious reader, as it exhibits a true and lively picture of monastic opulence and luxury, and shews how the religious orders in general lived in this century. The famous abbot, in this performance, accuses the monks of Clugni of luxury and intemperance at their table, of superfluity and magnificence in their drefs, their bed-chambers, their furniture, equipage, and buildings. He points out the pride and vanity of the abbots, who looked much more like the governors of provinces, than the spiritual fathers of humble and holy communities, whose original profession it was, to be crucified and dead to the interests and pleasures, the pomps and vanities of a prefent world. He declares, with a pious concern, that he knew feveral abbots, each of whom had more than fixty horses in his stable, and such a prodigious variety of wines in his cellar, that it was fearcely possible to taste the half of them at a single entertainment. FLEURY, Hift. Ecclesiastique, liv. 1xxvii. tom. xiv. p. 351. edita Bruxelles.

CENT. a controverly in form, which spread from day to day its baneful influence, and excited diffurbances PART II in several provinces of Europe [i]. It was, however,

followed with a much more vehement and bitter contest concerning an exemption from the payment of tythes, granted among other privileges and immunities to the Ciffertians, A. D. 1132, by INNOCENT II. A confiderable part of the lands which the Cistertians possessed, and to which the pontiff granted this exemption, were subject to the monks of Clugni, who suffered consequently by this act of liberality, and disputed the matter, not only with the Cistertians, but with the pope himself. This keen dispute was, in some measure, terminated in the year 1155, but in what manner, or upon what conditions, is more than is come to our knowledge [k].

Lives and manners of the canons.

XVIII. The regular canons, who were erected into a fixed and permanent order in the preceding century, employed their time in a much more ufeful and exemplary manner than the monastic drones, who paffed their days in luxury and floth. They kept public schools for the instruction of youth, and exercised a variety of ecclesiastical functions, which rendered them extremely useful to the church [1]. Hence they rose daily in credit and reputation, received many rich and noble donations from feveral perfons, whose opulence and piety rendered them

[i] See S. Bernardi Apologia in Oper. tom. i. p. 523-533. -The Afology of PETER, abbot of Clugni, furnamed the Venerable, which is published among his Epiftles. lib. i. ep. 28. in the Bibliotheca Cluniacensis, tom. i. p. 657-695.—See also the Dialogus inter Cluniacensem et Cisterciens, published by MARTENE, in his Thejaur. Anecdot. tom. v. p. 1573-1613.—Compare with all these Manieton, Annal. Benedict. tom. vi. p. 80. and MANRIQUEZ, Annal. Ciftere. tom. i. p. 28.

[k] See Angeli Manriquez, Zinnal. Ciffercienses, tom. i. p. 232 .- Matilion, Annal. Benedict. tom. vi. p. 212. 479. & Profit. cd Opera S. Bernardi. Jo. DE LANNES, Histoire du Pontificat. d'Innocent II. p. 68-79.-Jo. Nic. Herrii Diss.

de exemptione C'stere. à decimis.

[l] See the Histoire Litteraire de la France, tom. ix. p. 112.

able and willing to distinguish merit, and were also CENT. often put in possession of the revenues of the monks, whose dissolute lives occasioned, from time to time, PART IL the suppression of their convents. This, as might well be expected, inflamed the rage of the monastic orders against the regular canons, whom they attacked with the greatest fury, and loaded with the bitterest invectives. The canons, in their turn, were far from being backward in making reprifals; they exclaimed, on the contrary, against the monks with the utmost vehemence; enumerated their vices both in their discourses and in their writings, and insisted upon their being confined to their monafteries, fequestered from human society, and excluded from all ecclefiaftical honours and functions. Hence arose a long and warm contest between the monks and canons concerning pre-eminence, in which both parties carried their pretentions too high, and exceeded the bounds of decency and moderation $\lceil m \rceil$. The champions, who espoused the interest of the monks, were the famous Peter Abelard, Hugh of Amiens, RUPERT of Duytz; while the cause of the canons was defended by PHILIP HARVENGIUS, a learned abbot, and feveral other men of genius and abilities $\lceil n \rceil$. The effects and remains of this ancient controverly are yet visible in our times.

XIX. A new fociety of religious Benedictines New arose about the commencement of this century, monastic whose principal monastery was erected in a barren and solitary place, called Fonteuraud, between Angers and Tours, from whence the order derived its name. Robert of Arbrifelles, its sounder, who had been sirst an hermit, and afterwards a monk, prescribed

[m] See LAMBERTI Epistola in MARTENE, Thefaur. Anecdot. tom. i. p. 329.

[[]n] ABELARDI Opera, p. 228, Parif. 1616, in 4to.—MARTENE, Thefaur. Anecdot. tom. v. p. 970—975. 1614. et Amplissima ejusdem Collectio, tom. ix. p. 971, 972.—Phil. Harvengii Opera, p. 385. Duaci 1621, in felio.

CENT. to his religious of both fexes, the rule of St. BENE-DICT, amplified, however, by the addition of feveral PART II. new laws, which were extremely fingular and exceffively fevere. Among other fingularities that distinguished this institution, one was, that the several monasteries which ROBERT had built, within one and the fame inclosure, for his monks and nuns, were all fubjected to the authority and government of one abbels; in justification of which measure, the example of Christ was alleged, who recommended St. John to the Virgin Mary, and imposed it as an order upon that beloved disciple, to be obedient to her as to his own mother [o]. This new order, like all other novelties of that kind, gained immediately a high degree of credit; the fingularity of its discipline, its form, and its laws, engaged multitudes to embrace it, and thus the labours of its founder were crowned with remarkable fuccefs. F But the affociation of vigorous monks and tender virgins, in the fame community, was an imprudent measure, and could not but be attended with many inconveniencies. However that be, ROBERT continued his pious labours, and the odour of his fanctity perfumed all the places where he exercised his ministry. He was, indeed, suspected by some, of too great an intimacy with his female disciples; and

it was rumoured about, that, in order to try his virtue, by opposing it to the strongest temptations,

^[0] See the Works of ABELARD, p. 48. whose testimony in this matter is consisted by the present state and constitution of this famous order; though Mabillon, from an excessive partiality in favour of the Benedictines, has endeavoured to diminish its credit in his Annal. Benedict. tom. v. p. 423. For an account of Robert and his order, see the Ala Sanctor. tom. iii. Februar. p. 593.—Dion. Sammarthani Gallia Christiana, tom. ii. p. 1311.—Bayle's Didionary, at the article Fontevraud.—Helyot, Hist. des Ordres, tom. vi. p. 83.—The present state of this monastery is described by Moleon, in his Voyages Liturgiques, p. 108. and by Martene, in his Voyages Litteraire de deux Benedictins, part II. p. *.

he exposed it to an inevitable defeat by the manner CENT. in which he conversed with these holy virgins. It XII. was even said, that their commerce was softened by PARTIL fomething more tender than divine love; against which charge, his disciples have used their most zealous endeavours to defend their master [p].

XX. Norbert, a German nobleman, who went The Order into holy orders, and was afterwards archbishop of of Premontré. Magdebourg, employed his most zealous efforts to restore to its primitive severity the discipline of the regular canons, which was extremely relaxed in some places, and almost totally abolished in others. This eminent reformer founded, in the year 1121, the Order of Premontré in Picardy, whose same spread throughout Europe with an amazing rapidity, and whose opulence, in a short space of time, became excessive and enormous $\lceil q \rceil$, in consequence of the

[p] See the letters of Geoffry, abbot of Vendôme, and of Marbod, bishop of Rennes, in which Robert is accused of lying in the same bed with the nuns. How the grave abbot was defended against this accusation by the members of his order, may be seen in Mainferme's Coppeus Nascentis Ordinis Fontebraldensis, published in 8vo at Paris, in the year 1684; and also by another production of the same author, entitled Dissertationes in Epistola contra Robertum de Arbrissello, Salnurii, 1682, in 8vo. Bayle's account of this samous abbot, in which there is such an admirable mixture of wit, sense, and malice, has been also attacked by several writers: see, among others, the Dissertation Apologetique pour le bienhieureux Robert d'Arbrisselles sur ce qu'en a dit M., Bayle, Anvers 1701, in 8vo.—Mabillon, Annal. tom. v. et vi. p. 9, 10.

In the year 1177, some nuns of this order were brought into England, at the desire of HENRY III. who gave them the monastery of Ambresbury in Willshire. They had two other houses here; the one at Eton, the other at Westwood in Worcestersbire.

[q] The religious of this order were at first so poor, that they had nothing they could call their own, but a single ass, which served to carry the wood they cut down every morning, and sent to Lass in order to purchase bread. But in a short time they received so many donations, and built so many monasteries, that thirty years after the soundation of this Order, they had above

CENT. high esteem which the monks of this community XII. had acquired by the gravity of their manners, and PART II. their assiduous application to the liberal arts and sciences. But their overgrown prosperity was the source of their ruin; it soon diminished their zeal for the exercises of devotion, extinguished their thirst after useful knowledge, and thus, step by step, plunged them, at length, into all forts of vices. The rule which they followed was that of St. Augustin, with some slight alterations, and an addition of certain severe laws, whose authority, however, did not long survive their austere sounder [r].

XXI. About the middle of this century, a certain Calabrian, whose name was Berthold, set out with a few companions for mount Carmel, and, upon the very spot where the prophet Elias is said to have disappeared, built an humble cottage, with an adjoining chapel, in which he led a life of solitude, austerity, and labour. This little colony subsisted, and the places of those that died were more than

an hundred abbies in France and Germany. In process of time, the Order increased so prodigiously, that it had monasteries in all parts of Christendom, amounting to 1000 abbies, 300 provost-ships, a vast number of priories, and 500 nunneries. But this number is now greatly diminished. Besides what they lost in protessant countries, of fixty-sive abbeys, that they had in Italy, there is not one now remaining.

[r] See Helyot. Hift. des Ordres, tom. ii. p. 156.—Chrysost. Van der Sterie, Vita S. Norberti Pramonstratensium Patriarcha, published in 8vo. at Antwerp in 1656.—Louis Hughes, Vie de S. Norbert, Luxemb. 1704, in 4to.—Add to these, notwithstanding his partiality, Jo. Launoius, Inquisit. in Privilegia Ordin. Pramonstrat. cap. i, ii. Oper. tom. iii. part I. p. 448. For an account of the present state of the Order of Premontré see Martene's Voyage Litteraire de deux Benedictins, tom. ii. p. 59.

The Promonstratenses or monks of Premontré, vulgarly called White canons, came sirst into England, A. D. 1146. Their first monastery, called New House, was built in Lincolnshire, by Peter de Saulia, and dedicated to St. Martial. In the reign of Edward I. the Order in question had twenty-seven monastration.

geries in England.

filled by new-comers; fo that it was, at length [s], cent. erected into a monastic community by Albert, XII. patriarch of Jerusalem. This austere prelate drew PART II. up a rule of discipline for the new monks, which was afterwards confirmed by the authority of the Roman pontiffs, who modified and altered it in feveral respects, and, among other corrections, mitigated its excessive rigour and severity [t]. Such was the origin of the famous Order of Carmelites, or, as they are commonly called, of the Order of our Lady of mount Carmel, which was afterwards transplanted from Syria into Europe, and obtained the principal rank among the mendicant or begging orders. It is true, the Carmelites reject, with the highest indignation, an origin so recent and obscure, and affirm to this very day, that the prophet ELIAS was the parent and founder of their ancient community [u]. Very few, however, have been engaged to adopt this fabulous and chimerical account of their establishment, except the members of the order, and many Roman catholic writers have treated their pretenfions to fuch a remote antiquity with the utmost

[s] In the year 1205.

[t] I have here principally followed Dan. Papebroch, an accurate writer, and one who is always careful to produce sufficient testimonies of the truth of his narrations, see the Asta Sanstor. Antwerp. Mense April. tom. iii. p. 774—802. It is well known, that an accusation was brought against this learned jesuit, before the tribunal of the Roman pontist, by the Carmelites, on account of his having called in question the dignity and high antiquity of their Order. We have in Helyot's Hist. des Ordres, tom. i. p. 282. an account of this long and tedious contest, which was so far determined, or at least suspended, in the year 1698, by Innocent XII. that silence was imposed upon the contending parties.

[u] The most concise and accurate of all the Carmelite writers, who have treated this matter, is Thomas Aquinas, a French monk, in his Dissertatio Histor. Theol. in qua Patriarchus Ordinis Carmelitarum Propheta Elia vindicatur, published in Svo, at Paris in the year 1632. The modern writers, who have maintained the cause of the Carmelites against Papebroch, are extremely

prolix and tirefome.

ENT. contempt [w]. [And scarcely, indeed, can any XII. thing be more ridiculous than the circumstantial PART II narrations of the occasion, origin, founder, and

revolutions of this famous order, which we find in teveral ecclefiastical authors, whose zeal for this fraternity has rendered them capable of adopting, without reluctance, or, at least, of reciting without shame, the most puerile and glaring absurdities. They tell us, that ELIAS was introduced into the state of monachism by the ministry of angels; that his first disciples were Jonan, Mican, and also OBADIAH, whose wife, in order to get rid of an importunate crowd of lovers, who fluttered about her at the court of AHAB, after the departure of her husband, bound herself by a vow of chastity, received the veil from the hands of father ELIAS, and thus became the first abbess of the Carmelite Order. They enter into a vast detail of all the circumstances that relate to the rules of discipline which were drawn up for this community, the habit which diffinguished its members, and the various alterations which were introduced into their rule of discipline in process of time. They observe, that, among other marks which were used to distinguish the Carmelites from the feculars, the tonfitre was one; that this mark of distinction exposed them, indeed, to the mockeries of a profane multitude; and that this furnishes the true explication of the terms bald head, which the children addressed, by way of reproach, to Elishah as he was on his way to Carmel [x]. They tell us, moreover, that, PYTHAGORAS was a member of this ancient order; that he drew all his wifdom from mount Carmel, and had feveral converfations with the prophet Daniel at Babylon, upon the subject of the Trinity.

[x] See 2 Kings, ii. 23.

[[]w] See HARDUINI Opera posthum. p. 642.—LABAT, Voyage en Espagne et Italie, tom. iii. p. 87.—Courayer, Examen des defauts Theologiques, tom. i. p. 455.

Nay, they go still farther into the region of fable, CENT. and affert, that the Virgin MARY, and JESUS himself, XII. assumed the habit and profession of Carmelites; and PART II. they load this siction with a heap of absurd circumstances, which it is impossible to read without the highest assonishment [y].

XXII. To this brief account of the religious Greek orders, it will not be amiss to add a lift of the principal writers. Greek and Latin writers that flourished in this century. The most eminent among the Greeks were

those that follow:

PHILIPPUS SOLITARIUS, whose Dioptra, or controversy between the soul and the body, is sufficiently known;

Eustratius, who maintained the cause of the Greek church against the Latins with great learning

[y] For an ample account of all the abfurd inventions here hinted at, fee a very remarkable work, entitled, ORDRES Monastiques, Histoire extraite de tous les Auteurs qui ont conservé à la Posterité ce qu'il y a de plus curieux dans chaque ordre, enrichie d'un tres grand nombre de passages des mêmes Auteurs; pour servir de demonstration que ce qu'on y avance est egalement veritable et curieux. This work, which was first printed at Paris in 1751, under the title of Berlin, and which was suppressed almost as foon as it appeared, is written with great wit, eloquence, and learning; and all the narrations it contains are confirmed by citations from the most eminent authors who have given accounts of the religious orders. The author's defign feems to have been to expose the monks of every denomination to the laughter of his readers; and it is very remarkable, that, in the execution of his purpose, he has drawn his materials from the gravest authors, and from the most zealous defenders of monachism. If he has embellished his subject, it is by the vivacity of his manner, and the witty elegance of his style, and not by laying to the charge of the monastic communities any practices which their most serious historians omit or disavow. The authors of the Bibliotheque des Sciences et de Beaux Arts, at the Hague, have given several interesting extracts of this work in the 2d, 3d, 4th, and 5th volumes of that Literary Journal.

The Carmelites came into England in the year 1240, and erected there a valt number of monasteries almost through the whole kingdom. See BROUGHTON'S Historical Library, vol. i.

p. 208.

Vol. III.

CENT. and spirit, and who wrote commentaries on certain XII. books of ARISTOTLE;

PART II. EUTHYMIUS ZIGABENUS, who, by his Antiheretical Panoply, together with his commentaries upon
feveral parts of the facred writings, has acquired a
place among the principal authors of this century

JOHANNES ZONARAS, whose Annals, together with several other productions of his learned pen,

are still extant;

MICHAEL GLYCAS, who also applied himself to historical composition, as well as to other branches of learning [a];

Constantius Harmenopulus, whose commentaries on the civil and canon laws are deservedly esteemed;

Andronicus Camaterus, who wrote with great warmth and vehemence against the Latins and Armenians;

Eustathius, bishop of *Thessalonica*, the most learned of the Greeks in this century, and the celebrated commentator of the *Iliad*;

Theodorus Balsamon, who employed great diligence, erudition, and labour, in explaining and digesting the civil and ecclesiastical laws of the Greeks $\lceil b \rceil$.

Latin writers. XXIII. The most eminent among the Latin writers were,

BERNARD, abbot of *Clairval*, from whom the Ciftertian monks, as has been already observed, derived the title of *Bernardins*; a man who was not destitute of genius and taste, and whose judgment, in many respects, was just and penetrating; but who, on

[[]z] See Rich. Simon, Critique de la Bibliotheque des Auteurs Eccles. par M. Du Pin, tom. i. p. 318. 324.

[[]a] Other historians place GLYCAS in the fifteenth century. See LAMI Differtatio de Glyca, which is prefixed to the first volume of his Deliciæ vivorum eruditorum.

[[]b] See the Bibliotheca Graca of FABRICIUS.

the other hand, discovered in his conduct, many cent. marks of superstition and weakness, and, what is XII. still worse, concealed the lust of dominion under the PART II. mask of piety, and made no scruple of loading with false accusations, such as had the missortune to incur his displeasure [c];

INNOCENT III. bishop of Rome, whose epistles and other productions contribute to illustrate the religious sentiments, as also the discipline and morals,

that prevailed in this century [d];

Anselm of Laon, a man of a fubtle genius, and

deeply verfed in logical disquisition;

ABELARD, the disciple of ANSELM, and most famous in this century, on account of the elegance of his wit, the extent of his erudition, the power of his rhetoric, and the bitterness of his unhappy fate $\lceil e \rceil$;

GEOFFRY of Vendôme, whose Epistles and Disser-

tations are yet extant;

Rupert of Duytz, and the most eminent, perhaps, of all the expositors of the holy scriptures, who flourished among the Latins during this century, a man of a found judgment and an elegant taste [f];

[6] The learned Mabillon has given a fplendid edition of the works of St. Bernard, and has not only in his Preface made many excellent observations upon the life and history of this famous abbot, but has also subjoined to his Works, the accounts that have been given, by the ancient writers, of his life and actions.

[d] The Epiffles of Innocent III. were published at Paris, in two large volumes in folio, by BALUZIUS, in the year 1682.

[e] See BAYLE'S Dictionary, at the articles ABELARD and PARACLET.—GERVAIS, Vie de Pierre Abeillard, Abbe de Ruys, et de Heloise, published at Paris in two volumes 8vo, in the year 1728. The works of this famous and unfortunate monk were published at Paris in 1616, in one volume 4to. by Franc Amboise. Another edition, much more ample, might be given, since there are a great number of the productions of ABELARD that have never yet seen the light.

[f] See Mabilion, Annal. Bened. tom. vi. p. 19, 20. 42. 144. 168. 261. 282. 296. who gives an ample account of Ru-

PERT, and of the disputes in which he was involved.

THUGH of St. Victor, a man distinguished by the XII. feeundity of his genius, who treated in his writings PART II. of all the branches of facred and prophane erudition that were known in his time, and who composed feveral differtations that are not destitute of merit [g];

RICHARD of St. Victor, who was at the head of the Mystics in this century, and whose treatise, entitled, The Mystical Ark, which contains, as it were, the marrow of that kind of theology, was received with the greatest avidity, and applauded by the fanatics of the times [h];

Honorius of Autun [i], no mean philosopher,

and tolerably verfed in theological learning;

GRATIAN, a learned monk, who reduced the canon law into a new and regular form, in his vast compilation of the decisions of the ancient and modern councils, the decretals of the pontists, the capitularies of the kings of France, &c.;

WILLIAM of Rheims, the author of several productions, every way adapted to excite pious sentiments, and to contribute to the progress of practical

religion;

Peter Lombard, who was commonly called, in France, Master of the Sentences, because he had composed a work so entitled, which was a collection of opinions and sentences relative to the various branches of theology, extracted from the Latin doctors, and reduced into a fort of system $\lceil k \rceil$;

[[]g] See Gallia Christiana, tom. vii. p. 661. The works of this learned man were published at Rouen, in three volumes in folio, in the year 1648. See for a farther account of him, Derlangii Dissert. de Hugoni a S. Victore, Helmstadt, 1746, in 4to, and Martene's Voyage Litteraire, tom. ii. p. 91, 92.

[[]b] Gallia Christiana, tom. vii. p. 669.

[[]i] Such is the place to which Honorius is faid to have belonged. But LE BOEUF proves him to have been a German, in his Differt. fur l'Hist. Françoise, tom. i. p. 254.

[[]k] Gallia Christiana, tom. vii. p. 68.

GILBERTUS PORRETANUS [1], a fubtle dialec-CENT. tician, and a learned divine, who is, however, faid XII. to have adopted feveral erroneous fentiments con-PART II. cerning The Divine Essence; The Incarnation; and The Trinity [m];

WILLIAM of Auxerre, who acquired a confider-

able reputation by his Theological System [n];

PETER of Blois [0], whose epistles and other

productions may yet be read with profit;

JOHN of Salisbury, a man of great learning and true genius, whose philosophical and theological knowledge was adorned with a lively wit and a flowing eloquence, as appears in his Metalogicus, and his book De nugis Curialium;

Petrus Comestor, author of An Abridgment of the Old and New Testament, which was used in the schools for the instruction of the youth, and called probably from thence, Historia Scholastica.

A more ample account of the names and characters of the Latin writers may be found in those authors who have professedly treated that branch of literature.

[1] GILBERT, De la Poirée.

[m] He held, among other things, this trifling and fophistical proposition, that the divine effence and attributes are not God; a proposition that was every way proper to exercise the quibbling spirit of the scholastic writers.

[n] Le Boeuf, Dissert. Jur la Somme Theologique de Guillaume L'Auxerre, in Molat's Continuation des Memoires d'Histoire et de

Litterature, tom. iii. part II. p. 317.

[0] PETRUS BLESENSIS.

CHAPTER III.

Concerning the doctrine of the Christian church in this century.

XII. corrupted more and more.

CENT.

I. WHEN we consider the multitude of causes which united their influence in obscuring the PART II lustre of genuine Christianity, and corrupting it by a prophane mixture of the inventions of superstitious Christianity and designing men with its pure and sublimedoctrines, it will appear furprising, that the religion of Jesus was not totally extinguished. All orders contributed, though in different ways, to corrupt the native purity of true religion. The Roman pontiffs led the way; they would not fuffer any doctrines that had the smallest tendency to diminish their despotic authority; but obliged the public teachers to interpret the precepts of Christianity in such a manner; as to render them subservient to the support of papal dominion and tyranny. This order was fo much the more terrible, in that fuch as refused to comply with it, and to force the words of scripture into fignifications totally opposite to the intention of its divine author, fuch, in a word, as had the courage to place the authority of the gospel above that of the Roman pontiffs, and to confider it as the supreme rule of their conduct, were answered with the for-midable arguments of fire and sword, and received death in the most cruel forms, as the fruit of their fincerity and resolution. The priests and monks contributed, in their way, to disfigure the beautiful simplicity of religion; and, finding it their interest to keep the people in the groffest ignorance and darkness, dazzled their feeble eyes with the ludicrous pomp of a gaudy worship, and led them to place the whole of religion in vain ceremonies,

bodily austerities and exercises, and particularly in CENT. a blind and stupid veneration for the clergy. The XII. scholastic doctors, who considered the decisions of PART II. the ancients and the precepts of the Dialecticians as the great rule and criterion of truth, instead of explaining the doctrines of the gospel, mined them by degrees, and sunk divine truth under the ruins of a captious philosophy; while the Mystics, running into the opposite extreme, maintained, that the souls of the truly pious were incapable of any spontaneous motions, and could only be moved by a divine impulse; and thus, not only set limits to the pretensions of reason, but excluded it entirely from religion and morality; nay, in some measure, denied its very existence.

II. The consequences of all this were superstition Superstiand ignorance, which were substituted in the place among the of true religion, and reigned over the multitude with multitude. an universal sway. Relics, which were for the most part fictitious, or at least uncertain, attracted more powerfully the confidence of the people, than the merits of Christ, and were supposed by many to be more effectual, than the prayers offered to heaven through the mediation and intercession of that divine Redeemer $\lceil p \rceil$. The opulent, whose circumstances enabled them either to erect new temples, or to repair and embellish the old, were looked upon as the happiest of all mortals, and were considered as the most intimate friends of the Most High. While they, whom poverty rendered incapable of fuch pompous acts of liberality, contributed to the multiplication of religious edifices by their bodily labours, cheerfully performed the fervices that beafts of burden are usually employed in, such as carrying stones and drawing waggons, and expected to obtain

[[]p] See Guibert de Novigento, De pignoribus (fo were relics called) fanctorum, in his Works published by Dacherius, p. 327. where he attacks, with judgment and dexterity, the superstition of these miserable times.

CENT. eternal falvation by these voluntary and painful XII. efforts of misguided zeal [q]. The saints had a PART II greater number of worshippers, than the Supreme

Being and the Saviour of mankind; nor did these superstitious worshippers trouble their heads about that knotty question, which occasioned much debate and many laborious disquisitions in succeeding times, viz. How the inhabitants of heaven came to the knowledge of the prayers and supplications that were addressed to them from the earth? This question was prevented in this century by an opinion, which the Christians had received from their Pagan ancestors, that the inhabitants of heaven descended often from above. and frequented the places in which they had formerly taken pleasure during their residence upon earth $\lceil r \rceil$. To finish the horrid portrait of superstition, we shall only observe, that the stupid credulity of the people in this century went so far, that when any person, either through the frenzy of a disordered imagination, or with a defign to deceive, published the dreams or visions, which they fancied, or pretended, they had from above, the multitude reforted to the new oracle, and respected its decisions as the commands of God, who, in this way, was pleafed, as they imagined, to communicate counsel, instruction, and the knowledge of his will to men. This appears, to mention no other examples, from the extraordinary reputation which the two famous prophetes HILDEGARD

[7] See HAYMON'S Treatise concerning this custom, published by MABILLON, at the end of the fixth tome of his Annal. Benedia.

See also these Annals, p. 392.

[[]r] As a proof that this affertion is not without foundation, we shall transcribe the following remarkable passage of the Life of St. Altman, bishop of Padua, as it stands in Seb. Tengnage's Collect. Vet. Monumentor. p. 41. Vos licet, sancti Domini, somno vestro requiescatis... haud tamen crediderim, spiritus vestros deesse locis qua viventes tanta devotione construxistis, et dilexistis. Credo vos adesse cunctis illic degentibus, astare videlicet orantibus, succurrere laborantibus, et vota singulorum in conspectu divina majestatis promovere.

abbess of Bingen, and Elizabeth of Schonauge, Cent. obtained in Germany [s]. XII.

III. This universal reign of ignorance and super-PART II. stition was dexterously, yet basely improved, by the Thescanda. rulers of the church, to fill their coffers, and to drain lous traffic the purses of the deluded multitude. And, indeed, of indulgenall the various ranks and orders of the clergy had the bilhops. each their peculiar method of fleecing the people. The bishops, when they wanted money for their private pleafures, or for the exigencies of the church, granted to their flock the power of purchasing the remission of the penalties imposed upon transgressors, by a fum of money; which was to be applied to certain religious purpofes; or, in other words, they published indulgences, which became an inexhaustible fource of opulence to the episcopal orders, and enabled them, as is well known, to form and execute the most difficult schemes for the enlargement of their authority, and to erect a multitude of facred edifices, which augmented confiderably the external pomp and fplendour of the church $\lceil t \rceil$. The abbots and monks, who were not qualified to grant indulgences, had recourse to other methods of enriching their convents. They carried about the country the carcaffes and relics of the faints in folemn procession, and permitted the multitude to behold, touch, and embrace these facred and lucrative remains at certain fixed prices. The monaftic orders gained often as much by this raree-show, as the bishops did by their indulgences $\lceil u \rceil$.

[[]s] See Mabillon, Annales Benedict. tom. vi. p. 431. 529.

[[]t] Stephanus, Obazinensis in Baluzii Miscellan. tom. iv. p. 130.—Mabilion, Annal. Benedict. tom. vi. p. 535, &c.

[[]n] We find in the records of this century innumerable examples of this method of extorting contributions from the multitude. See the Chronicon Centulense in Dachern Spicilegio Veter. Scriptor. tom. ii. p. 354.—Vita Sta. Romana, ibid. p. 137.—Mabillon, Annal. Benedict. tom vi. p. 342. 644.—Acta Sanctor. Mensis Maii, tom. vii. p. 533. where we have an account Vol. III.

XII. And afternopolized by the Roman pon-

tiffs.

CENT.

IV. When the Roman pontiffs cast an eye upon the immense treasures that the inferior rulers of the PART II. church were accumulating by the fale of indulgences, they thought proper to limit the power of the bishops And after-wards mo- in remitting the penalties imposed upon transgressors, and assumed, almost entirely, this profitable traffic to themselves. In consequence of this new measure, the court of Rome became the general magazine of indulgences; and the pontiffs, when either the wants of the church, the emptiness of their coffers, or the demon of avarice, prempted them to look out for new subsidies, published, not only an universal, but also a complete, or what they called a plenary remission of all the temporal pains and penalties, which the church had annexed to certain transgressions. They went still farther; and not only remitted the penalties, which the civil and ecclefiastical laws had enacted against transgressors, but audaciously usurped the authority which belongs to God alone, and impioutly pretended to abolish even the punishments which are referved in a future state for the workers of iniquity; a step this, which the bishops, with all their avarice and prefumption, had never once ventured to take [w].

The pontiffs first employed this pretended prerogative in promoting the holy war, and shed abroad their indulgences, though with a certain degree of moderation, in order to encourage the European princes to form new expeditions for the conquest of Palestine; but, in process of time, the charm of indulgences was practifed upon various occasions of

of a long journey made by the relics of St. Manculus .- MABIL-LON, Acta Sanctor. Ord. Benedict. tom. vi. p. 519, 520. & tomii. p. 732.

[w] Morinus, De administratione sucramenti panitentia, lib. х. сар. хх, ххі, ххіі. р. 768.—Rich. Simon, Biblioth. Gritique, tom. iii. cap. xxxiii. p. 371.—Mabillon, Praf. ad Alla Sanctor. Sac. v. Ada Sanctor. Benedict. p. 54. not to speak of the protestant writers, whom I designedly pass over.

much less consequence, and merely with a view CENT. to filthy lucre [x]. Their introduction, among XII. other things, destroyed the credit and authority PART III. of the ancient canonical and ecclefiaftical discipline of penance, and occasioned the removal and suppression of the penitentials [y], by which the reins were let loofe to every kind of vice. Such proceedings flood much in need of a plausible defence, but this was impossible. To justify therefore these scandalous measures of the pontiffs, a most monstrous and absurd doctrine was now invented, which was modified and embellished by St. Thomas in the following century, and which contained among others the following enormities; "That there actually existed "an immense treasure of merit, composed of the "pious deeds, and virtuous actions, which the faints " had performed beyond what was necessary for their "own falvation [z], and which were therefore "applicable to the benefit of others; that the guar-"dian and difpenfer of this precious treasure was the "Roman pontiff; and that of confequence he was " empowered to assign to such as he thought proper, " a portion of this inexhaustible source of merit, " fuitable to their respective guilt, and sufficient to "deliver them from the punishment due to their "crimes." It is a most deplorable mark of the power of superstition, that a doctrine, so absurd in its nature, and so pernicious in its effects, should yet be retained and defended in the church of Rame [a].

[[]x] Muratori Antig. Italic. medii ævi, tom. v. p. 761.—Franc. Pagi Breviar. Rom. Pontif. tom. ii. p. 60.—Theod. Ruinarti Vita Urbani II. p. 231. tom. iii. Opp. Posthum.

The Penitential was a book, in which the degree and kind of penance that were annexed to each crime, were regiltered.

These works are known by the name of Works of

Supererogation.

[[]a] For a fatisfactory and ample account of the enormous doctrine of indulgences, fee a very learned and judicious work, entitled, Lettres fur les Jubilés, published in the year 1751, in three volumes 8vo, by the Reverend Mr. Chais, minister of

CENT. XII. 'I he expofitors and tors of this century.

V. Nothing was more common in this century than expositors and interpreters of the facred PART II. writings; but nothing was fo rare, as to find, in that class of authors, the qualifications that are effentially required in a good commentator. Few of commenta- these expositors were attentive to search after the true fignification of the words employed by the facred writers, or to investigate the precise sense in which they were used; and these few were destitute of the fuccours which fuch refearches demand. The Greek and Latin commentators, blinded by their enthusiastic love of antiquity, and their implicit veneration for the doctors of the early ages of the church, drew from their writings, without discernment or choice, a heap of passages, which they were pleafed to confider as illustrations of the holy scriptures. Such were the commentaries of Euthymius ZIGABENUS, an eminent expositor among the Greeks, upon the Psalms, Gospels, and Epistles; though it must, at the same time, be acknowledged, that this writer follows, in some places, the dictates of his own judgment, and gives, upon certain occafions, proofs of penetration and genius. Among the Latins, we might give several examples of the injudicious manner of expounding the divine word that prevailed in this century, fuch as the Lucubrations of Peter Lombard, Gilbert de la Poree, and the famous ABELARD, upon the Pfalms of DAVID, and the Epistles of St. PAUL. Nor do those commentators among the Latins, who expounded the whole of the facred writings, and who are placed at the head of the expositors of this age, such as

> the French Church in the Hague, on occasion of the universal Jubilee celebrated at Rome the preceding year, by the order of BENEDICT XIV. In the 2d volume of this excellent work, which we shall have frequent occasion to consult in the course of this history, there is a clear account and a satisfactory resutation of the doctrine in question, as also the history of that monstrous practice from its origin to the present times.

GILBERT, bishop of London, furnamed the Universal, CENT. on account of the vast extent of his erudition [b], XII. and Hervey, a most studious Benedictine monk PART II. [c], deferve a higher place in our esteem, than the authors already mentioned. The writers that merit the preference among the Latins are RUPERT of Duytz, and Anselm of Laon; the former of whom expounded several books of scripture, and the latter composed, or rather compiled, a glossary upon the facred writings. As to those doctors who were not carried away by an enthusiastical veneration for the ancients, who had courage enough to try their own talents, and to follow the dictates of their own fagacity, they were chargeable with defects of another kind; for, difregarding and overlooking the beautiful simplicity of divine truth, they were perpetually bent on the fearch of all forts of mysteries in the facred writings, and were constantly on the fcent after fome hidden meaning in the plainest expressions of scripture. The people called Mystics excelled peculiarly in this manner of expounding; and forced, by their violent explications, the word of God into a conformity with their visionary doctrines, their enthusiastic feelings, and the system of discipline which they had drawn from the excursions of their irregular funcies. Nor were the commentators, who pretended to logic and philofophy, and who, in effect, had applied themselves to these profound sciences, free from the contagion of mysticism in their explications of scripture. They followed, on the contrary, the example of these fanatics, as may be feen by Hugh of St. Victor's Allegorical Exposition of the Old and New Testament,

[b] For an account of this prelate, see LE Boeuf, Memoires concernant l'Histoire d'Auxerre, tom. ii. p. 486.

[[]c] An ample account of this learned Benedictine is to be found in GABR. LIRON, Singularites Historique et Litteraires, tom. iii. p. 29.—See also MABILLON, Annales Benedict. tom. vi. p. 477. 719.

CENT. by the Mystical Ark of RICHARD of St. VICTOR, XII. and by the Mystical Commentaries of Guibert, Part II. abbot of Nogent, on Obadiah, Hosea, and Amos [d]; not to mention several other writers, who seem to have been animated by the same spirit.

The manner of teaching theology that now prevailed.

VI. The most eminent teachers of theology resided at Paris, which city was, from this time forward, frequented by students of divinity from all parts of Europe, who reforted thither in crowds, to receive instruction from these celebrated masters. The French divines were divided into different fects. The first of these seets, who were distinguished by the title of The Ancient Theologists, explained the doctrines of religion, in a plain and simple manner, by passages drawn from the holy scriptures, from the decrees of councils, and the writings of the ancient doctors, and very rarely made use of the succours of reason or philosophy in their theological lectures. In this class we place St. BERNARD, PETER, surnamed the Chanter, WALTER of St. VICTOR, and other doctors, who declared an open and bitter war against the philosophical divines. The doctors, which were afterwards known by the name of Politivi and Sententiarii, were not, in all respects, different from these now mentioned. Imitating the examples of Anselm, archbishop of Canterbury, Lanfranc, HILDEBERT, and other doctors of the preceding century, they taught and confirmed their fystem of theology, principally by collecting the decisions of the inspired writers, and the opinions of the ancients. At the fame time they were far from rejecting the fuccours of reason, and the discussions of philosophy, to which they more especially had recourse, when difficulties were to be folved, and adversaries to be refuted, but in the application of which, all did not discover the same degree of moderation and prudence.

[[]d] The Prologus in Abdiam has been published by MABILLON, in his Annales Benedict. tom. vi. p. 637.

HUGH of St. Victor is supposed to have been the CENT. first writer of this century, who taught in this manner the doctrines of Christianity, digested into PARTH. a regular fystem. His example, however, was followed by many; but none acquired fuch a shining reputation by his labours, in this branch of facred erudition, as Peter, bishop of Paris, surnamed LOMBARD, from the country which gave him birth. The Four books of Sentences of this eminent prelate, which appeared in the year 1172 [e], were not only received with univerfal applause, but acquired also such a high degree of authority, as induced the most learned doctors in all places to employ their labours in illustrating and expounding them. Scarcely was there any divine of note that did not undertake this popular task, except HENRY of Gendt, and a few others $\lceil f \rceil$; fo that LOMBARD, who was commonly called Master of the sentences, on account of the famous work now mentioned, became truly a claffic author in divinity [g].

[e] Erpoldi Lindenbrogii Scriptores Septemirionales, p. 250.

[f] A list of the commentators who laboured in explaining the Sentences of Peter Lombard, is given by Anton. Possevinus, in his Biblioth. Selecta, tom. i. lib. iii. cap. xiv. p. 242.

[g] The Book of Sentences, which rendered the name of PETER LOMBARD so illustrious, was a compilation of sentences and passages drawn from the fathers, whose manifold contradictions this eminent prelate endeavoured to reconcile. His work may be confidered as a complete body of divinity. It confifts of Four Books, each of which is subdivided into various chapters and fections. In the First he treats of the Trinity, and the Divine Attributes; in the SECOND, of the Creation in general, of the Origin of Angels, the Formation and Full of Man, of Grace and Free Will, of Original Sin and Adual Transgression; in the THIRD, of the Incarnation, and Perfections of Jefus Christ; of Faith, Hope, and Charity, of the Gifts of the Spirit, and the Commandments of God. The Sacraments, the Refurrection, the Last Judgment, and the State of the Righteous in Heaven, are the subjects treated in the Fourth and last book of this famous work, which was the wonder of the twelfth century, and is little more than an object of contempt in ours.

XII. The fcholastics, called.

VII. The followers of LOMBARD, who were CENT. called Sententiarii, though their manner of teaching PART II. was defective in some respects, and not altogether exempt from vain and trivial questions, were always attentive to avoid entering too far into the fubtilties properly so of the Dialecticians, nor did they presumptuously attempt submitting the divine truths of the gospel to the uncertain and obscure principles of a refined and intricate logic, which was rather founded on the excursions of fancy than on the nature of things. They had for contemporaries another fet of theologists, who were far from imitating their moderation and prudence in this respect; a set of subtile doctors, who taught the plain and fimple truths of Christianity, in the obscure terms and with the perplexing distinctions used by the Dialecticians, and explained, or rather darkened, with their unintelligible jargon, the fublime precepts of the wisdom that is from above. This method of teaching theology, which was afterwards called the scholastic system, because it was in general use in the schools, had for its author, PETER ABELARD, a man of the most subtile genius, whose public lectures in philosophy and divinity had raised him to the highest fummit of literary renown, and who was fuccessively canon of Paris, and monk and abbot of Ruys $\lceil h \rceil$. The fame he acquired by this new method engaged many ambitious divines to adopt it; and, in a fhort space of time, the followers of ABELARD multiplied prodigiously, not only in France, but also in England and Italy. Thus was the pure and peaceable wifdom of the gospel perverted into a science of mere sophistry and chicane; for these subtile doctors never explained or illustrated any subject, but, on the contrary, darkened and disfigured the plainest

[[]h] ABELARD acknowledges this himself, Epift. i. cap. ix. p. 20. Oper.—See also LAUNOIUS, De Scholis Caroli M. p. 67. cap, lix, tom, iv. opp. part I.

expressions, and the most evident truths, by their CENT. laboured and useless distinctions, fatigued both XII. themselves and others with unintelligible solutions PART II. of abstruse and frivolous questions, and through a rage for disputing, maintained with equal vehemence and ardour the opposite sides of the most serious and momentous questions [i].

VIII. From this period therefore, an important The Chrisdistinction was made between the Christian doctors, tian doctors divided into who were divided into two classes. In the first class two classes, were placed those, who were called by the various called biblica and f.b.b.dafnames of biblici, i. e. bible-doctors, dogmatici, and iics. positivi, i. e. didactic divines, and also veteres, or ancients; and in the fecond were ranged the scholastics, who were also distinguished by the titles of Sententiarii, after the Master of the sentences, and Novi, to express their recent origin. The former expounded, though in a wretched manner, the facred writings in their public schools, illustrated the doctrines of Christianity, without deriving any fuccours from reason or philosophy, and confirmed their opinions by the united testimonies of Scripture and Tradition. The latter expounded, instead of the Bible, the famous Book of Sentences; reduced, under the province of their fubtile philosophy, whatever the gospel proposed as an object of faith, or a rule of practice; and perplexed and obscured its divine doctrines and precepts by a multitude of vain queftions and idle speculations $\lceil k \rceil$. The method of the fcholastics exhibited a pompous aspect of learning, and these subtile doctors seemed to surpass their adversaries in fagacity and genius; hence they excited the admiration of the studious youth, who slocked to their schools in multitudes, while the biblici, or

[k] See Boulay, Histor. Acad. Parif. tom. iii. p. 657.

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[[]i] Cæs. Egasse de Boulay, Histor. Acad. Paris. tom. ii. p. 201. 583.—Anton. Wood, Antiquit. Oxoniens. tom. i. p. 58.—Launoius, De varia Aristotelis fortuna in Acad. Paris. cap. iii. p. 187. Edit. Elswichii Vitem. 1720. in 8vo.

CENT. doctors of the facred page, as they were also called, had XII. the mortification to see their auditories unfrequented,

PART II. and almost deserted [1]. The scholastic theology continued in high repute in all the European colleges until the time of LUTHER.

Thefcholaftic divines opposed from different quarters.

IX. It must, however, be observed, that these metaphysical divines had many difficulties to encounter, and much opposition to overcome, before they could obtain that boundless authority in the European schools, which they enjoyed so long. They were attacked from different quarters; on the one hand, by the ancient divines or bible-doctors; on the other, by the mystics, who considered true wisdom and knowledge as unattainable by study or reasoning, and as the fruit of mere contemplation, inward feeling, and a passive acquiescence in divine influences. Thus that ancient conflict between faith and reason, that had formerly divided the Latin doctors, and had been for many years hushed in silence, was now unhappily revived, and produced every where new tumults and diffensions. The patrons and defenders of the ancient theology, who attacked the schoolmen,

[1] The Book of Sentences seemed to be at this time in much greater repute than the Holy Scriptures, and the compilations of PETER LOMBARD were preferred to the doctrines and precepts of Jesus Christ. This appears evident from the following remarkable passage in Roger Bacon's Op. Maj. ad Clementem IV. Pentif. Rom. published in 1733 at London, by SAM. JEBR, from the original MSS. Baccalaureus qui legit tentum (scripturæ) fuccumbit lectori fententiarum, et ubique in omnibus honoratur et prefertur: nam ille, qui legit sententias habet, principalem horam legendi secundum suam voluntatem, habet et socium et cameram apud religiofos: fed qui legit Bibliam, caret his, et mendicat horam legendi secundum quod placet lectori sententiarum: et qui legit summas, disputat ubique et pro magistro habetur, reliquus qui textum legit, non potest disputare, sicut suit hoc anno Bononia, et in multis aliis locis, quod est absurdum: manisestum est igitur, quod textus illins sacultatis (sc. Theologica) fubjicitur uni summa magistrali. Such was now the authority of the scholastic theology, as appears from the words of Bacon, who lived in the following age, and in whose writings there are many things highly worthy of the attention of the curious.

were Guibert abbot of Nogent [m], Peter abbot Cfnt. of Moustier-la-Celle $\lceil n \rceil$, Peter the Chanter $\lceil o \rceil$, and principally WALTER of St. VICTOR []]. The PART II. mystics also fent forth into the field of controversy upon this occasion, their ablest and most violent champions, fuch as JOACHIM abbot of Flori, RICHARD of St. VICTOR, who loaded with invectives the scholastic divines, and more especially LOMBARD, though he was, undoubtedly, the most candid and modest doctor of that subtile tribe. These diffensions and contests, whose deplorable effects augmented from day to day, engaged ALEXANDER III. who was pontiff at this time, to interpose his authority, in order to reftore tranquillity and concord in the church. For this purpose he convoked a folemn and numerous affembly of the clergy in the year 1164 $\lceil q \rceil$, in which the licentious rage of disputing about religious matters was condemned; and another in the year 1179, in which some particular errors of Peter Lombard were pointed one and cenfured $\lceil r \rceil$.

X. But of all the adversaries that assailed the And principle feholastic divines in this century, none was so formipally by St dable as the samous St. Bernard, whose zeal was ardent beyond all expression, and whose influence and authority were equal to his zeal. And, accordingly, we find this illustrious abbot combating the

[m] In his Tropologia in Ofeam, p. 203. Opp.

[n] Opuscul. p. 277. 396. edit. Benedict.

[0] In his Verbum Abbreviat. cap. iii. p. 6, 7. published at Mons in the year 1639, in 4to, by GEORGE GALOPIN.

[p] In his Libri iv. contra Quatuor Francia Labyrinthos et novos hareticos. He called Abelard, Gilbert de la Porée, Lombard, and Peter of Poitiers, who were the principal scholastic divines of this century, the four Labyrinths of France. For an account of this work, which is yet in manuscript, see Boulay, Hist Acad. Paris. tom. ii. p. 619. 659.

[q] Ant. Pagi Critic. in Baronium, tom. iv. ad A. 1164.

p. 614, 615.

[r] MATTH. PARIS, Histor. Major, p. 115.—BOULAY, Histor. Acad. Paris, tom. ii. p. 402.

XII. Versation, but also by his deeds; arming against them
PART II. synods and councils, the decrees of the church, and

the laws of the state. The renowned ABELARD, who was as much superior to St. Bernard in fagacity and erudition, as he was his inferior in credit and authority, was one of the first, who felt, by a bitter experience, the aversion of the lordly abbot to the scholastic doctors: for, in the year 1121, he was called before the council of Soiffons, and before that of Sens in the year 1140, in both of which affemblies he was accused by St. Bernard of the most pernicious errors, and was finally condemned as an egregious heretic [s]. The charge brought against this subtile and learned monk was, that he had notoriously corrupted the doctrine of the Trinity. blasphemed against the majesty of the Holy Ghost, entertained unworthy and false conceptions of the person and offices of Christ, and the union of the two natures in him, denied the necessity of the divine grace to render us virtuous, and in a word, that his doctrines struck at the fundamental principles of all religion. It must be confessed by those who are acquainted with the writings of ABELARD, that he expressed himself in a very singular and incongruous manner upon feveral points of theology [t]; and this indeed is one of the inconveniencies to which fubtile refinements upon mysterious doctrines frequently lead. But it is certain, on the other hand,

[s] See BAYLE's Dictionary, at the Article ABELARD.—GERVAIS, Vie d'Abelard et d'Heloise.—Mabilion, Annal. Benedict. tom. vi. p. 63. 84. 324. 395.—Martene, Thesaur. Anecdotor. tom. v. p. 1139.

unintelligible and extravagant, that the names Father, Son, and Holy Ghost, were improper terms, and were only used to express the fullness of the sovereign good; that the Father was the plenitude of power, the Son a certain power, and the Holy Ghost no power at all; that the Holy Ghost was the soul of the world, with other crude fancies of a like nature, mingled, however, with bold truths.

that St. Bernard, who had much more genius cent. than logic, mifunderstood some of the opinions of XII. Abelard, and wilfully perverted others. For the Part II. zeal of this good abbot too rarely permitted him to consult in his decisions the distates of impartial equity; and hence it was, that he almost always applauded beyond measure, and censured without mercy [u].

XI. ABELARD was not the only scholastic divine who paid dear for his metaphyfical refinement upon the doctrines of the gospel, and whose logic exposed him to the unrelenting fury of perfecution; GILBERT DE LA POREE, bishop of Poitiers, who had taught theology and philosophy at *Paris*, and in other places, with the highest applause, met with the same fate. Unfortunately for him, ARNOLD and CALO, two of his archdeacons, who had been educated in the principles of the ancient theology, heard him one day disputing, with more subtility than was meet, concerning the divine nature. Alarmed at the novelty of his doctrine, they brought a charge of blasphemy against him before pope Eugenius III. who was at that time in France; and, to give weight to their accufation, they gained over St. BERNARD, and engaged him in their cause. The zealous abbot treated the matter with his usual vehemence, and opposed GILBERT with the utmost feverity and bitterness, first in the council of Paris, A. D. 1147, and afterwards in that which was

[u] See Gervais, Vie d'Abelard, tom. ii. p. 162.—Le Clerc, Biblioth. Ancienne et Moderne, tom. ix. p. 352.—Dionys. Perav. Dogmata Theolog. tom. i. lib. v. cap. vi. p. 217. as also the works of Bernard, passim. Abelard, who, notwithstanding all his crude notions, was a man of true genius, was undoubtedly worthy of a better fate than that which fell to his lot, and of a more enlightened age than that in which he lived. After passing through the surnace of persecution, and having suffered afflictions of various kinds, of which he has transmitted the history to posterity, he retired to the monastery of Chigni, where he ended his days in the year 1142.

CENT. affembled at Rheims the year following. In this latter council the accused bishop, in order to put an PART II. end to the dispute, offered to submit his opinions to the judgment of the affembly, and of the Roman pontiff, by whom they were condemned. The errors attributed to GILBERT were the fruits of an excessive fubtility, and of an extravagant paffion for reducing the doctrines of Christianity under the empire of metaphysic and dialectic. He distinguished the divine essence from the Deity, the properties of the three divine persons from the persons themselves, not in reality, but by abstraction, in statu rationis, as the metaphylicians speak; and, in consequence of these distinctions, he denied the incarnation of the divine nature. To these he added other opinions, derived from the same source, which were rather vain, fanciful, and adapted to excite furprife by their novelty, than glaringly false, or really pernicious. These refined notions were far above the comprehension of good St. BERNARD, who was by no means accustomed to fuch profound disquisitions, to fuch intricate refearches [w].

The state of moral and practical theology.

XII. The important science of morals was not now in a very flourishing state, as may be easily imagined when we consider the genius and spirit of that philosophy, which, in this century, reduced all the other sciences under its dominion, and of which we have given some account in the preceding sections. The only moral writer among the Greeks, who is worthy of mention, is Philip, surnamed the Solitary, whose book intitled Dioptra, which consists in a dialogue between the body and the soul, is composed with judgment and elegance, and con-

[[]w] See Du Boulay, Hist. Acad. Paris. tom. ii. p. 223. 232.—Mabilion, Annal. Benedictin. tom. vi. p. 343. 415. 433.—Gallia Christiana Benedictin. tom. ii. p. 1175.—Matth. Paris, Histor. Major, p. 56.—Petavii Dogmata Theologica, tom. i. lib. i. cap. viii.—Longueval, Histoire de l'Eglise Gallicane, tom. ix. p. 147.

tains many things proper to nourish pious and CENT. virtuous sentiments.

The Latin Moralists of this age may be divided PART II. into two classes, the scholastics and mystics. The former discoursed about virtue, as they did about truth, in the most unfeeling jargon, and generally subjoined their arid system of morals to what they called their didactic theology. The latter treated the duties of morality in a quite different manner; their language was tender, persuasive, and affecting, and their sentiments often beautiful and sublime; but they taught in a consused and irregular manner, without method or precision, and frequently mixed the dross of Platonism with the pure treasures of celestial truth.

We might also place in the class of moral writers the greatest part of the commentators and expositors of this century, who, laying aside all attention to the signification of the words used by the facred writers, and scarcely ever attempting to illustrate the truths they reveal, or the events which they relate, turned, by forced and allegorical explications, every passage of scripture to practical uses, and drew lessons of morality from every quarter. We could produce many instances of this way of commenting besides Guibert's Moral Observations on the book of Job, the Prophecy of Amos, and the Lamentations of Jeremiah.

XIII. Both Greeks and Latins were feized with Polemic that enthusiastic passion for dialectical refearches, writered that raged in this century, and were thereby rendered extremely fond of captious questions and theological contests, while, at the same time, the love of controversy seduced them from the paths that lead to truth, and involved them in labyrinths of uncertainty and error. The discovery of truth was not, indeed, the great object they had in view; their principal design was to puzzle and embarrass their adversaries, and overwhelm them with an

CENT. enormous heap of fine-spun distinctions, an impetuous torrent of words without meaning, a long lift of

PART 11. formidable authorities, and a specious train of fallacious confequences embellished with railings and invectives. The principal polemic writers among the Greeks were Constantinus Harmenopu-LUS, and EUTHYMIUS ZIGABENUS. The former published a short treatise De Sectis Hæreticorum, i. e. concerning the Heretical Sects. The latter, in a long and laboured work, entitled Panoplia, attacked all the various herefies and errors that troubled the church; but, not to mention the extreme levity and credulity of this writer, his manner of disputing was highly defective, and all his arguments, according to the wretched method that now prevailed. were drawn from the writings of the ancient doctors, whose authority supplied the place of evidence. Both these authors were sharply censured in a satirical poem composed by Zonaras. The Latin writers were also employed in various branches of religious controversy. Honorius of Autun wrote against certain herefies; and ABELARD combated them all. The Jews, whose credit was now entirely funk, and whose circumstances were miserable in every respect, were resuted by GILBERT DE CAS-TILIONE, ODO, PETRUS ALFONSUS, RUPERT of Duytz, Petrus Mauritius, Richardus a Sto. VICTORE, and PETRUS BLESENSIS, according to the logic of the times, and EUTHYMIUS, with feveral other divines, directed their polemic force against the Saracens.

XIV. The contest between the Greeks and Latins, between the the subject of which has been already mentioned, Latins con- was still carried on by both parties with the greatest obstinacy and vehemence. The Grecian champions were Euthymius, Nicetas, and others of less renown, while the cause of the Latins was vigoroufly maintained by Anselm, bishop of Havelsberg, and Hugo ETHERIANUS, who distinguished

themselves eminently by their erudition in this famous CENT. controversy [x]. Many attempts were made both x11. at Rome and Constantinople, to reconcile these differ-PART II. ences, and to heal these fatal divisions; and this union was folicited, in a particular manner, by the emperors in the Comnene family, who expected to draw much advantage from the friendship and alliance of the Latins, towards the support of the Grecian empire, which was at this time in a declining, nay, almost in a desperate condition. But as the Latins aimed at nothing less than a despotic fupremacy over the Greek church, and as, on the other hand, the Grecian bishops could by no means be induced to yield an implicit obedience to the Roman pontiff, or to condemn the measures and proceedings of their ancestors, the negociations, undertaken for the restoration of peace, widened the breach instead of healing it, and the terms proposed on both sides, but especially by the Latins, exasperated, instead of calming, the resentments and animosities of the contending parties.

XV. Many controversies of inferior moment were Matters of carried on among the Greeks, who were extremely less moment fond of disputing, and were scarcely ever without ed among debates upon religious matters. We shall not enter the Greeks, into a circumstantial narration of these theological contests, which are more proper to fatigue than to amuse or instruct, but shall confine ourselves to a brief mention of those which made the greatest noise in the empire. Under the reign of EMANUEL COMNENUS, whose extensive learning was accompanied with an excessive curiosity, several theological controversies were carried on, in which he himself bore a principal part, and which somented such discords and animosities among a people already exhausted and dejected by intestine tumults, as

[[]N] See LEO ALLATIUS De perpetua consensione Ecelesia Oriental. et Occident. lib. ii. cap. xi. p. 644.
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CENT. threatened their destruction. The first question that exercifed the metaphysical talent of this over-curious PART II emperor and his fubtile doctors was this: In what sense it was or might be affirmed, that an incarnate God was at the same time the OFFERER and the OBLA-TION? When this knotty question had been long debated, and the emperor had maintained, for a confiderable time, the folution of it that was contrary to the opinion generally received, he yielded at length, and embraced the popular notion of that unintelligible subject. The consequence of this step was, that many men of eminent abilities and great credit, who had differed from the doctrine of the church upon this article, were deprived of their honours and employments [y]. What the emperor's opinion of this matter was, we find no where related in a fatisfactory manner, and we are equally ignorant of the fentiments adopted by the church in relation to this question. It is highly probable that the emperor, followed by certain learned doctors, differed from the opinions generally received among the Greeks concerning the Lord's supper, and the oblation or facrifice of Christ in that holy

The Greeks cerning the words of

ordinance.

XVI. Some years after this, a still more warm dispute con- contest arose concerning the sense of those words of CHRIST, John xiv. 28. For my Father is greater Christ, John than I, and divided the Greeks into the most bitter aiv. 28. and deplorable factions. To the ancient explications of that important passage new illustrations were now added; and the emperor himself, who, from an indifferent prince, was become a wretched divine, published an exposition of that remarkable text, which he obtruded, as the only true fense of the words, upon a council affembled for that purpose, and was defirous of having received as a rule of

[[]v] NICETAS CHONIATES, Annal. Lib. vii. § 5. p. 112. cd. Veneta.

faith by all the Grecian clergy. He maintained, CENT. that the words in question related to the flesh that x11. was hid in Christ, and that was passible, i. e. subject to PART II. fusiering [z], and not only ordered this decision to be engraven on tables of stone in the principal church of Constantinople, but also published an edict, in which capital punishments were denounced against all fuch as should presume to oppose this explication, or teach any doctrine repugnant to it $\lceil a \rceil$. This edict, however, expired with the emperor by whom it was issued out, and Andronicus, upon his accession to the imperial throne, prohibited all those contests concerning speculative points of theology, that arose from an irregular and wanton curiofity, and fuppressed, in a more particular manner, all inquiry into the subject now mentioned, by enacting the feverest penalties against such as should in any way contribute to revive this difpute $\lceil b \rceil$.

XVII. The same theological emperor troubled the Concerning church with another controversy concerning the God the God of MAHOMET. The Greek Catechisms pronounced anathema against the Deity worshipped by that salse prophet, whom they represented as a folid and spherical Being [c]; for so they translated the Arabian word elsemed, which is applied in the koran to the Supreme Being, and which indeed is susceptible of that sense, though it also signifies eternal [d]. The emperor ordered this anathema to be essayed in the Catechism of the Greek church, on account of the high offence it gave to the Mahometans, who had either been already converted to Christianity, or were disposed to embrace that divine religion, and who were extremely shocked at such an insult offered

[[]z] Καθά την έν αυτῷ κθισην καὶ σαθηθήν σάρκα.

[[]a] NICETAS CHONIATES Annal. lib. vii. § 6. p. 113.

b NICETAS in Andronico, lib. ii. § 5. p. 175.

 $[\]lceil c \rceil$ 'Ολόσφαιρος.

[[]d] RELAND. De Religione Mohammedica, lib. ii. § 3. p. 142.

CENT. to the name of God, with whatever restrictions and conditions it might be attended. The Christian PART II. doctors, on the other hand, opposed with much resolution and vehemence this imperial order. They observed that the anathema, pronounced in the Catechism, had no relation to the nature of God in general, nor to the true God in particular; and that, on the contrary, it was folely directed against the error of Mahomet, against that phantom of a divinity which he had imagined. For that impostor pretended that the Deity could neither be engendered nor engender; whereas the Christians adore God the Father. After the bitterest disputes concerning this abstruse subject, and various efforts to reconcile the contending parties, the bishops affembled in council, confented, though with the utmost difficulty, transfer the imprecation of the Catechism from the God of MAHOMET, to MAHOMET himself, his doctrine, and his fect $\lceil e \rceil$.

The controverfy con-cerning the ried on among the Latins.

XVIII. The spirit of controversy raged among the Latins, as well as among the Greeks, and Lord's fup-various fentiments concerning the facrament of the per is car- Lord's fupper were propagated, not only in the schools, but also in the writings of the learned. For though all the doctors of the church were now extremely defirous of being looked upon as enemies to the system of BERENGER, yet many of them, and among others [f] Rupert of Duytz, differed very little from the fentiments of that great man; at least, it is certain, that notwithstanding the famous controverfy which had arisen in the church concerning the opinions of BERENGER, nothing was, as yet, precifely determined with respect to the manner of CHRIST's presence in the eucharist.

RUPERT had also religious contests of another nature with Anselm, bishop of Laon, William

[[]e] NICETÆ CHON. Annales, lib. vii. p. 113-116. [f] Boulay, Histor. Academ. Paris. tom. ii. p. 30.

of Champeaux, and their disciples and followers, CENT. who maintained their doctrine when they were no XII. more. The divine will and the divine omnipotence PART II. were the fubjects of this controversy, and the question debated was, "Whether God really willed, " and actually produced all things that exist, or wheso ther there are certain things whose existence he "merely permits, and whose production, instead of "being the effect of his will, was contrary to it?" The affirmative of the latter part of this question was maintained by RUPERT, while his adversaries held that all things were the effects not only of the divine power, but also of the divine will. This learned abbot was also accused of having taught that the angels were formed out of darkness; that CHRIST did not administer his body to Judas in the last supper; and several other doctrines [g], contrary to the received opinions of the church.

XIX. These and other controversies of a more As also that private kind, which made little noise in the world, concerning were succeeded, about the year 1140, by one of a culate conmore public nature, concerning, what was called, ception of the Immaculate conception of the Virgin MARY [b]. Mary. Certain churches in France began, about that time, to celebrate the sestival consecrated to this pretended conception, which the English had observed before this period in consequence of the exhortations of Anselm archbishop of Canterbury, as some authors report. The church of Lions was one of the first that adopted this new session, which no sooner came to the knowledge of St. Bernard, than he severely censured the Canons of Lions on account of this

[[]g] See Mengoz, Epistola, published by Martene, in his Thesaur. Anecdotor. tom. i. p. 290.—Jo. Mabillon, Annal. Benedia. tom. vi. p. 19, 20. 42. 168. 261.

The defenders of this Immaculate Conception maintained, that the Virgin Mary was conceived in the womb of her mother with the same purity that is attributed to Christ's conception in her womb.

CENT. innovation, and opposed the Immaculate conception of the Virgin with the greatest vigour, as it supposed PART II. her being honoured with a privilege which belonged to Christ alone. Upon this a warm contest arose; some siding with the Canons of Lions, and adopting the new festival, while others adhered to the sentiments of St. Bernard [i]. The controversy, however, notwithstanding the zeal of the contending parties, was carried on, during this century, with a certain degree of decency and moderation. But, in after-times, when the Dominicans were established in the academy of Paris, the contest was renewed with the greatest vehemence, and the same subject was debated, on both fides, with the utmost animosity and contention of mind. The Dominicans declared for St. BERNARD, while the academy patronized the Canons of Lions, and adopted the new festival.

CHAPTER IV.

Concerning the rites and ceremonies used in the church during this century.

Rites used in the Greek church. I. HE rites and ceremonies used in divine worship, both public and private, were now greatly augmented among the Greeks, and the same superstitious passion for the introduction of new observances, discovered itself in all the eastern churches. The Grecian, Nestorian, and Jacobite pontists, that were any way remarkable for their

[i] Sti. Bernardi Epistola 174. tom. i. p. 170.—Boulay, Hist. Acad. Paris. tom. ii. p. 135.—Mabilion, Annal. Bened. tom. vi. p. 327.—Dom. Colonia, Hist. Litt. de la Ville de Lyon, som. ii. p. 233.

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credit or ambition, were defirous of transmitting their CENT. names to posterity by the invention of some new XII. rite, or by fome striking change introduced into the PART II. method of worship that had hitherto prevailed. This was, indeed, almost the only way left to distinguish themselves in an age, where all sense of the excellence of genuine religion and substantial piety being almost totally lost, the whole care and attention of an oftentatious clergy, and a superstitions multitude, were employed upon that round of external ceremonies and observances that were substituted in their place. Thus fome attempted, though in vain, to render their names immortal, by introducing a new method of reading or reciting the prayers of the church; others changed the church music; others again tortured their inventions to find out fome new mark of veneration, that might be offered to the relics and images of the faints; while feveral ecclesiastics did not disdain to employ their time, with the most serious affiduity, in embellishing the garments of the clergy, and in forming the motions and postures they were to observe, and the looks they were to assume, in the celebration of divine worship.

II. We may learn from the book De divinis The Latin officiis, composed by the famous Rupert, or Ro-ritual.

Bert, of Duytz, what were the rights in use among the Latins during this century, as also the reasons on which they were founded. According to the plan we follow, we cannot here enlarge upon the additions that were made to the doctrinal part of religion. We shall therefore only observe, that the enthusiastic veneration for the Virgin Mary, which had been hitherto carried to such an excessive height, increased now instead of diminishing, since her dignity was at this time considerably augmented by the new sistion or invention relating to her immaculate conception. For though, as we observed in the preceding chapter, St. Bernard and others opposed

WII. were counteracted by the superstitious sury of the PART II. deluded multitude, whose judgment prevailed over the counsels of the wise. So that, about the year 1138, there was a solemn festival instituted in honour of this pretended conception, though we know not, with any degree of certainty, by whose authority it was first established, nor in what place it was first celebrated [k].

CHAPTER V.

Concerning the divisions and herefies that troubled the church during this century.

Fanatics of different kinds infest the Greek church.

HE Greek and eastern churches were infested with fanatics of different kinds, who gave them much trouble, and engaged them in the most warm and violent contests. Certain of these fanatics professed to believe in a double trinity, rejected wedlock, abstained from slesh, treated with the utmost contempt the facraments of baptism and the Lord's supper, as also all the various branches of external worship, placed the essence of religion in internal prayer alone, and maintained, as it is faid, that an evil being, or genius, dwelt in the breast of every mortal, and could be expelled from thence by no other method, than by perpetual fupplications to the Supreme Being. The founder of this euthufiaftical feet is faid to have been a person called Lucopetrus. His chief disciple was named Tychicus

[[]k] Mabillon, Annal. Bened. tom. vi. p. 327. 412.—Gallia Christiana, tom. i. p. 1198.

who corrupted, by false and fanatical interpre-cent. tations, feveral books of the facred writings, and XII. particularly the Gospel according to St. Matthew [1]. PART II. İt is well known, that enthusiasts of this kind, who were rather wrong-headed than vicious, lived among the Greeks and Syrians, and more especially among the monks, for many ages before this period, and also in this century. The accounts, indeed, that have been given of them, are not in all respects to be depended upon; and there are feveral circumstances which render it extremely probable, that many persons of eminent piety, and zeal for genuine Christianity, were confounded by the Greeks with these enthusiasts, and ranked in the list of heretics, merely on account of their opposing the vicious practices and the infolent tyranny of the priesthood, and their treating with derifion that motley spectacle of fuperstition that was supported by public authority. In Greece, and in all the eastern provinces, this fort of men were distinguished by the general and invidious appellation of Massalians, or Euchites, $\lceil m \rceil$, as the Latins comprehended all the adversaries of the Roman pontiff under the general terms of Waldenses and Albigenses. It is, however, necessary to

[1] See Euthymii Triumphus de Secta Maffalianorum in Jac. Tollii Insignibus Itineris Italici, p. 106—125.

Im Massalians and Euchites are denominations that signify the same thing, and denote, the one in the Hebrew, and the other in the Greek language, persons that pray. A sect, under this denomination, arose during the reign of the emperor Constantius, about the year 361, sounded by certain monks of Mesopotamia, who dedicated themselves wholly to prayer, and held many of the doctrines attributed by Dr. Mosheim to the Massalians of the twelfth century. See August. De Hæres. cap. lvii. and Theod. Hæret. Fab. lib. iv. Epiphanius speaks of another fort of Massalians still more ancient, who were mere Gentiles, acknowledged several gods, yet adored only one whom they called Almighty, and had oratories in which they assembled to pray and sing hymns. This resemblance between the Massalians and Essens, induced Scaliger to think that Epiphanius consounded the former with the latter.

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vague and ambiguous in the way they were applied PARTIL by the Greeks and the Orientals, who made use of them to characterize, without distinction, all such as complained of the multitude of useless ceremonies, and of the vices of the clergy, without any regard to the difference that there was between such persons in point of principles and morals. In short, the righteous and the profligate, the wise and the soolish, were equally comprehended under the name of Massalians, whenever they opposed the raging superstition of the times, or looked upon true and genuine piety

as the effence of the Christian character.

The Bogopiles.

II. From the feet now mentioned, that of the Bogomiles is faid to have proceeded, whose founder Basilius, a monk by profession, was burnt at Constantinople, under the reign of ALEXIUS COMNENUS, after all attempts to make him renounce his errors had proved ineffectual. By the accounts we have of this unhappy man, and of the errors he taught, appears sufficiently evident, that his doctrine refembled, in a striking manner, the religious system of the ancient Gnostics and Manichæans; though, at the same time, it is possible that the Greeks may have falfified his tenets in some respects. Basilius maintained, that the world and all animal bodies were formed not by the Deity, but by an evil demon, who had been cast down from heaven by the Supreme Being; from whence he concluded, that the body was no more than the prison of the immortal spirit, and that it was, therefore, to be enervated by fasting, contemplation, and other exercises, that so the soul might be gradually reflored to its primitive liberty; for this purpose also wedlock was to be avoided, with many other circumstances which we have often had occasion to explain and repeat in the course of this history. It was in consequence of the same principles, that this unfortunate enthusiast denied the reality of Christ's body, which, like the Gnostics

and Manichæans, he confidered only as a phan-cent. tom, rejected the law of Moses, and maintained xII. that the body, upon its separation by death, returned PARTII. to the malignant mass of matter, without either the prospect or possibility of a future resurrection to life and selicity. We have so many examples of fanatics of this kind in the records of ancient times, and also in the history of this century, that it is by no means to be wondered, that some one of them more enterprising than the rest should found a sect among the Greeks. The name of this sect was taken from the divine mercy, which its members are said to have incessantly implored; for the word bogonilus, in the Mysian language, signifies calling out for mercy from above [n].

III. The Latin fects were yet more numerous The Latin than those of the Greeks, and this will not appear at the abuses all surprising to such as consider the state of religions from whence in the greatest part of the European provinces. they sprung. The reign of superstition, the vices of the clergy, the luxury and indolence of the pontiss and bishops, the encouragement of impiety by the traffic of indulgences, increasing from day to day, several pious, though weak men, who had the cause of CHRIST and of his religion at heart, easily perceived that both were in a most declining and miserable state, and therefore attempted a reformation in the church, in order to restore Christianity to its primitive purity and lustre. But the knowledge of these good men was not equal to their zeal, nor were their abilities in any proportion to the grandeur of their undertakings. The greatest part of them were destitute both of learning and judgment, and,

[[]n] See Anna Comnena Alexiados, lib. xv. p. 384. edit. Veneta.—Zonaras Annalium, lib. xviii. p. 336.—Jo. Christ. Wolf, Historia Bogomilorum, published at Witteberg, in 4to, 1712.—Sam. Andre Diss. Bogomilis in Jo. Volgtii Bibliotheca Historia Haresiologica, tom. i. part. II. p. 121. Chr. Aug. Heumanni Dissertat. de Bogomilis.

understood but very imperfectly the holy scriptures, understood but very imperfectly the holy scriptures, the abuses that had been mingled with it could only be reformed. In a word, few of these well-meaning Christians were equal to an attempt so difficult and arduous as an universal reformation; and the consequence of this was, that while they avoided the reigning abuses, they fell into others that were as little consistent with the genius of true religion, and carried the spirit of censure and reformation to such an excessive length, that it degenerated often into the various extravagancies of enthusiasm, and engendered a number of new sects, that became a new

The Ca-

dishonour to the Christian cause. IV. Among the fects that troubled the Latin church during this century, the principal place is due to the Catharists, whom we have had already occasion to mention [o]. This numerous faction, leaving their first residence, which was in Bulgaria, spread themselves throughout almost all the European provinces, where they occasioned much tumult and disorder; but their fate was unhappy; for, wherever they were caught, they were put to death with the most unrelenting cruelty [p]. Their religion resembled the doctrine of the Manichæans and Gnostics, on which account they commonly received the denomination of the former, though they differed from the genuine and primitive Manichæans in many respects. They all indeed agreed in the following points of doctrine: viz. That matter was the fource of all evil; that the Creator of this world was a

[0] See Cent. III. PART II. CH. V. § XVIII. but principally for that fort of Catharifts here mentioned, see above Cent. XI. Part II. Ch. V. § II.

[p] See the accounts given of this unhappy and perfecuted feet by Charles Plessis D'Argentre in his Collectio judiciorum de novis erroribus, tom. i. in which, however, feveral circum-flances are omitted.

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being distinct from the Supreme Deity; that CHRIST CENT. was not cloathed with a real body, neither could be XII. properly faid to have been born, or to have feen PART II. death; that human bodies were the production of the evil principle; and that baptifm and the Lord's supper were useless institutions destitute of all efficacy and power. They exhorted all who embraced their doctrine to a rigorous abstinence from animal food, wine, and wedlock, and recommended to them in the most pathetic terms the most severe acts of austerity and mortification. They moreover treated with the utmost contempt all the books of the Old Testament, but expressed a high degree of veneration for the New, particularly for the Four Gospels; and, to pass over many other peculiarities in their doctrine, they maintained, that human fouls, endued with reason, were shut up by an unhappy fate in the dungeons of mortal bodies, from whence they could only be delivered by fasting, mortification, and continence of every kind $\lceil q \rceil$.

V. These principles and tenets, though they were The Catha-adopted and professed by the whole sect, yet were risks divided differently interpreted and modified by different sects. doctors. Hence the Catharists were divided into various sects, which, however, on account of the general persecution in which they were all involved, treated each other with candour and forbearance, disputed with moderation, and were thus careful not to augment their common calamity by intestine seuds and animosities. Out of these different sactions arose two leading and principal sects of the Catharists, which were distinguished from the rest by the number of their respective followers, and the importance of their differences. The one approached pretty

[[]q] Besides the writers which shall be mentioned presently, see the Disputatio inter Catholicum et Paterinum, published by MARTENE, in his Thesaur. Anecdotor. tom. v. p. 1703. as also Bonacursi Manifestatio Haresis Catharorum in Luc. Dacherii Spicilegio, tom. i. p. 208.

CENT. nearly to the Manichæan system, held the doctrine XII. of two eternal Beings, from whom all things are PART II. derived, the God of light, who was also the father of

JESUS CHRIST, and the principle of darkness, whom they considered as the author of the material world. The other believed in one eternal principle, the FATHER of CHRIST, and the supreme God, by whom also they held that the first matter was created; but they added to this, that the evil being, after his rebellion against God and his fall from heaven, arranged this original matter according to his fancy, and divided it into four elements, in order to the production of this visible world. The former maintained, that CHRIST being cloathed with a celestial body descended thus into the womb of the Virgin, and derived no part of his substance from her; while the latter taught, that he first assumed a real body in the womb of MARY, though not from her [r]. The fect, which held the doctrine of two principles, were called Albanenses, from the name of the place where their spiritual ruler resided; and this sect was fubdivided into two, of which one took the name of BALAZINANSA, bishop of Verona, and the other that of John de Lugio, bishop of Bergamo. The feet which adhered to the doctrine of one eternal principle was also subdivided into the congregation of Baioli, the capital town of the province, and that of Concoregio, or Concorezzo. The Albigenses, who were settled in France, belonged to the church or congregation of Baioli [s].

[r] See BERN. MONETA, in fumma adversus Catharos et Weldenses, published at Rome, in the year 1743, by Thom. August. Richini, who prefixed to it a differtation concerning the Cathari, that is by no means worthy of the highest encomiums. Moneta was no mean writer for the time in which he lived. See Lib. i. p. 2. & 5. Lib. ii. p. 247, &c.

[s] RAINERI SACHONI fumma de Catharis et Leonistis in MARTENE Thesaur. Ancedet. tom. v. p. 1761. 1768.—PERE-GRINUS PRESCIANUS in MURATORII Antiq. Ital. medii ævi, tom. v. p. 93. who exhibits, in a sort of table, these different

VI. In the internal constitution of the church that CENT. was founded by this fect, there were many rules and XII. principles of a fingular nature, which we pass over PART II. in silence, as they would oblige us to enter into a detail inconfistent with the brevity we propose to observe in this work. The government of this church was administered by bishops, and each bishop had two vicars, of whom one was called the eldest fon, and the other the younger; while the rest of the clergy and doctors were comprehended under the general denomination of deacons [t]. The veneration, which the people had for the clergy in general, and more especially for the bishops and their spiritual fons, was carried to a length that almost exceeds credibility. The discipline observed by this sect was fo excessively rigid and austere, that it was practicable only by a certain number of robust and determined fanatics. But that fuch as were not able to undergo this discipline might not, on that account, be lost to the cause, it was thought necessary, in imitation of the ancient Manichæans, to divide this fect into two classes, one of which was distinguished by the title of the consolati, i. e. comforted, while the other received only the denomination of confederates. The former gave themselves out for persons of confummate wisdom and extraordinary piety, lived in perpetual celibacy, and led a life of the feverest mortification and abstinence, without

fects, but by a mistake places the Albigenses, who were a branch of the Baiolenses, in the place of the Albanenses; this, perhaps, may be an error of the press. The opinions of these Baiolenses, or Bagnolenses, may be seen in the Codex Inquisitionis Tolosanse which Limborch published with his History of the Inquisition. The account, however, which we have in that history (Book I. Ch. VIII.) of the opinions of the Albigenses is by no means accurate. A great variety of causes has contributed to involve in darkness and perplexity the distinctive characters of these different sects, whose respective systems we cannot enlarge upon at present.

[t] See Sachoni summa de Catharis, p. 1766.

XII. worldly comfort. The latter, if we except a few rest of mankind, but at the same time were obliged by a solemn agreement they had made with the church, and which, in Italian, they called la convenence, to enter before their death, in their last moments, if not sooner, into the class of the comforted; and to receive the consolemntum, which was the form of inauguration by which they were introduced into that fanatical order [u].

The Petrobruffians.

VII. A much more rational feet was that which was founded about the year 1110 in Languedoc and Provence by PETER DE BRUYS, who made the most laudable attempts to reform the abuses and to remove the superstitions that disfigured the beautiful fimplicity of the gospel, and after having engaged in his cause a great number of followers, during a laborious ministry of twenty years continuance, was burnt at St. Giles's, in the year 1130, by an enraged populace, fet on by the clergy, whose traffic was in danger from the enterprising spirit of this new reformer. The whole system of doctrine, which this unhappy martyr, whose zeal was not without a confiderable mixture of fanaticism, taught to the Petrobrussians his disciples, is not known; it is however certain, that the five following tenets made a part of his fystem; 1. That no persons whatever, were to be baptized before they were come to the full use of their reason. 2. That it was an idle fuperstition to build churches for the service of God, who will accept of a fincere worship wherever it is offered; and that therefore such churches as had already been erected were to be pulled down and destroyed. 3. That the crucifixes, as instruments of superstition, deserved the same sate. 4. That

[[]u] For a further account of this fect, fee the writers mentioned above, and particularly the Godex Inquisitionis Tolosanæ.

the real body and blood of Christ were not exhibited CENT. in the eucharist, but were merely represented, in XII. that holy ordinance, by their figures and symbols. PART II. 5. and lastly, That the oblations, prayers, and good works of the living, could be in no respect advan-

tageous to the dead [w].

VIII. This Innovator was fucceeded by another, The Henris who was an Italian by birth, and whose name was cians. HENRY, the founder and parent of the feet called Henricians. It was, no doubt, a rare thing to fee a person, who was at the same time monk and hermit, undertaking to reform the superstitions of the times; yet fuch was the cafe with HENRY, who leaving Lausanne, a city in Swiizerland, travelled to Mans, and being banished thence, removed successively to Poitiers, Bourdeaux, and the countries adjacent, and at length to Thoulouse in the year 1147, exercifing his ministerial function in all these places with the utmost applause from the people, and declaiming, with the greatest vehemence and fervour, against the vices of the clergy, and the superstitions they had introduced into the Christian church. At Thoulouse he was warmly opposed by St. Bernard, by whose influence he was overpowered, notwithstanding his popularity, and obliged to fave himself by slight. But being seized, in his retreat, by a certain bishop, he was carried before pope Eugenius III. who presided in person at a council then assembled at Rheims, and who, in confequence of the accusations brought against HENRY, committed him, in the year 1148, to a close prison, where, in a little time after this, he ended his days $\lceil x \rceil$. We have no accurate

[N] Gesta Episcoporum Cenomanens. in Mabilion, Analect. veter. ævi, p. 315. ed. Nov.—Gaufridi Epistola in Lib. vi. Vita Sti. Bernardi. tom. ii. Opp. Bernhard. p. 1207.— Matte.

[[]w] See Petri Venerab. Lib. contra Petrobrussianos in Bibliotheca Cluniensi, p. 1117.—Mabilion, Annal. Benedict. tom. vi. p. 346.—Basnage, Histoire des Eglises Resormées period iv. p. 140.

CENT. account of the dostrines of this reformer transmitted XII. to our times. All we know of that matter is, that PART II he rejected the baptism of infants; censured with severity the corrupt and licentious manners of the clergy; treated the festivals and ceremonies of the church with the utmost contempt; and held clandestine assemblies, in which he explained and inculcated the novelties he taught. Several writers affirm, that he was the disciple of Peter de Bruys; but I cannot see upon what evidence or authority this affertion is grounded [y].

The horrid IX. While the Henricians were propagating their blafphemy doctrines in *France*, a certain illiterate man, called of Tanque-TanqueLinus, or TanqueLmus, arose in *Bralinus*.

bant about the year 1115, excited the most deplorable commotions at Antwerp, and drew after him a most numerous sect. If the accounts that are given us of this herefiarch by his adversaries may be at all depended upon, he must either have been a monstrous impostor, or an outrageous madman. For he walked in public with the greatest solemnity, pretended to be God, or, at least, the son of God, ordered daughters to be ravished in presence of their mothers, and committed himself the greatest disorders. Such are the enormities that are attributed to Tanouelmus, but they are absolutely incredible, and therefore cannot be true [z]. What seems most

Histor. Major, p. 71.-Mabilion, Praf. ad Opera Bernhardi.

§ vi. & Annal. Benediel. tom. vi. p. 346. 420. 434.

[y] That HENRY was the disciple of Peter De Bruys is not at all probable; since, not to insist upon other reasons, the latter could not bear the sight of a cross, and in all likelihood owed his death to the multitude of crucifixes which he had committed to the slames: whereas the former, when he entered into any city, appeared with a cross in his hand, which he bore as a standard, to attract the veneration of the people. See Mable 10 N. Anale 2a, p. 316:

[2] Epistola Trajectons. Ecclesia ad Tridericum Episcopum de Tanchelmo, in Sel. Tengnagelii Collectione Veterum Monumenter. p. 368.—Boulay, Histor. Acad. Paris. tom. ii. p. 98.—Argintre, Collectio Judicior. de novis erroribus, tom. i. p. 10.

worthy of credit in this matter is, that this new CENT. teacher had imbibed the opinions and spirit of the Mystics: that he treated with contempt the external PART II. worship of God, the facrament of the Lord's supper, and the rite of baptism; and held clandestine assemblies to propagate more effectually his visionary notions. But as, besides all this, he inveighed against the clergy, like the other heretics already mentioned, and declaimed against their vices with vehemence and intrepidity, it is probable that these blasphemies were falsely charged upon him by a vindictive priesthood. Be that as it may, the fate of TANQUELMUS was unhappy, for he was affaffinated by an ecclefiaftic in a cruel manner. His feet, however, did not perish with him, but acquired strength and vigour under the ministry of his disciples, until it was, at length, extinguished by the famous St. NORBERT, the founder of the order of Pramonstratenses, or Premontrés [a].

X. In Italy Arnold of Brescia, a disciple of Seditions ABELARD, and a man of extensive erudition and excited in Italy by remarkable austerity, but also of a turbulent and Arnold of impetuous spirit, excited new troubles and commo-Brescia. tions both in church and state. He was, indeed, condemned in the council of the Lateran, A. D. 1139, by Innocent II. and thereby obliged to retire into Switzerland; but, upon the death of that pontiff, he returned into Italy, and raifed at Rome, during the pontificate of Eugenius III. feveral tumults and feditions among the people, who changed, by his infligation, the government of the city, and infulted the persons of the clergy in the most disorderly manner. He fell however at last a victim to the vengeance of his enemies; for, after various turns of fortune, he was feized, in the year

[[]a] Lewis Hugo, Vie de S. Norbert. livr, II. p. 126.— CHRYS. vander STERRE Vita S. Norberti, cap XXXVI. p. 164. & Polyc. de Hertoghe, ad illam Annotationes, p. 387.

CENT. 1155, by a præfect of the city, by whom he was XII. crucified, and afterwards burned to ashes. This FART II unhappy man feems not to have adopted any doctrines inconsistent with the spirit of true religion:

trines inconfistent with the spirit of true religion; and the principles upon which he acted were chiefly reprehensible from their being carried too far, applied without differnment and differetion, and executed with a degree of vehemence which was as criminal as it was imprudent. Having perceived the discords and animosities, the calamities and disorders, that fprung from the overgrown opulence of the pontiffs and bishops, he was perfuaded that the interests of the church, and the happiness of nations in general required, that the clergy should be divested of all their worldly possessions, of all their temporal rights and prerogatives. He, therefore, maintained publicly, that the treasures and revenues of popes, bishops, and monasteries, ought to be folemnly refigned and transferred to the supreme rulers of each state, and that nothing was to be left to the ministers of the gospel but a spiritual authority and a fubfishence drawn from tythes, and from the voluntary oblations and contributions of the people $\lceil b \rceil$. This violent reformer, in whose character and manners there were feveral things worthy of esteem, drew after him a great number of disciples, who derived from him the denomination of Arnoldifts, and, in fucceeding times, discovered the spirit and intrepidity of their leader, as often as any favourable opportunities of reforming the church were offered to their zeal.

The origin XI. Of all the feets that arose in this century and history none was more distinguished by the reputation it denses.

[[]b] See Otto Frising, de gestis Frederici I. lib. ii. cap. xx.—S. Bernhardus Epist. 195, 196. tom. i. p. 187.—Boulay Histor. Licad. Paris. tom. ii. p. 157.—Muratorii Droits de l'Empire sur l'Etat Ecclesiastique, p. 137.—Henr. de Bunau Vita Frederici I. p. 41.—Chaufepied Nouveau Diction. Hist. Grit. tom. ii. p. 482.

acquired, by the multitude of its votaries, and the CENT. testimony which its bitterest enemies bore to the XII. probity and innocence of its members, than that PART H. of the Waldenses, so called from their parent and founder PETER WALDUS. This fect was known by different denominations. From the where it first appeared, its members were called The poor men of Lions [c], or Leonists, and, from the wooden shoes which its doctors wore, and a certain mark that was imprinted upon these shoes, they were called *Infabbatati*, or *Sabbatati* [d]. The origin of this famous feet was as follows: Peter, an opulent merchant of Lions, furnamed Valdensis, or Falidisius, from Vaux, or Waldum, a town in the marquifate of Lions, being extremely zealous for the advancement of true piety and Christian knowledge, employed a certain priest [e], about the year 1160, in translating from Latin into French the Four Gospels, with other books of Holy Scripture and the most remarkable sentences of the ancient doctors, which were fo highly esteemed in this century. But no fooner had he perused these facred books with a proper degree of attention, than he perceived that the religion, which was now taught in the Roman church, differed totally from that

[d] See Steph. de Borbone De septem donis spiritus sanci, in Echard & Quetif Bibliotheca Scriptor Dominicanor. tom. i. p. 192.—Annonym. Tradatio de Hæresi Pauperum de Lugduno, in MARTENE Thefauro Anecdotor. tom. v. p. 1777.

[e] This priest was called STEPHANUS DE EVISA.

[[]c] They were called Leonists from Leona, the ancient name of Lyons, where their fect took its rife. The more eminent persons of that sect manifested their progress toward persection by the simplicity and meanness of their external appearance. Hence, among other things, they wore wooden shoes, which in the French language are termed fabots, and had imprinted upon these shoes the sign of the cross, to distinguish themselves from other Christians; and it was on these accounts that they acquired the denominations of sabbatati and insabbatati. See Du Fresue Gloffarium Latin. medii avi, vi. voce Sabbatati, p. 1.- NICOL. Eumerici Directorium Inquisitorum, part III. N. 112. &c.

CENT. which was originally inculcated by Christ and his XII. apostles. Struck with this glaring contradiction of the gospel, and animated with a pious zeal for promoting his own salvation and that of others, he

of the gospel, and animated with a pious zeal for promoting his own falvation and that of others, he abandoned his mercantile vocation, distributed his riches among the poor [f], and forming an affociation with other pious men, who had adopted his fentiments and his turn of devotion, he began, in the year 1180, to assume the quality of a public teacher, and to instruct the multitude in the doctrines and precepts of Christianity. The archbishop of Lions, and the other rulers of the church in that province, opposed, with vigour, this new doctor in the exercise of his ministry. But their opposition was unfuccessful; for the purity and simplicity of that religion which these good men taught, the fpotless innocence that shone forth in their lives and actions, and the noble contempt of riches and honours which was confpicuous in the whole of their conduct and conversation, appeared so engaging to all such as had any fense of true piety, that the number of their disciples and followers increased from day to day [g]. They accordingly formed religious

[f] It was on this account that the Waldenses were called

Pauvres de Lyons, or Poor men of Lyons.

[g] Certain writers give different accounts of the origin of the Waldenses, and suppose that they were so called from the Vallies in which they had resided for many ages before the birth of Peter Walders. But these writers have no authority to support this affertion, and, besides this, they are resulted amply by the best historians. I do not mean to deny, that there were in the Vallies of Piedmont, long before this period, a set of men, who differed widely from the opinions adopted and inculcated by the church of Rome, and whose doctrine resembled, in many respects, that of the Waldenses; all that I maintain is, that these inhabitants of the Vallies abovementioned are to be carefully distinguished from the Waldenses, who, according to the unanimous voice of history, were originally inhabitants of Lyons, and derived their name from Peter Walders, their sounder and chies. We may venture to affirm the contrary, with the learned Beza and other

affemblies, first in France, and afterwards in Lom-CENT. bardy, from whence they propagated their sect XII. throughout the other provinces of Europe with incre-PART II. dible rapidity, and with such invincible fortitude, that neither fire nor sword, nor the most cruel inventions of merciless persecution, could damp their zeal, or entirely ruin their cause [b].

writers of note; for it feems evident from the best records, that VALDUS derived his name from the true Valdenses of Piedmont, whose doctrine he adopted, and who were known by the names of Vaudois and Valdenses, before he or his immediate followers existed. If the Valdenses or Waldenses had derived their name from any eminent teacher, it would probably have been from VALDO who was remarkable for the purity of his doctrine in the IXth century, and was the cotemporary and chief counsellor of Berengarius. But the truth is, that they derive their name from their Vallies in Piedmont, which in their language are called Vaux, hence Voidois, their true name; hence PETER or (as others call him) John of Lyons, was called in Latin, Valdus, because he had adopted their doctrine; and hence the term Valdenses and Waldenses used by those, who write in English or Latin, in the place of Vaudois. The bloody Inquifitor REINERUS Sacco, who exerted fuch a furious zeal for the destruction of the Waldenses, lived but about 80 years after Valdus of Lyons, and must therefore be supposed to know whether or not he was the real founder of the Valdenses or Leonists; and yet it is remarkable that he speaks of the Leonists (mentioned by Dr. Mosheim in the preceding page, as fynonimous with Waldenses) as a sect that had flourished above 500 years; nay mentions authors of note, who make their antiquity remount to the Apostolic age. the account given of Sacco's book by the Jesuit GRETSER, in the Bibliotheca Patrum. I know not upon what principle Dr. Mo-SHEIM maintains, that the inhabitants of the Vallies of Piedmont are to be carefully distinguished from the Waldenses; and I am persuaded, that whoever will be at the pains to read attentively the 2d, 25th, 26th, and 27th chapters of the first book of LEGER's Histoire Generale des Eglises Vaudoises, will find this distinction entirely groundless .- When the Papists ask us where our religion was before Luther? we generally answer, in the Bible; and we answer well. But to gratify their taste for Tradition and human authority, we may add to this answer, and in the Vallies of Piedmont.

[b] See the following ancient writers, who have given accounts of the fect in question, to wit, SACHONI fumma contra Valdenses.—MONETÆ Summa contra Catharos et Valdenses.—published by

CENT. XII. The attempts of PETER WALDUS and his XII. followers were neither employed nor defigned to PART II. introduce new doctrines into the church, nor to propose new articles of faith to Christians. All they The doctrine, disci-aimed at was, to reduce the form of ecclesiastical pline, and government, and the lives and manners both of the views of the alexent and people to that arrishly for the waldenfes. clergy and people, to that amiable fimplicity, and that primitive fanctity, that characterised the apostolic ages, and which appear fo ftrongly recommended in the precepts and injunctions of the divine author of our holy religion. In confequence of this defign; they complained that the Roman church had degenerated, under Constantine the Great, from its primitive purity and fanctity. They denied the supremacy of the Roman pontiff, and maintained that the rulers and ministers of the church were obliged, by their vocation, to imitate the poverty of the apostles, and to procure for themselves a fubfistence by the work of their hands. They confidered every Christian, as in a certain measure qualified and authorifed to instruct, exhort, and confirm the brethren in their christian course, and demanded the restoration of the ancient penitential discipline of the church, i. e. the expiation of transgreffions by prayer, fafting and alms, which the new-invented doctrine of indulgences had almost totally abolished. They, at the same time, affirmed,

RICHINI.—Tr. de Hærest Pauperum de Lugduno, published by Martene, in his Thesaur. Anecdot. tom. v. p. 1777.—Pilich-Dorfius contra Valdenses, t. xxv. B. B. Max. Patr.—Add to these authors, Jo. Paul Perrin Histoire de Vaudois, published at Geneva in 1619.—Jo. Leger Histoire Generale, des Eglises, Vaudoises, livr. i. ch. xiv. p. 136.—Usserii De Successione Ecclesiarum Occidentis, cap. viii. p. 209.—Jac. Basnage Histoire des. Eglises Resormées, tom. i. period iv. p. 329.—Thom. August. Richini Dissertat. de Valdensibus, presixed to his edition of the Summa Monetæ, p. 36.—Boulay Histor. Acad. Paristom. ii. p. 292.

that every pious Christian was qualified and entitled to prescribe to the penitent the kind and degree of CHAP. V.

fatisfaction or expiation that their transgressions CENT. required; that confession made to priests was by no XII. means necessary, fince the humble offender might PART II. acknowledge his fins and testify his repentance to any true believer, and might expect from such the counfels and admonitions that his cafe and circumstances demanded. They maintained, that the power of delivering finners from the guilt and punishment of their offences belonged to God alone; and that indulgences, of consequence, were the criminal inventions of fordid avarice. They looked upon the prayers, and other ceremonies that were instituted in behalf of the dead, as vain, useless, and absurd, and denied the existence of departed souls in an intermediate state of purification, affirming, that they were immediately, upon the separation from the body, received into heaven, or thrust down to hell. These and other tenets of a like nature composed the fystem of doctrine propagated by the Waldenses. Their rules of practice were extremely auftere; for they adopted, as the model of their moral discipline, the Sermon of Christ on the mount, which they interpreted and explained in the most rigorous and literal manner, and, of confequence, prohibited, and condemned in their fociety all wars, and fuits of law, all attempts towards the acquifition of wealth, the inflicting of capital punishments, self-defence against unjust violence, and oaths of all kinds $\lceil i \rceil$.

[i] See the Codex Inquisitionis Tolosonæ, published by Limborch, as also the Summa Monetæ contra Waldenses, and the other writers of the Waldensian history. Though these writers are not all equally accurate, nor perfectly agreed about the number of doctrines that entered into the system of this sect, yet they are almost all unanimous in acknowledging the sincere piety and exemplary conduct of the Waldenses, and shew plainly enough that their intention was not to oppose the doctrines that were universally received among Christians, but only to revive the piety and manners of the primitive times, and to combat the vices of the clergy, and the abuses that had been introduced into the worship and discipline of the church.

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CENT. XIII. The government of the church was com-

vernment among the Waldenfes.

mitted, by the Waldenses, to bishops [k], presbyters, PART II and deacons; for they acknowledged that these three The form of himself. But they looked upon it as absolutely necessary, that all these orders should resemble exactly the apostles of the divine Saviour, and be, like them, illiterate, poor, destitute of all worldly possessions; and furnished with some laborious trade or vocation, in order to gain by constant industry their daily subsistence [/]. The laity were divided into two classes; one of which contained the perfect, and the other the imperfect Christians. The former spontaneously divested themselves of all worldly possessions, manifested, in the wretchedness of their apparel, their excessive poverty, and emaciated their bodies by frequent fasting. The latter were less austere, and approached nearer to the method of living generally received, though they abstained, like the graver fort of anabaptists in later times, from all appearance of pomp and luxury. It is, however, to be observed, that the Waldenses were not without their intestine divisions. Such of them as lived in Italy differed confiderably in their opinions from those who dwelt in France and the other European nations. The former confidered the church of Rome as the church of Christ, though much corrupted and and fadly disfigured; they acknowledged moreover the validity of its feven facraments, and folemnly declared that they would continue always in communion with it, provided they might be allowed to live as they thought proper, without molestation or The latter affirmed, on the contrary, that the church of Rome had apostatised from Christ, was deprived of the holy fpirit, and was, in reality,

[k] The bishops were also called, majorales, or elders.

^[1] The greatest part of the Waldenses gained their livelihood by weaving; hence the whole fest in certain places were called the feet of weavers.

that rubore of Babylon mentioned in the Revelations CENT. of δt . John $\lceil m \rceil$.

XIV. Besides these famous sects, which made PART II. a great noise in the world, and drew after them sees of a multitudes from the bosom of a corrupt and super-less eninent stitious church, there were other religious factions kind. The of lesser importance, which arose in Italy, and more Pasagini. especially in France, though they seem to have expired foon after their birth [n]. In Lombardy, which was the principal residence of the Italian heretics, there fprung up a very fingular fect, known by the denomination of Pafaginians [o], and also by that of the circumcifed. Like the other fects already mentioned, they had the utmost aversion to the dominion and discipline of the church of Rome; but they were, at the fame time, diffinguished by two religious tenets that were peculiar to themselves. The first was a notion, that the observation of the law of Moses, in every thing except the offering of facrifices, was obligatory upon Christians, in confequence of which they circumcifed their followers, abstained from those meats, the use of which was prohibited under the Mosaic occonomy, and celebrated the Jewish Sabbath. The second tenet that distinguished this sect was advanced in opposition to the doctrine of three persons in the divine nature;

[m] Monetæ Summa contra Catharos et Valdenses, p. 406. 416, &c. They feem to have been also divided in their fentiments concerning the possession of worldly goods, as appears from the accounts of STEPHANUS DE BORBONE, in ECHARDI Scriptoribus Dominicanis, tom. i. p. 191. This writer divides the Waldenses into two classes; The poor men of Lions, and The poor men of Lombardy. The former rejected and prohibited all forts of possessions; the latter looked upon worldly possessions as lawful. This distinction may be also confirmed by several passages of other ancient authors.

[n] For an account of these obscurer sects, sec Stephanus DE BORBONE, in ECHARDI Scriptoribus Dominicanis, tom. i. p.

[o] The origin of the name Pafagini, or Pafagii, is not known.

CENT. for the Pasaginians maintained that CHRIST was no more than the first and purest creature of God; nor PART II. will their adopting this opinion feem fo furprifing, if we consider the prodigious number of Arians that were feattered throughout Italy long before this period of time $\lceil p \rceil$.

The Caputiati.

XV. A fet of fanatics, called Caputiati, from a fingular kind of cap that was the badge of their faction, infested the province of Burgundy, the diocese of Auxerre, and feveral other parts of France, in all which places they excited much disturbance among the people. They wore upon their caps a leaden image of the Virgin MARY, and they declared publicly, that their purpose was to level all distinctions, to abrogate magistracy, to remove all subordination among mankind, and to restore that primitive liberty, that natural equality that were the inestimable privileges of the first mortals. Hugo, bishop of Auxerre, attacked these disturbers of human fociety in the proper manner, employing against them the force of arms, instead of arguments $\lceil q \rceil$.

The fest of the apostolics, whom St. Bernard opposed with such bitterness and fury, and who were fo called, as that zealous abbot himfelf acknowledged, because they professed to exhibit in their lives and manners the piety and virtues of the holy apostles, were very different from the audacious heretics now mentioned. They were a clownish fet of men, of the lowest birth, who gained their fubfistence by bodily labour; and yet no fooner did they form themselves into a sect, than they drew after them a multitude of adherents of all ranks and

[[]p] See F. Bonacursi Manifestatio heresis Catharorum, in Luc. Dacherii Spicilegio, Veter. Scriptor. tom. i. p. 211. edit. nov.—Gerhard. Bergamensis contra Catharos et Pafagios, in Lud. Anton. Muratorii Antiq. Ital. medii avi, tom. v. p. 151.

^[7] JAC. LE BOEUF, Memoires sur l'Histoire d'Auxerre, tom. i. p. 317.

orders. Their religious doctrine, as St. Bernard cent. confesses, was free from error, and their lives and manners were irreproachable and exemplary. Yet Part II. they were reprehensible, on account of the following peculiarities: I. They held it unlawful to take an oath. 2. They suffered their hair and their beards to grow to an enormous length, so that their aspect was inexpressibly extravagant and savage. 3. They preferred celibacy before wedlock, and called themselves the chaste brethren and sisters. Notwithstanding which, 4. Each man had a spiritual sister with him, after the manner of the apostles, with whom he lived in a domestic relation, lying in the same chamber with her, though not in the same bed [r].

XVI. In the council, which was affembled at Eon, 2 Rheims in the year 1148, and at which pope Eu-wrong-headed GENIUS III. prefided, a certain gentleman of the fanatic. province of Bretagne, whose name was Eon, and whose brain was, undoubtedly, disordered, was condemned for pretending to be the fon of God. Having heard, in the form that was used for exorcising malignant spirits, these words pronounced: per Eum, qui venturus est judicare vivos et mortuos, he concluded, from the resemblance that there was between the word Eum and his name, that he was the person who was to come and judge both quick and dead. This poor man should rather have been delivered over to the physicians, than placed in the list of heretics. He ended his days in a miferable prison, and left a confiderable number of followers and adherents, whom perfecution and death in the most dreadful forms could not perfuade to abandon his cause, or to renounce an absurdity, which one would think could never have gained credit, but in fuch a

[[]r] St. Bernardus, Sermo LXV, in Canticum, tom. iv. Opp. p. 1495. edit. Mabillon.

This remarkable example is xII. fufficient to shew, not only the astonishing credulity PART II. of the stupid multitude, but also how far even the rulers of the church were destitute of judgment, and strangers to the knowledge of true and genuine religion.

[s] MATTH. PARIS, Historia Major. p. 68.—Guil. Neu-BRIGENSIS, Historia rerum Anglicarum, lib. i. p. 50.—Boulay, Historia Acad. Paris. tom. ii. p. 241.

THIRTEENTH CENTURY.

PART I.

The External HISTORY of the CHURCH.

CHAPTER I.

Concerning the profperous events that happened to the church during this century.

I. I HOUGH the fucceffors of Gengiskan, Cent. the mighty emperor of the Tartars, or rather of the XIII. Mogols, had carried their victorious arms through PART I. a great part of Asia, and having reduced China, The state of India, and Persia, under their yoke, involved in Christianity many calamities and fufferings the Christian affem-in the norblies which were established in these vanquished of Asia and lands $\lceil a \rceil$; yet we learn from the best accounts, in China. and the most respectable authorities, that both in China and in the Northern parts of Afia, the Neftorians continued to have a flourishing church, and a great number of adherents. The emperors of the Tartars and Mogols had no great aversion to the Christian religion; nay, it appears from authentic records, that feveral kings and grandees of thefe nations had either been instructed in the doctrines of the gospel by their ancestors, or were converted to Christianity by the ministry and exhortations of the Nestorians $\lceil b \rceil$. But the religion of Mahomet,

[[]a] GREGOR. ABULPHARAIUS, Historia Dynastiar. p. 281.
[b] See MARC. PAUL. VENETUS, De Regionibus Oriental.
lib. i. c. iv. lib. ii. c. vi.—HAYTHO the Armenian's Histor. Oriental.

ENT. which was so adapted to flatter the passions of men, XIII. infected, by degrees, these noble converts, opposed PARTI. with success the progress of the gospel, and, in process of time, triumphed over it so far, that not the least glimpse or remains of Christianity were to be perceived in the courts of these eastern

A papal em- princes.

baffy is fent to the Tartars.

II. The Tartars having made an incursion into Europe in the year 1241, and having laid waste, with the most unrelenting and favage barbarity, Hungary, Poland, Silefia, and the adjacent countries, the Roman pontiffs thought it incumbent upon them to endeavour to calm the fury, and foften the ferocity, of these new and formidable enemies. this purpose, Innocent IV. sent an embassy to the Tartars, which confifted in a certain number of Dominican and Franciscan friars [c]. In the year 1274, ABAKA, the emperor of that fierce nation, fent ambaffadors to the council of Lyons, which was held under the pontificate of Gregory X. $\lceil d \rceil$. About four years after this, pope NICOLAS III. paid the fame compliment to COBLAI, emperor of the whole Tartar nation, to whom he fent a folemn embaffy of Franciscan monks, with a view to render that prince propitious to the Christian cause. expedition of this kind that we shall mention at prefent, was that of Johannes à Monte Cor-VINO, who was fent in company with other ecclefiaftics to the fame emperor, by NICOLAS IV. and who carried letters to the Nestorians from that zealous pontiff. This mission was far from being

cap. xix. p. 35. cap. xxiii. p. 39. cap xxiv. p. 41.—Jos. Sim. Assemanni Biblioth. Orient. Vatic, tom. iii. part. II. p. 526. See particularly the Ecclefiastical History of the Tartars, published in Latin at Helmstadt, in the year 1741, in 4to.

[c] See Luc. WADDING! Annal. Minor. tom. iii. p. 116.

149. 175. 256.

[d] Wadding, loc. cit. tom. iv. p. 35. tom. v. p. 128. See. particularly an accurate and ample account of the negotiations that passed between the pontists and the Tartars, in the Historia Ecclefiastica Tartarorum, already mentioned.

useless, since these spiritual ambassadors converted CENT. many of the Tartars to Christianity, engaged consider—XIII. able numbers of the Nestorians to adopt the doctrine PART I. and discipline of the church of Rome, and erected churches in different parts of Tartary and China. In order to accelerate the propagation of the gospel among these darkened nations, Johannes à Monte Corvino translated the New Testament and the Psalms of David into the language of the Tartars [e.]

III. The Roman pontiffs employed their most Crusades zealous and affiduous efforts in the support of the renewed. Christian cause in *Palestine*, which was now in a most declining, or rather in a desperate state. They had learnt, by a delicious experience, how much these Afiatic wars, undertaken from a principle, or at least carried on under a pretext of religion, had contributed to fill their coffers, augment their authority, and cover them with glory; and therefore they had nothing more at heart than the renewal and prolongation of these facred expeditions $\lceil f \rceil$. INNOCENT III. therefore, founded the charge; but the greatest part of the European princes and nations were deaf to the voice of the holy trumpet. At length, however, after many unsuccessful attempts in different countries, a certain number of French nobles entered into an alliance with the republic of Venice, and fet fail for the east with an army that was far from being formidable. Besides; the event of this new expedition was by no means answerable to the expectations of the pontiff. The French and

Vor. III.

[[]e] Odor. Raynaldus, Annal. Ecclesiassic. tom. xiv. ad A. 1278. § 17. p. 282. & ad A. 1289. § 59. p. 419. edit. Colon.—Pierre Bergeron. Traté des Tartares, chap. xi. p. 61. See also the writers mentioned in the Historia Ecclesiassica Tartarorum.

[[]f] This is remarked by the writers of the twelfth century, who had soon perceived the avaricious and despotic views of the pontiffs, in the encouragement they gave to the crusades. See MATTH. PARIS, Hist. Major, p. 174. 364. et passim.

XIII.

CENT. Venetians, instead of steering their course towards Palestine, failed directly for Constantinople, and, in the PART 1. year 1203, took that imperial city by storm, with a defign to restore to the throne ISAAC ANGELUS, who implored their fuccour against the violence of his brother ALEXIUS, who had usurped the empire. The year following a dreadful fedition was raifed at Constantinople, in which the emperor Isaac was put to death, and his fon, the young ALEXIUS, was strangled by ALEXIUS DUCAS, the ringleader of this furious faction [g]. The account of this parricide no fooner came to the ears of the chiefs of the crusade, than they made themselves masters of Constantinople for the second time, dethroned and drove from the city the tyrant Ducas, and elected BALDWIN, count of Flanders, emperor of the This proceeding was a fource of new divisions; for about two years after this the Greeks resolved to set up, in opposition to this Latin emperor, one of their own nation, and elected for that purpose THEODORE LASCARIS, who chose Nice in Bithynia for the place of his imperial residence. From this period until the year 1261, two emperors reigned over the Greeks; the one of their own nation, who resided at Nice; and the other of Latin or French extraction, who lived at Constantinople, the ancient metropolis of the empire. But, in the year 1261, the face of things was changed by the Grecian emperor, MICHAEL PALÆOLOGUS, who, by the valour and stratagems of his general, CESAR ALEXIUS, became master of Constantinople, and forced the Latin emperor BALDWIN II. to abandon that city, and fave himself by flight in *Italy*. fell the empire of the Franks at Constantinople, after a duration of fifty-feven years $\lceil h \rceil$.

> [3] The learned authors of the Universal History call this ringleader, by mistake, John Ducas.

> [b] See, for a full account of this empire, Du Fresne, Histoire de l'Empire de Constantinople sous les Empereurs Françoise;

IV. Another facred expedition was undertaken in CENT. the year 1217, under the pontificate of Honorius XIII. III. by the confederate arms of Italy and Germany. PART I. The allied army was commanded in chief by Another Andrew, king of Hungary, who was joined by crusade un-LEOPOLD, duke of Austria, Lewis of Bavaria, and dertaken. feveral other princes. After a few mouths absence, ANDREW returned into Europe. The remaining chiefs carried on the war with vigour, and in the year 1220, made themselves masters of Damietta, the strongest city in Egypt; but their prosperity was of a short duration, for the year following, their fleet was totally ruined by that of the Saracens, their provisions cut off, and their army reduced to the greatest straits and difficulties. This irreparable lofs was followed by that of Damietta, which blafted all their hopes, and removed the flattering prospects which their fuccessful beginnings had presented to their expectations [i].

V. The legates and missionaries of the court of An histori-Rome still continued to animate the languishing zeal cal view of the other of the European princes in behalf of the Christian crusades, cause in Palestine, and to revive the spirit of crusading, each in their order. which fo many calamities and difasters had almost totally extinguished. At length, in consequence of their lively remonstrances, a new army was raised, and a new expedition undertaken, which excited great expectations, and drew the attention of Europe,

in the former part of which we find the Histoire de la Conquete de la Ville de Constantinople par les François, written by Godfrey DE VILLE HARDUIN, one of the French chiefs concerned in the expedition. This work makes a part of the Byzantine history. See also Claude Fontenay, Histoire de l'Eglise Gallicane, tom. x. p. 216. - Guntheri Monachi Histor. captæ à Latinis Constantinopoleos, in HENR. CANISII Lectiones Antique, tom. iv. p. 1.—Innocentii III. Epiftol. à Baluzio editas, pailim.

[i] See JAC. DE VITRIACO, Histor. Oriental. & MARTIN SANCTUS, Secret. fidel. crucis inter Bangarsianos de sacris bellis

scriptores, seu gesta Dei per Francos.

CENT. and that fo much the more, as it was generally believed, that this army was to be commanded by XIII. PART I the emperor FREDERIC II. That prince had, indeed, obliged himself by a solemn promise, made to the Roman pontiff, to take upon him the direction of this expedition; and what added a new degree of force to this engagement, and feemed to render the violation of it impossible, was the marriage that FREDERIC had contracted, in the year 1223, with JOLANDA, daughter of JOHN, count of Brienne, and king of Ferusalem, by which alliance that kingdom was to be added to his European dominions. Yet, notwithstanding all this, the emperor put off his voyage from time to time under various pretexts, and did not fet out until the year 1228, when, after having been excommunicated on account of his delay, by the incenfed pontiff GREGORY IX. $\lceil k \rceil$, he followed with a small train of attendants the troops, who expected, with the most anxious impatience, his arrival in Palestine. No sooner did he land in that disputed kingdom, than, instead of carrying on the war with vigour, he turned all his thoughts towards peace, and, without confulting the other princes and

in the most outrageous and indecent language, was so far from exciting Frederic to accelerate his departure for Palestine, that it produced no effect upon him at all, and was, on the contrary, received with the utmost contempt. He defended himself by his ambassador at Rome, and shewed that the reasons of his delay were solid and just, and not mere pretexts, as the pope had pretended. At the same time, he wrote a remarkable letter to Henry III. king of England, in which he complains of the insatiable avarice, the boundless ambition, the persidious and hypocritical proceedings of the Roman pontists. See Fleury, Histoire Ecclesiassique, livr. lxxix. tom. xvi. p. 601. edit. Bruxelles.

chiefs of the crusade, concluded, in the year 1229, a treaty of peace, or rather a truce of ten years,

with Melic-camel, fultan of Egypt. The principal thing stipulated in this treaty was, that Fre-

DERIC should be put in possession of the city and

kingdom of Jerusalem: this condition was imme-cent. diately executed; and the emperor, entering into xiii. the city with great pomp, and accompanied by a part in numerous train, placed the crown upon his head with his own hands; and, having thus settled matters in Palestine, he returned without delay into Italy, to appeale the discords and commotions which the vindictive and ambitious pontiss had excited there in his absence. So that, in reality, notwithstanding all the reproaches that were cast upon the emperor by the pope and his creatures, this expedition was by far the most successful of any that had been yet undertaken against the insidels [1].

VI. The expeditions that followed this were less important and also less successful. In the year 1239, THEOBALD VI. [m], count of Champagne and king of Navarre, fet out from Marseilles for the Holy Land, accompanied by feveral French and German princes, as did also, the year following, RICHARD, earl of Cornwal, brother to HENRY III. king of England. The iffue of these two expeditions was by no means answerable to the preparations which were made to render them successful. The former failed through the influence of the emperor's $\lceil n \rceil$ ambaffadors in *Palestine*, who renewed the truce with the Mahometans; while, on the other hand, a confiderable body of Christians were defeated at Gaza, and such as escaped the carnage returned into Europe. This fatal event was principally owing to the difcords that reigned between the templars and the knights of

^[1] See the writers that have composed the History of the Holy Wars, and of the Life and Exploits of FREDERIC II. See also MURATORI Annales Italia, and the various authors of the Germanic History.

V. unless we are to attribute this fault to an error of the press.

of [n] Frederic II. who had still a great party in $\dot{P}alessime$, and did not act in concert with the clergy and the creatures of his bitter enemy, Gregory IX. from which division the Christian cause suffered much.

NIII. that the arrival of RICHARD, which had been PART I industriously retarded by GREGORY IX. and which had revived, in some degree, the hopes of the vanquished, was ineffectual to repair their loss; and all that this prince could do, was to enter, with the consent of the allies, into a truce upon as good conditions as the declining state of their affairs would admit of. This truce was accordingly concluded with the sultan of Egypt in the year 1241, after which RICHARD immediately set sail for Europe [0].

The expedition of Lewis 1X.

VII. The affairs of the Christians in the east declined from day to day. Intestine discords and illconducted expeditions had reduced them almost to the last extremity, when LEWIS IX. king of France, who was canonifed after his death, and is still worshipped with the utmost devotion, attempted their restoration. It was in consequence of a vow, which this prince had made in the year 1248, when he was feized with a painful and dangerous illness, that he undertook this arduous task, and, in the execution of it, he fet fail for Egypt with a formidable army and a numerous fleet, from a notion that the conquest of this province would enable him to carry on the war in Syria and Palestine with more facility and fuccess. The first attempts of the zealous monarch were crowned with victory; for Damietta, that famous Egyptian city, yielded to his arms; but the fmiling prospect was soon changed, and the progress of the war presented one uniform scene of calamity and defolation. The united horrors of famine and pestilence overwhelmed the royal army, whose provisions were cut off by the Mahometans, in the

[0] All these circumstances are accurately related and illustrated by the learned George Christ. Gebaverus, in his Historia Richardi Imperatoris, lib. i. p. 34.—It appears however by the Epistole Petri de Vineis, that Richard was created by Frederic II. his lord-licutenant of the kingdom of Ferusalem, and this furnishes a probable reason why Gregory IX. used all possible means to retard Richard's voyagg.

year 1250; Robert earl of Artois, the king's own cent. brother, having surprised the Saracen army, and, xiii. through an excess of valour, pursued them too far, Part I. was slain in the engagement; and, a few days after, the king himself, with two more of his brothers [p], and the greatest part of his army, were taken prisoners, in a bloody action, after a bold and obstinate resistance. This valiant monarch, who was endowed with true greatness of mind, and who was extremely pious, though after the manner that prevailed in this age of superstition and darkness, was ransomed at an immense price [q], and after having spent about four years in Palestine, returned into France, in the year 1254, with a handful of men [r], the miserable remains of his formidable army.

VIII. No calamities could deject the courage nor A fecond damp the imvincible spirit of Lewis; nor did he crusade unlook upon his vow as sulfilled by what he had already the same done in Palestine. He therefore resolved upon a monarch, new expedition, sitted out a formidable sleet with which he set sail for Africa, accompanied by a splendid train of princes and nobles, and proposed to begin in that part of the world his operations against the insidels, that he might either convert them to the Christian saith, or draw from their treasures the means of carrying on more effectually

[[]p] Alphonsus earl of Poitiers, and Charles earl of Arjou.

[[]q] The ransom, which, together with the restoration of Damietta, the king was obliged to pay for his liberty, was eight hundred thousand gold bezants, and not eighty thousand as Collier erroneously reckons *. This sum, which was equal then to 500,000 livres of French money, would, in our days, amount to the value of sour millions of livres, that is, to about 190,000 pounds sterling.

[[]r] Of 2800 illustrious knights, who set out with Lewis from France, there remained about an hundred when he sailed from Palestine. See Joinville's Hist. de S. Louis IX. p. 81.

^{*} See Collier's Ecolef. Hiftory, Cent. XIII. vol. i. p. 456.

the war in Asia. Immediately after his arrival upon the African coast, he made himself master of the PART 1. fort of Carthage; but this first success was soon followed by a fatal change in his affairs. A pestilential difease broke out in the fleet, in the harbour of Tunis, carried off the greatest part of the army, and feized, at length, the monarch himself, who fell a victim to its rage, on the 25th of August, in the year 1270 [s]. Lewis was the last of the European princes that embarked in the holy war; the dangers and difficulties, the calamities and disorders, and the enormous expences that accompanied each crusade, disgusted the most zealous, and discouraged the most intrepid promoters of these fanatical expeditions. In consequence of this, the Latin empire in the east declined apace, notwithstanding the efforts of the Roman pontiffs to maintain and support it; and in the year 1291, after the taking of Ptolomais, or Acra, by the Mahometans, it was entirely overthrown [t]. It is natural to inquire into the true causes that contributed to this unhappy revolution in Palestine; and these causes are evident. We must not feek for them either in the councils or in the valour of the infidels, but in the diffensions that reigned in the Christian armies, in the profligate

[t] Ant. Matthæi Analesta veteris ævi, tom. v. p. 748.

—Jac. Echardi Scriptores Dominicani, tom. i. p. 422.—

Imola in Dantem, in Muratorii Antiq. Italicæ medii ævi,

tom. i. p. 1111, 1112.

[[]s] Among the various histories that deserve to be consulted for an ampler account of this last crusade, the principal place is due to the Histoire de S. Louis IX. du nom, Roy de France, écrite par Jean Sr. de Joinville, enriche de nouvelles Dissertations et Observations Historiques, par Charles du Fresne, Paris 1688, Fol. See also Filleau de la Chaize, Histoire de S. Louis, Paris 1688, 2 vol. in 8vo.—Menconis Chronicou, in Ant. Matthæi Analestis veteris ævi, tom. iii. p. 172. 179.—Luc. Waddingi Annales Minorum, tom. iv. p. 294. 307, & passim.—Boulay, Hist. Acad. Paris, tom. iii. p. 212. 392, &c. Pierre Claude Fontenay, Histoire de l'Eglise Gallicane, tom. xi. p. 337. 405. 575.

lives of those, who called themselves the champions CENT. of the cross, and in the ignorance and obstinacy, the XIII. avarice and insolence of the pope's legates.

PART I.

IX. Christianity as yet had not tamed the ferocity, Conversion nor conquered the Pagan superstitions and prejudices, of the that still prevailed in some of the western provinces. Prussians. Among others, the Prussians, a fierce and savage nation, retained still the idolatrous worship of their ancestors with the most obstinate perseverance; nor did the arguments and exhortations employed by the missionaries that were sent among them, from time to time, produce the least effect upon their stubborn and intractable spirits. The brutish sirmness of these Pagans induced Conrad, duke of Massovia, to have recourse to more forcible methods than reason and argument, in order to bring about their conversion. For this purpose, he addressed himself, in the year 1230, to the knights of the Teutonic order of St. MARY, who, after their expulsion from Palestine, had fettled at Venice, and engaged them, by pompous promifes, to undertake the conquest and conversion of the Prussians. The knights accordingly arrived in Pruffia, under the command of HERMAN DE SALTZA, and after a most cruel and obstinate war, of fifty years standing, with that resolute people, obliged them, with difficulty, to acknowledge the Teutonic order for their fovereigns, and to embrace the Christian faith [u]. After having established Christianity, and fixed their own dominion in Prussia, these booted

[[]n] See Matthæi Analeda vet. avi, tom. iii. p. 18. tom. v. p. 684—689.—Petri de Duisburgh, Chronicon. Prussia, published by Hartknochius at Jena, in the year 1679.—Christoph. Hartknochius, his History of the Prussian Church, written in the German language, book I. ch. i. p. 33. and Antiquitates Prussia, Dist. xiv. p. 201.—Balusii Miscellanea, tom. vii. p. 427. 478.—Waddingi Annales Minor. tom. iv. p. 40. 63.—Solignac, Histoire de Pologne, tom. ii. p. 238.

CENT. apostles made several excursions into the neighbouring XIII. countries, and particularly into Lithuania, where PART I they pillaged, burned, massacred, and ruined all before them, until they forced the inhabitants of that miserable province to profess a seigned submission to the gospel, or rather to the furious and unrelenting missionaries, by whom it was propagated in a manner so contrary to its divine maxims, and to

Of the Arabians in Spain.

the benevolent spirit of its celestial author [w]. X. In Spain the cause of the gospel gained ground from day to day. The kings of Castile, Leon, Navarre, and Arragon, waged perpetual war with the Saracen princes, who held fill under their dominion the kingdoms of Valentia, Granada, and Murcia, together with the province of Andalusia; and this war was carried on with fuch fuccess, that the Saracen dominion declined apace, and was daily reduced within narrower bounds, while the limits of the church were extended on every fide. The princes that contributed principally to this happy revolution were FERDINAND, king of Leon and Castile, who, after his death, obtained a place in the Kalendar, his father Alphonsus IX. king of Leon, and James I. king of Arragon [x]. The latter, more especially, distinguished himself eminently by his fervent zeal for the advancement of Christianity; for no fooner had he made himself master of Valentia in the year 1236, than he employed, with the greatest pains and affiduity, every possible method of converting to the faith his Arabian subjects, whose expulsion would have been an irreparable loss to his kingdom. For this purpose he ordered the Dominicans, whose ministry he made use of principally in this falutary work, to learn the Arabic tongue; and he founded public schools at Majorca and Barcelona,

[[]w] Besides the authors mentioned in the preceding note, see Ludwegii Reliquie Manuscriptorum omnis avi, tom. i. p. 336. [x] See Joh. Ferreras, History of Spain, vol. iv.

educated in a manner that might enable them to XIII. preach the gospel in that language. When these PART Is pious efforts were found to be ineffectual, the Roman pontist CLEMENT IV. exhorted the king to drive the Mahometans out of Spain. The obsequious prince followed the counsel of the inconsiderate pontist; in the execution of which, however, he met with much dissiculty, both from the opposition which the Spanish nobles made to it on the one hand, and from the obstinacy of the Moors on the other [y].

CHAPTER II.

Concerning the calamitous events that happened to the church during this century.

I. THE accounts we have already given of The unhapthe conquests of the Tartars, and of the unhappy py state of
issue of the crusades, will be sufficient to give us a of the
lively idea of the melancholy condition to which the Christians
Christians were reduced in Asia; and had the Saracens been infected with the same odious spirit of
persecution that possessed the crusaders, there would
not perhaps have remained a single Christian in that
part of the world. But though these insidels were
chargeable with various crimes, and had frequently
treated the Christians in a rigorous and injurious
manner, yet they looked with horror upon those
scenes of persecution, which the Latins exhibited as
the exploits of heroic piety, and considered it as the

[[]y] See Geddes, his History of the Expulsion of the Moriscoes, in his Miscellaneous Tracts, vol. i. p. 26.

CENT. highest and most atrocious mark of cruelty and XIII. injustice to force unhappy men, by fire and fword, PART I. to abandon their religious principles, or to put them

to death merely because they refused to change their opinions. After the destruction of the kingdom of Ferusalem, many of the Latins remained still in Syria, and retiring into the dark and folitary recesses of mount Liban, lived there in a favage manner, and loft, by degrees, all fense both of religion and humanity, as appears in the conduct and characters of their descendants, who still inhabit the same uncultivated wilds, and who feem almost entirely destitute of all knowledge of God and religion [z].

Complaints Latins.

II. The Latin writers of this age complain in of infidelity many places of the growth of infidelity, of daring among the and licentious writers, some of whom attacked publicly the doctrines of Christianity, while others went fo far as atheistically to call in question the perfections and government of the Supreme Being. These complaints, however they might have been exaggerated in some respects, were yet far from being entirely destitute of foundation; and the superstition of the times was too naturally adapted to create a number of infidels and libertines, among men who had more capacity than judgment, more wit than folidity. Persons of this character, when they fixed their attention only upon that abfurd system of religion, which the Roman pontiffs and their dependents exhibited as the true religion of Christ, and maintained by the odious influence of bloody perfecution, were, for want of the means of being better

> [2] A certain tribe, called DERUSI, or DRUSI, who inhabit the recesses of the mounts Liban and Antiliban, pretend to descend from the ancient Franks, who were once masters of Palestine. This derivation is, indeed, doubtful. It is however certain, that there still remain in these countries, descendants of those, whom the Holy war brought from Europe into Palesline; though they do very little honour to their ancestors, and have nothing of Christians but the name.

instructed, unhappily led to consider the Christian CENT. religion as a fable invented and propagated by a XIII. greedy and ambitious priesthood, in order to fill their PART I. coffers and to render their authority respectable. The philosophy of ARISTOTLE, which flourished in all the European schools, and was looked upon as the very effence of right reason, contributed much to support this delusion, and to nourish a proud and prefumptuous spirit of infidelity. This quibbling and intricate philosophy led many to reject some of the most evident and important doctrines both of natural and revealed religion, fuch as the doctrine of a divine providence governing the universe, the immortality of the foul, the scripture account of the origin of the world, and other points of less moment. These doctrines were not only rejected, but the most pernicious errors were industriously propagated in opposition to them, by a set of Aristotelians, who were extremely active in gaining profelytes to their impious jargon $\lceil a \rceil$.

[a] See Sti. Thom & Summa contra gentes, and BERNHARDI MONETE Summa contra Catharos et Waldenses. This latter writer, in the work now mentioned, combats, with great spirit, the enemies of Christianity which appeared in his time. In the fourth chapter of the fifth book, p. 416. he disputes, in an ample and copious manner, against those who affirmed, that the soul perished with the body; refutes, in the eleventh chapter, p. 477. those Aristotelian philosophers, who held that the world had existed from all eternity, and would never have an end; and, in the fifteenth chapter, p. 554. he attacks those, who, despising the authority of the facred writings, deny the existence of human liberty, and maintain, that all things and even the crimes of the wicked, are the effects of an absolute and irrefishible necessity. Add to these authors, Stephani Tempieri, Episcopi Parisiensis, Indiculus errorum, qui a nonnullis Magistris Lutetia publice privatimque docebantur, Anno 1277, in Bibliotheca patrum Maxima, tom. xxv. p. 233. as also Boulay, Histor. Acad. Paris. tom. iii. p. 433. and Gerardi Du Bois, Hift. Ecclef. Parif. tom. ii. p. 501. The tenets of these doctors will, no doubt, appear of a furprising nature; for they taught, that there was only one intellect among all the human race; that all things were subject to absolute fate or necessity; that the universe was not governed by a divine

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implety.

III. If the accusations brought against Frederic CENT. II. by the Roman pontiff GREGORY IX. deferve PART I. any credit, that prince may be ranked among the most inveterate and malignant enemies of the Chris-Frederic II. accused of tian religion, since he was charged by GREGORY with having faid, that the world had been deceived by three impostors, Moses, Christ, and Mahomet $\lceil b \rceil$. This charge was answered by a solemn and public profession of his faith, which the emperor addressed to all the kings and princes of Europe, to also had been addressed the accusation whom brought against him by the pontiff. The accusation, however, was founded upon the testimony of HENRY RASPON, landgrave of Thuringia, who declared that he had heard the emperor pronounce the abominable blasphemy above mentioned $\lceil c \rceil$. after all, difficult to decide with fufficient evidence concerning the truth of this fact. FREDERIC, who was extremely passionate and imprudent, may, perhaps in a fit of rage, have let some such expression as this escape his reflexion, and this is rendered probable enough by the company he frequented, and the number of learned Aristotelians that were always about his person, and might suggest matter enough

> providence; that the world was eternal, and the foul mortal; and they maintained these and such like monstrous errors by arguments drawn from the philosophy of Aristotle. But, at the same time, to avoid the just refentment of the people, they held up, as a buckler against their adversaries, that most dangerous and pernicious distinction between theological and philosophical truth, which has been fince used, with the utmost cunning and bad saith, by the more recent Aristotelians of the fifteenth and fixteenth centuries. These things, said they (as we learn from Stephen Tempier) are true in philosophy, but not according to the catholic faith. Vera funt hac secundum philosophum, non secundum fidem catholicam.

> for fuch impious expressions, as that now under

[b] Matth. Paris, Histor. Major. p. 408. 459.—Petr.

DE VINEIS, Epistolarum, lib. i.

[c] HERM. GYGANTIS Flores temporum, p. 126 .- CHR. FRID. AYRMANN, Sylloge Anecdotor. tom i. p. 639.

consideration. It was this affair that gave occasion, in CENT. after-times, to the invention of that fabulous account XIII.

[d], which supposes the detestable book Concerning PARTI. the three impostors, to have been composed by the emperor himself, or, by PETER DE VINEIS, a native of Capua, a man of great credit and authority, whom that prince [e] had chosen for his prime

[d] See Casim. Oudini Comment. de Scriptoribus Ecclefiasticis tom. iii. p. 66.—Alb. Henr. de Sallengre, Memoirs

d'Histoire et de Litterature, tom. i. part 1. p. 386.

[e] The book entitled Liber de III Impostoribus, sive Tractatus de Vanitate Religionum, is really a book which had no existence at the time that the most noise was made about it, and was spoken of by multitudes before it had been seen by any one person. Its supposed existence was probably owing to an impious faying of SIMON OF TOURNAY, doctor of divinity in the univerfity of Paris in the thirteenth century, which amounts to this: "That the Jews were seduced out of their senses by Moses, the Christians by Jesus, and the Gentiles by MAHOMET." This, or fome expressions of a similar kind, were imputed to the emperor FREDERIC, and other perfons, and that perhaps without any real foundation; and the imaginary book, to which they have given rife, has been attributed, by different authors, to FREDERIC, to his chancellor Peter DE VINEIS, to ALPHONSO, king of Caffile, to Boccace, Pogge, the Aretins, Pompo-NACE, MACHIAVEL, ERASMUS, OCHINUS, SERVETUS, RABE-LAIS, GIORDANO BRUNO, CAMPANELLA, and many others. In a word, the book was long spoken of before any such work existed; but the rumour that was spread abroad encouraged fome profligate traders in licentiousness to compose, or rather compile, a bundle of miserable rhapsodies, under the famous title of the Three Impostors, in order to impose upon such as are fond of these pretended rarities. Accordingly, the Spaccio della Bestia Triomphante of GIORDANO BRUNO, and a wretched piece of impiety, called the Spirit of SPINOZA, were the ground-work or materials from whence these hireling compilers, by modifying fome passages and adding others, drew the book which now passes under the name of the Three Impollors, of which I have feen two copies in manuscript, but no printed edition. See LA Mon-NOYE's Differtation sur le Livre de 111 Imposseurs, published at Amsterdam in 1715, at the end of the fourth volume of the Menagiana. See also an Answer to this Dissertation, which was impudently exposed to the public eye, in 1716, from the press of Scheurleer in the Hague, and which contains a fabulous flory of the

CENT. minister, and in whom he placed the highest confi-XIII. dence.

PART I.

origin of the book in question. Whoever is desirous of a more ample and a very curious account of this matter, will find it in the late Prosper Marchand's Dictionaire Historique, vol. ii. at the article Impostoribus.

PART II.

The Internal History of the Church.

CHAPTER I.

Concerning the state of learning and philosophy during this century.

I. HE Greeks, amidst the dreadful cala-CENT. mities, discords, and revolutions, that distracted and XIII. perplexed their unhappy country, had neither that PART II. spirit, nor that leisure, that are necessary to the The state of culture of the arts and sciences. Yet, under all learning these disadvantages, they still retained a certain among the portion of their former spirit, and did not entirely abandon the cause of learning and philosophy, appears by the writers that arose among them during this century. Their best historians were NICETAS, CHONIATES, GEORGIUS ACROPOLITA, GREGO-RIUS PACHYMERES, and JOEL, whose Chronology is yet extant. We learn from the writings of GREGORY PACHYMERES, and NICEPHORUS BLEM-MIDA, that the Peripatetic philosophy was not without its admirers among the Greeks; though the Platonic was most in vogue. The greatest part of the Grecian philosophers, following the example of the later Platonists, whose works were the subject of their constant meditation, inclined to reduce the wisdom of Plato and the subtilties of the Stagirite into one fystem, and to reconcile, as well as they could, their jarring principles. It is not necessary Vol. III.

CENT. to exhibit a list of those authors, who wrote the XIII. lives and discourses of the saints, or distinguished PART II. themselves in the controversy with the Latin church, or of those who employed their learned labours in illustrating the canon law of the Greeks. The principal Syrian writer, which this century produced, was Gregory Abul Farai, primate of the Jacobites, a man of true genius and universal learning, who was a judicious divine, an eminent historian, and a good philosopher [a]. George Elmacin; who composed the history of the Saracens, was also a writer of no mean reputation.

II. The sciences carried a fairer aspect in the western world, where every branch of erudition was cultivated with assiduity and zeal, and, of consequence, slourished, with increasing vigour, from day

The progress of learning in the west.

[a] See BAYLE's Didionary, at the article Abulpharage; as also Jos. Sim. Assemanni Biblioth. Oriental. Vatican. tom. ii. cap. xlii. p. 244.

ABULPHARAGIUS, or ABUL FARAI, was a native of Malatia, a city in Armenia, near the fource of the river Euphrates, and acquired a vast reputation in the east on account of his extensive erudition. He composed An Aridgment of Universal History, from the beginning of the world to his own times, which he divided into ten parts, or dynasties. The 1st comprehends the history of the ancient Patriarchs, from Adam to Moses. The 2d, that of Joshua and the other Judges of Israel. The 3d, 4th, 5th, and 6th, contain the hiltory of the Kings of Israel, of the Chaldean Princes, of the Persian Magi, and of the Grecian Monarchs. The 7th, relates to the Roman history; the 8th, to that of the Greek Emperors of Conflantinople. In the 9th, he treats concerning the Arabian Commanders; and in the 10th, concerning the Moguls. He is more to be depended upon in his history of the Saracens and Tartars, than in his accounts of other nations. The learned Dr. EDWARD POCOCK translated this work into Latin, and published his translation in 1663: together with a Supplement, which carries on the history of the Oriental princes, where ABUL FARAI left it. The same learned rranslator had obliged the public, in 1650, with an abridgment of the ninth dynasty under the following title: Specimen Historiæ Arabum; sive Georgii Abulfaragii Malatiensis de origine et moribus Arabum succineta narratio.

to day. The European kings and princes had CENT. learned, by a happy experience, how much the XIII. advancement of learning and arts contribute to the PART II. grandeur and happiness of a nation; and therefore they invited into their dominions learned men from all parts of the world, nourished the arts in their bosom, excited the youth to the love of letters, by crowning their progress with the most noble rewards, and encouraged every effort of genius, by conferring upon such as excelled, the most honourable distinctions. Among these patrons and protectors of learning the emperor FREDERIC II. and ALPHONsus X. king of Leon and Castile, two princes as much distinguished by their own learning, as by the encouragement they granted to men of genius, acquired the highest renown, and rendered their names immortal. The former founded the academy of Naples, had the works of Aristotle translated into Latin, affembled about his person all the learned men whom he could engage by his munificence to repair to his court, and gave many other undoubted proofs of his zeal for the advancement of the arts and sciences $\lceil b \rceil$. The latter obtained an illustrious and permanent renown by feveral learned productions, but more especially by his famous Astronomical Tables $\lceil c \rceil$. In confequence then of the protection that was given to the sciences in this century. academies were erected almost in every city, peculiar privileges of various kinds were also granted to the youth that frequented them, and these learned societies acquired, at length, the form of political bodies; that is to fay, they were invested with a certain

[[]b] Boulay, Hist. Acad. Paris. tom. iii. p. 115.—GIAN-NONE, Hist. de Naples, tom. ii. p. 497. Add to these the observations of Jo. Alb. Fabricius, Biblioth. Latin. medii ævi, tom. ii. p. 618.

[[]c] Nic. Antonii Bibliotheca vetus Hifpan. lib. viii. c. v. p. 217.—Jo. de Ferreras, Histoire d'Espagne, tom. iv. p. 347.

CENT. jurisdiction, and were governed by their own laws xiii. and statutes.

PART II.

The state of the European academics.

III. In the public schools or academies that were founded at Padua, Modena, Naples, Capua, Thouloufe, Salamancha, Lions, and Cologn, the whole circle of the sciences was not taught, as in our times. The application of the youth, and the labours of their instructors, were limited to certain branches of learning, and thus the course of academical education remained imperfect. The academy of Paris, which furpaffed all the rest both with respect to the number and abilities of its professors, and the multitude of students by whom it was frequented, was the first learned fociety which extended the fphere of education, received all the sciences into its bosom, and appointed masters for every branch of erudition. Hence it was distinguished, before any other academy, with the title of an UNIVERSITY, to denote its embracing the whole circle of science; and, in process of time, other schools of learning were ambitious of forming themselves upon the same model, and of being honoured with the fame title. In this famous university, the doctors were divided into four colleges or classes, according to the branches of learning they professed; and these classes were called, in aftertimes, faculties. In each of these faculties, a doctor was chosen by the suffrages of his colleagues, to prefide during a fixed period in the fociety; and the title of dean was given to those who successively filled that eminent office $\lceil d \rceil$. The head of the university, whose inspection and jurisdiction extended to all branches of that learned body, was dignified with the name of chancellor, and that high and honourable place was filled by the bishop of Paris, to whom an affiftant was afterwards joined, who shared the administration with him, and was cloathed

[[]d] This arrangement was executed about the year 1260. See Du Boulay, Histor. Acad. Paris. tom. iii. p. 557. 564.

with an extensive authority [e]. The college setcent. apart for the study of divinity was first erected and MIII. endowed, in the year 1250, by an opulent and pious PARTIS. man, whose name was ROBERT DE SORBONNE, a particular friend and favourite of St. Lewis, whose name was adopted, and is still retained, by that theological society [f].

IV. Such as were desirous of being admitted The acadeprofessors in any of the faculties, or colleges of this mical course. famous university, were obliged to submit to a long and tedious course of probation, to suffer the strictest examinations, and to give, during feveral years, undoubted proofs of their learning and capacity, before they were received in the character of public teachers. This fevere discipline was called the academical course; and it was wisely designed to prevent the number of professors from multiplying beyond measure, and also to hinder such as were destitute of erudition and abilities from assuming an office, which was justly looked upon as of high importance. They, who had fatisfied all the demands of this academical law, and had gone through the formidable trial with applause, were solemnly invested with the dignity of professors, and were faluted masters with a certain round of ceremonies, that were used in the societies of illiterate tradefmen, when their company was augmented by a new candidate. This vulgar custom was introduced, in the preceding century, by the professors of law in the academy of Bolonia, and, in

[f] See Du Boulay, Histor. Acad. Paris. tom. iii. p. 223.—Du Fresne's Aunotations upon the Life of St. Lewis, written by Joinville, p. 36.

[[]e] See Herm. Conringii Antiquitates Academica, a work, however, susceptible of considerable improvements. The important work mentioned in the preceding note, and which is divided into six volumes, deserves to be principally consulted in this point, as well as in all others that relate to the history and government of the university of Paris; add to this Claud. Hemeræi Liber de Academia Parisiens, qualis primo suit in insula et episcoporum scholis, Lutet. 1637. in 4to.

CENT. this century, it was transmitted to that of Paris, where it was first practised by the divinity-colleges, PART II. and afterwards by the professors of physic and of the liberal arts. In this account of the trial and installation of the professors of Paris, we may perceive the origin of what we now call academical degrees; which, like all other human institutions, have degenerated fadly from the wife ends for which they were at first appointed, and grow more infigni-

The state of literature or bumanity.

ficant from day to day [g]. V. These public institutions, consecrated to the advancement of learning, were attended with remarkable fuccess; but that branch of erudition, which we call humanity, or polite literature, derived less advantage from them, than the other sciences. The industrious youth either applied themselves entirely to the study of the civil and canon laws, which was a fure path to preferment, or employed their labours in philosophical researches, in order to the attainment of a shining reputation, and of the applause that was lavished upon such as were endowed with a fubtile and metaphyfical genius. Hence the bitter complaints that were made by the pontiffs and other bishops, of the neglect and decline of the liberal arts and fciences; and hence also the zealous, but unsuccessful efforts they used to turn the youth from jurisprudence and philosophy, to the fludy of humanity and philology $\lceil h \rceil$. Notwithstanding all this, the thirteenth century produced feveral writers, who were very far from being

[b] BOULAY, Hift. Acad. Parif. tom. iii. p. 265. where there is an epiftle of Innocent III. who feems to take this matter feriously to heart.—Ant. Wood. Antiq. Oxon. tom. i. p. 124.—IMOLA in Dantem in Muratori Antiquit. Ital. medii avi,

tom, i. p. 1262.

[[]g] Besides the writers above mentioned, see Jo. Chr. IT TERUS, De Gradibus Academicis.—Just. Henn. Bohmeri Pref. ad jus Canonicum, p. 14.—Ant. Wood, Antiquit. Oxonienf. tom. i. p. 24.—Boulay, Histor. Academ. Paris. tom. ii. p. 256. 682. 684, &c.

contemptible, fuch as Guil. Brito [i], Gualthe-Cent. RUS MAPES [k], MATTHEW of Vendofme, ALAIN DE L'ISLE [1], GUNTHERUS, JACOBUS DE VITRIACO, PART II. and feveral others, who wrote with eafe, and were not altogether destitute of elegance. Among the historians the first place is due to MATTHEW Paris, a writer of the highest merit both in point of knowledge and prudence, to whom we may add Rodericus Ximenius, Rigordus [m], Vin-CENT of Beauvais, ROBERT of St. Marino [n], MARTINUS, a native of Poland, GERVAIS of Tilbury [o], CONRAD of Lichtenau, GULIELMUS NANGIUS, whose names are worthy of being preferved from oblivion. The writers who have laboured to transmit to posterity the lives and exploits of the faints, have rather related the superstitions and miseries of the times, than the actions of these holy men. Among these biographers, James of Vitri, mentioned above, makes the greatest figure; he also composed a History of the Lombards, that is full of infipid and trifling stories $\lceil p \rceil$.

[[]i] See the Histoire de l'Academie des Inscriptions et des Belles Lettres, tom. xvi. p. 255.

[[]k] Jo. Wolfii, Lectiones Memorabil. tom. i. p. 430.

^[1] Called in Latin, ALANUS DE INSULIS.

[[]m] See the Histoire de l'Academie des Inscriptions et des Belles Lettres, tom. xvi. p. 243. which also gives an ample account of WILLIAM of Nangis, p. 292.

[[]n] See LE Boeuf, Memoires pour l'Histoire d'Auxerre, tom. ii. p. 490. where there is also a learned account of Vincent of Beauvais, p. 494.

king of England, and was in high credit with the emperor Otho IV. to whom he dedicated a Description of the World and a Chronicle, both of which he had himself composed. He wrote also a History of England, and one of the Holy Land, with several treatises upon different subjects.

[[]p] See Schelhornii Amanitates Literaria, tom. xi. p. 324.

VI. ROGER BACON [9], JOHN BALBI, and

XIII. The fludy Oriental languages.

CENT.

ROBERT CAPITO, with some other learned men, FART II whose number was but inconsiderable, applied themselves to the study of Greek literature. The Hebrew language and theology were much lefs Greek and cultivated; though it appears that BACON and CAPITO, already mentioned, and RAYMOND MAR-TIN, author of an excellent treatife, entitled, Pugio Fidei Christianæ, or, The Dagger of the Christian Faith, were extremely well versed in that species of crudition. Many of the Spaniards, and more particularly the Dominican friars, made themselves masters of the Arabian learning and language, as the kings of Spain had charged the latter with the instruction and conversion of the Jews and Saracens who refided in their dominions [r]. As to the Latin grammarians, the best of them were extremely barbarous and infipid, and equally destitute of taste and knowledge. To be convinced of this, we have only to cast an eye upon the productions of ALEX-ANDER DE VILLA DEI, who was looked upon as the most eminent of them all, and whose works were read in almost all the schools from this period until the fixteenth century. This pedantic Franciscan

> This illustrious Franciscan was, in point of genius and univerfal learning, one of the greatest ornaments of the British nation, and in general of the republic of letters. The astonishing discoveries he made in astronomy, chemistry, optics, and mathematics, made him pass for a magician in the ignorant and fuperstitious times in which he lived, while his profound knowledge in philosophy, theology, and the Greek and Oriental languages, procured him, with more justice, the title of the admirable, or avonderful dollar. Among other discoveries he is faid to have made that of the composition and force of gun-powder, which he defcribes clearly in one of his letters; and he proposed much the same correction of the Kalendar, which was executed about 300 years after by GREGORY XIII. He composed a prodigious number of books, of which the lift may be feen in the General Dictionary, at the article BACON.

[r] See Rich. Simon's Lettres Choistes, tom. iii. p. 112 .-

Nic. Antonii Bibliotheca vetus Hifpanica.

composed, in the year 1240, what he called, acent. Doctrinale, in Leonine verse, full of the most XIII. wretched quibbles, and in which the rules of PART II. grammar and criticism are delivered with the greatest confusion and obscurity, or rather, are covered with impenetrable darkness.

VII. The various fystems of philosophy that were The state of in vogue before this century, lost their credit by philosophy. degrees, and submitted to the triumphant doctrine of Aristotle, which erected a new and despotic empire in the republic of letters, and reduced the whole ideal world under its lordly dominion. Several of the works of this philosopher, and more especially his metaphyfical productions, had been fo early as the beginning of this century translated into Latin at Paris, and were from that time explained to the youth in the public schools [s]. But when it appeared, that Almeric $\lceil t \rceil$ had drawn from

[s] FRANC. PATRICII, Discussiones Peripatetica, tom. i. lib. xi. p. 145.-Jo. LAUNOIUS de varia Aristot. fortuna in Acad. Parisiensi, cap. i. p. 127. ed. Elswich. It is commonly reported, that the books of Aristotle here mentioned, were translated from Arabic into Latin. But we are told positively, that these books were brought from Constantinople, and translated from Greek into Latin. See RIGORDUS, De gestis Philippi regis Francorum ad A. 1209, in Andr. Chesnii Scriptor. Histor.

Franc. p. 119.

(ALMERIC, or AMAURI, does not seem to have entertained any enormous errors. He held that every Christian was obliged to believe himself a member of Jesus Christ, and attached, perhaps, fome extravagant and fanatical ideas to that opinion; but his followers fell into more pernicious notions, and adopted the most odious tenets, maintaining, that the power of the Father continued no longer than the Mosaic dispensation; that the empire of the Son extended only to the thirteenth century; and that then the reign of the Holy Ghost commenced, when all facraments and external worship were to be abolithed, and the falvation of Christians was to be accomplished merely by internal acts of illuminating grace. Their morals also were as infamous as their doctrine was absurd, and under the name of charity they comprehended and committed the most criminal acts of impurity and licentiousness.

CENT. these books his erroneous sentiments concerning the divine nature, they were prohibited and condemned PART II as pernicious and pestilential, by a public decree of the council of Sens, in the year 1200 [u]. The logic of ARISTOTLE, however, recovered its credit fome years after this, and was publicly taught in the university of Paris in the year 1215; but the natural philosophy and metaphysic of that great man were still under the fentence of condemnation [w]. It was referred for the emperor Frederic II. to restore the Stagirite to his former glory, which this prince effected by employing a number of learned men, whom he had chosen with the greatest attention and care [x], and who were profoundly versed in the knowledge of the languages, to translate into Latin, from the Greek and Arabic, certain books of Aristotle, and of other ancient fages. This translation, which was recommended, in a particular manner, to the academy of Bolonia by the learned emperor, raifed the credit of ARISTOTLE to the greatest height, and gave him an irresistible and despotic authority in all the European schools. This authority was still farther augmented by the

[u] Dr. Mosheim has fallen here into two light mistakes. It was in Paris, and not in Sens, and in the year 1210, and not in 1209, that the metaphysical books of Aristotle were condemned to the slames. The writers quoted here by our author are Launoius, De varia Aristotelis fortuna in Acad. Pariscap. iv. p. 195. and the same writer's Syllabus rationum quibus Durandi causa defenditur, tom. i. opp. pars I. p. 8.

[w] NAT. ALEXANDER, Select. Hiftor. Ecclef. Capita, tom.

viii. cap. iii. § 7. p. 76.

[N] PETR. DE VINIIS, Epiflolar. lib. iii. ep. lavii. p. 503. This epithle is addressed ad magistros et scholares Bononienses, i. e. to the masters and scholars of the academy of Bolonia; but it is more than probable, that the emperor sent letters, upon this occasion, to the other European schools. It is a common opinion, that this learned prince had all the works of Aristotle, that were then extant, translated into Latin about the year 1020; but this cannot be deduced from the letter above mentioned, nor from any other sufficient testimony that we know of.

translations, which were made of some of the books cent. of the Grecian sage by several Latin interpreters, XIII. such as Michael Scot, Philip of Tripoly, Wil-Part II.

LIAM Fleming, and others; though these men were quite unequal to the task they undertook, and had neither such knowledge of the languages, nor such an acquaintance with philosophy, as were necessary to the successful execution of such a difficult enterprise [v].

VIII. The Aristotelian philosophy received the Thomas very last addition that could be made to its autho-Aquinas and others rity and lustre, when the Dominican and Franciscan adopt and friars adopted its tenets, taught it in their schools, maintain the Aristo-and illustrated it in their writings. These two mentalian dicant orders were looked upon as the chief depo-system. Sitaries of all learning both human and divine; and

dicant orders were looked upon as the chief depofitaries of all learning both human and divine; and were followed with the utmost eagerness and affiduity, by all such as were ambitious of being distinguished from the multitude by their superior knowledge. Alexander Hales, an English Franciscan, who taught philosophy at Paris, and acquired, by the strength of his metaphysical genius, the title of the Irrefragable Doctor [z], and Albert the Great, a German, of the Dominican order, and bishop of Ratiston, a man of vast abilities and a universal dictator at this time [a], were the two sirst eminent writers who illustrated, in their learned

[2] See Lucæ Waddingi Annales Minorum, tom. iii. p. 233.—Du Boulay, Histor. Acad. Paris. tom. iii. p. 200. 673.
[a] Jo. Alb. Fabricii Bibliotheca Latina medii ævi, tom. i.

p. 113.

[[]y] See Wood's account of the interpreters of Aristotle, in his Antiquitat. Oxon. tom. i. p. 119. as also Jebb's Preface to the Opus Majus of the famous Roger Bacon, published at London in solio, in the year 1733. We shall give here the opinion which Bacon had of the translators of Aristotle, in the words of that great man, who expresses his contempt of these wretched interpreters in the following manner: Si haberem (says he) potestatem supra libros Aristotelis Latine conversos, ego facerem omnes cremari, quia non est nist temporis amissio studere in illis, et causa erroris et multiplicatio ignorantiæ, ultra id quod valet explica i.

CENT. productions, the Aristotelian system. But it was the XIII. disciple of Albert, Thomas Aquinas, the Angelic PART II. Doctor, and the great luminary of the scholastic world, that contributed most to the glory of the Stagirite $\lceil b \rceil$, by inculcating, illustrating, and enforcing his doctrines, both in his lectures and in his writings; and principally by engaging one of his learned colleagues to give, under his inspection, a new translation of the works of the Grecian fage, which far surpassed the former version in exactness, perspicuity, and elegance $\lceil c \rceil$. By these means the philosophy of ARISTOTLE, notwithstanding the opposition of several divines, and even of the Roman pontiffs themfelves, who beheld its progress with an unfriendly eye, triumphed in all the Latin schools, and absorbed all the other fystems that had flourished before this

The limits of science are extendmen,

IX. There were, however, at this time in Europe feveral perfons of fuperior genius and penetration, ed by fevel who, notwithstanding their veneration for Aristoral eminent TLE, thought the method of treating philosophy, which his writings had introduced, dry, inelegant, and proper to confine and damp the efforts of the mind in the pursuit of truth, and who, consequently,

> [b] The Dominicans maintain, that this Angelic Doctor was the disciple of ALBERT the Great, and their opinion seems to be founded in truth. See Antoine Touron, Vie de St. Thomas, The Franciscans however maintain as obstinately, that ALEXANDER HALES was the master of Thomas.

DINGI Annales Minorum, tom. iii. p. 133.

literary revolution.

[c] It has been believed by many, that WILLIAM DE MOER, BEKA, a native of Flanders, of the Dominican order, and archbishop of Corinth, was the author of the new Latin translation of the Works of Aristotle, which was carried on and finished under the auspicious inspection of THOMAS AQUINAS. See J. ECHAPD, Scriptores Dominican. tom. i. p. 338 .- CASIM. OUDI-NUS Comm. de Scriptor. Eccles. tom. iii. p. 468. Jo. FRANC. FOPPENS, Bibliotheca Belgica, tom. i. p. 416. Others however Suppose, though indeed with less evidence, that this translation was composed by HENRY Kosbein, who was also a Dominican. See Echard, Script. Dominic. tom. i. p. 469.

were desirous of enlarging the sphere of science by CE'NT. new researches and new discoveries [d]. At the XIII. head of these noble adventurers we may justly place PART II. ROGER BACON, a Franciscan friar, of the English nation, known by the appellation of the admirable doctor, renowned on account of his most important discoveries, and who, in the progress he had made in natural philosophy, mathematics, chemistry, the mechanic arts, and the learned languages, soared far beyond the genius of the times [e]. With him we may associate Arnold of Villa Nova, whose place of nativity is fixed by some in France, by others

[d] BACON's contempt of the learning that was in vogue in his time may be feen in the following passage quoted by JEBB, in his Preface to the Opus Majus of that great man: Nunguam, fays he, fuit tanta apparentia sapientia, nec tantum enercitium slucii in tot facultatibus, in tot regionibus, sicut jam a quadraginta annis; ubique enim doctores sunt dispersi . . . in omni civitate, et in omni castro, et in omni burgo, pracipue per duos ordines studentes (he means the Franciscans and Dominicans, who were almost the only religious orders that distinguished themselves by an application to study) quod non accidit, nisi a quadraginta annis aut circiter, cum tamen nunquam fuit TANTA IGNORANTIA, TANTUS ERROR ... Vulgus studentium languet et osininat circa male translata (by these wretched versions he understands the works of Aristotle, which were most miserably translated by ignorant bunglers) et tempus et studium amittit in omnibus et expensas. Apparentia quidem sola tenet eos, et non curant quid sciant, sed quid videantur scire coran multitudine insensata. Thus, according to BACON, in the midst of the most specious appearance of science, the greatest ignorance and the groffest errors reigned almost universally.

That Bacon deserves this high rank in the learned world appears evidently from his book, entitled Opus Majus, which was dedicated to the Roman pontiff, CLEMENT IV. and which doctor Jebb published at London in 1733, from a manuscript which still exists in the university of Dublin, enriching it with a learned Presace and a considerable number of judicious observations. The other works of Bacon, which are very numerous, lie as yet for the most part conceased in the libraries of the curious. For a sarther account of this eminent man, see Wood, Antiq. Oxon. tom. i. p. 136—Wadding Linnales Minor. tom. iv. p. 264. tom. v. p. 51.—Thom. Gale ad Jamblichum de Mysteriis Ægyptior. p. 255. General Hist. and Crit. Distionary, at the article Bacon.

CENT. in Spain, and who acquired a shining reputation by xIII. his knowledge in chemistry, poetry, philosophy, lan-Plart II guages, and physic [f]; as also Petrus de Abano, a physician of Padua, who was furnamed the Reconciler, from a book he wrote with a defign to terminate the diffensions and contests that reigned among the philosophers and physicians [g], and who was profoundly versed in the sciences of philosophy, aftronomy, physic, and mathematics $\lceil h \rceil$. It must, however, be observed, to the eternal dishonour of the age, that the only fruits which these great men enjoyed of their learned labours, and their noble, as well as fuccefsful, efforts for the advancement of the arts and sciences, were the furious clamours of an enraged and superstitious multitude, who looked upon them as heretics and magicians, and thirsted fo eagerly after their blood, that they escaped with difficulty the hands of the public executioner. BAcon was confined many years to a loathfome prison; and the other two were, after their death, brought before the tribunal of the inquisition, and declared worthy of being committed to the flames for the novelties they had introduced into the republic of letters.

The fludy of law and physic.

X. The state of theology, and the method of teaching and representing the doctrines of Christianity that now prevailed, shall be mentioned in their place. The civil and canon laws held the first rank in the circle of the sciences, and were studied

[g] This book was entitled, Conciliator Differentiarum Philo-

sophorum et Medicorum.

[b] There is a very accurate account of this philosopher given by Joh. MARIA MAZZUCHELLI Notizie Storiche e Critiche intorno alla vita di Pietro d'Abano, in Angeli Calogeræ Opusculi Ecientissici et Philologici, tom. xiii. p. i.—liv.

[[]f] See Nic. Antonii Biblioth. vetus Hispan. tom. ii. lib. ix. c. i. p. 74.—Pierre Joseph Vie d' Arnaud de Ville neuve, Aix. 1719.—Niceron, Memoires des hommes illustres, tom. xxxiv. p. 82.—Nicol. Eymerici Directorium Inquisitorum. p. 282. where, among other things, we have an account of his errors.

with a peculiar zeal and application by almost allcent. who were ambitious of literary glory. These sciences, XIII. however, notwithstanding the assiduity with which PART II. they were cultivated, were far from being, as yet, brought to any tolerable degree of perfection. They were disfigured by the jargon that reigned in the schools, and they were corrupted and rendered intricate by a multitude of trivial commentaries that were defigned to illustrate and explain them. employed their labours in collecting the letters of the Roman pontiffs, which are commonly known under the title of *Decretals* $\lceil i \rceil$, and which were looked upon as a very important branch of ecclefiastical law. RAIMOND of Pennafort, a native of Barcelona, was the most famous of all these compilers, and acquired a confiderable reputation by his collection of the Decretals in five books, which he undertook at the defire of GREGORY IX. and which has been fince honoured with the name of that pontiff, who ordered it to be added to the Decretals of GRATIAN, and to be read in all the European colleges $\lceil k \rceil$. Towards the conclusion of this century, Boniface VIII. had a new collection made, which was entitled, The Sixth Book of Decretals, because it was added to the five already mentioned.

[[]i] See Boulay, Hist. Academ. Paris. tom. iii. p. 98.
[k] Gerh. a Mastricht, Historia juris Ecclesiassici, § 353.
p. 384.—Jo. Chiflet, De juris utriusque Architectis, cap. vi, p. 60.—Echard et Quetif, Scriptores Dominicani, tom. i. p. 106.—Acla Sanctor. Antwerp. tom. i. Januarii ad d. vii. p. 404.

CHAPTER II.

Concerning the doctors and ministers of the church, and its form of government, during this century.

I. BOTH the Greek and Latin writers, pro-CENT. XIII. voked, beyond measure, by the flagitious lives of PART II their spiritual rulers and instructors, complain loudly of their licentious manners, and load them with the The corfeverest reproaches; nor will these complaints and ruption of reproaches appear excessive to such as are acquainted the clergy. with the history of this corrupt and superstitious age [1]. Several eminent men attempted to stem this torrent of licentiousness, which from the heads of the church had carried its pernicious streams through all the members; but their power and influence were unequal to fuch a difficult and arduous enterprize. The Grecian emperors were prevented from executing any project of this kind by the infelicity of the times, and the various calamities and

And of the Roman pontiffs. the church.

II. The history of the popes presents a lively and horrible picture of the complicated crimes that dishonoured the ministers of the church, who were

tumults, that not only reigned in their dominions, but even shook the throne on which they sat; while the power and opulence of the Roman pontists and the superstition of the age hindered the Latins from accomplishing, or even attempting, a reformation in

[1] See the remarkable letter of the Roman pontiff, GREGORY IX. to the archbishop of Bourges, which was written in the year 1227, with a design to reprove and reform the vices which had insessed all the various orders of the clergy, and which is published by Dion. Sammarthanus, in his Gallia Christiana, tom. ii. in Append. p. 21.—See also Du Fresne, Adnotat. in Vitam Ludovici Sti. p. 99.

peculiarly obliged, by their facred office, to exhibit CENT. to the world distinguished models of piety and virtue. XIII. Such of the Sacerdotal order as were advanced to PART II. places of authority in the church, behaved rather like tyrants than rulers, and showed manifestly, in all their conduct, that they aimed at an absolute and unlimited dominion. The popes, more especially, inculcated that pernicious maxim, "That the bishop of Rome is the supreme lord of the universe, "and that neither princes nor bishops, civil gover-"nors nor ecclefiaftical rulers, have any lawful "power in church or state but what they derive "from him." This extravagant maxim, which was confidered as the fum and fubstance of papal jurifprudence, the Roman pontiffs maintained obstinately, and left no means unemployed, that perfidy or violence could fuggest, to give it the force of a universal law. It was in confequence of this arrogant pretention, that they not only claimed the right of disposing of ecclefiaftical benefices, as they are commonly called, but also of conferring civil dominion, and of dethroning kings and emperors, according to their good pleafure. It is true, this maxim was far from being univerfally adopted; many placed the authority of councils above that of the pontiffs, and fuch of the European kings and princes as were not ingloriously blinded and enflaved by the superstition of the times, afferted their rights with dignity and fuccess, excluded the pontiffs from all concern in their civil transactions, nay, even referved to themselves the supremacy over the churches that were established in their dominions [m]. In opposing thus the haughty

[[]m] As a specimen of this, the reader may peruse the letters of Innocent III. and the emperor Otho IV. which have been collected by the learned George Christ. Gebaur, in his History of the Emperor Richard, written in German, p. 611—614. Other princes, and more especially the kings of England and France, displayed, in the defence of their rights and privileges, the same zeal that animated Otho.

CENT. pretentions of the lordly pontiffs, it was, indeed, xIII. necessary to proceed with mildness, caution, and PART II. prudence, on account of the influence which these ipiritual tyrants had usurped over the minds of the people, and the power they had of alarming princes, by exciting their subjects to rebellion. III. In order to establish their authority, both in

bishops, ab-

of creating civil and ecclefiastical matters, upon the firmest bots, &c. foundations, the Roman pontiffs affumed to themclaimed by felves the power of disposing of the various offices the pontifis. of the church, whether of a higher or more subordinate nature, and of creating bishops, abbots, and canons, according to their fancy. Thus we see the ghostly heads of the church, who formerly disputed with fuch ardour against the emperors in favour of the free election of bishops and abbots, overturning now all the laws that related to the election of these fpiritual rulers, referving for themselves the revenues of the richest benefices, conferring vacant places upon their clients and their creatures, nay, often deposing bishops that had been duly and lawfully elected, and substituting, with a high hand, others in their room [n]. The hypocritical pretexts for all these arbitrary proceedings were an ardent zeal for the welfare of the church, and an anxious concern, lest devouring bereties should get a footing among the flock of CHRIST [0]. The first of the pontiffs, who usurped such an extravagant extent of authority, was Innocent III. whose example was followed by Honorius III. Gregory IX. and feveral of their fuccesfors. But it was keenly opposed by the bishops, who had hitherto enjoyed

[0] See the Epifle of Innocent IV. in Baluz. Mifcellan.

tom. vii. p. 468.

[[]n] Many examples of this may be taken from the history of this century. See Steph. Baluzii Miscellan. tom. vii. p. 443. 466. 470. 488. 491. 493. -Gallia Christiana, tom. i. p. 69. Append .- Luc. WADDING! Annal. Minor. in Diplomat .- Wood Antiquit. Oxon. tom. i. p. 148. 201, 202.

the privilege of nominating to the smaller benefices, CENT. and still more effectually by the kings of England XIII. and France, who employed the force of warm PARTH. remonstrances and vigorous edicts to stop the progress of this new jurisprudence [p]. Lewis IX. king of France, and now the tutelar faint of that nation, distinguished himself by the noble opposition he made to these papal encroachments. In the year 1268, before he fet out for the Holy Land, he fecured the rights of the Gallican church against the infidious attempts of the Roman pontiffs, by that famous edick known in France by the name of the pragmatic fanction [q]. This resolute and prudent measure rendered the pontiffs more cautious and flow in their proceedings, but did not terrify them from the profecution of their purpose. For Boni-FACE VIII. maintained, in the most express and impudent terms, that the univerfal church was under the dominion of the pontiffs, and that princes and lay-patrons, councils and chapters, had no more power in spiritual things, than what they derived from Christ's vicar upon earth.

IV. The legates, whom the pontiffs fent into the The authoprovinces, to represent their persons, and execute rity of the their orders, imitated persectly the avarice and gates. infolence of their masters. They violated the privileges of the chapters; disposed of the smaller, and fometimes of the more important ecclefiastical benefices, in favour of fuch as had gained them by bribes, or fuch like confiderations [r]; extorted money from the people by the vilest and most iniquitous means; feduced the unwary by forged letters and other stratagems of that nature; excited tumults among the multitude, and were, themselves,

[[]p] Boulay, Histor. Acad. Paris. tom. iii. p. 659. and principally tom. iv. p. 911.

[[]q] Idem, ib. p. 389.

[[]r] See BALUZII Miscellanea, tom. vii. p. 437. 475. 480,

CENT. the ringleaders of the most furious and rebellious XIII. factions; carried on, in the most scandalous manner, PART II the impious traffick of relicks and indulgences, and

diffinguished themselves by several acts of profligacy still more heinous than the practices now mentioned. Hence we find the writers of this age complaining unanimously of the flagitious conduct and the enormous crimes of the pope's legates [s]. we fee the Roman pontiff ALEXANDER IV. enacting, in the year 1256, a fevere law against the avarice and frauds of these corrupt ministers $\lceil t \rceil$, which however, they eafily evaded, by their friends and their credit at the court of Rome.

The wealth and ravenues of the mented.

V. From the ninth century to this period, the wealth and revenues of the pontiffs had not received pontiffaug any confiderable augmentation; but at this time they were vastly increased under Innocent III. and NICOLAS III. partly by the events of war, and partly by the munificence of kings and emperors. INNOCENT was no fooner feated in the papal chair, than he reduced under his jurisdiction the præfect of Rome, who had hitherto been confidered as fubject to the emperor, to whom he had taken an oath of allegiance in entering upon his office. He also seized upon Ancona, Spoletto, Affis, and several cities and fortreffes which had, according to him, been unjustly alienated from the patrimony of St. PETER [u]. On the other hand, FREDERIC II. who was extremely defirous that the pope should espouse his quarrel with Отно IV. loaded the

[[]s] See that judicious and excellent writer MATTH. PARIS, in his Historia Major, p. 313. 316. 549. and particularly p. 637. where we find the following remarkable words: Semper folent legati quales, et omnes nuncii papales regna que ingrediuntur depauperare, vel aliquo modo perturbare. See also Boulay. Histor. Acad. Parif. tom. iii. p. 659.

[[]t] This edict is published by LAMI, in his Delicia Eruditorum, tom. ii. p. 300.

[[]u] See Franc. Pagi Breviar. Romanor. Pontif. tom. iii. p. 161.—MURATORII Autiq. Italica, tom. i. p. 328.

Roman fee with the richest marks of his munificence CENT. and liberality, and not only made a noble prefent in XIII. valuable lands to the pope's brother [w], but also PART II. permitted RICHARD count of Fundi to leave, by will, all his possessions to the Roman see [x], and confirmed the immense donation that had formerly been made to it by the opulent MATILDA. Such was the progress that Innocent III. made, during his pontificate, in augmenting the splendour and wealth of the church. NICOLAS IV. followed his example with the warmest emulation, and, in the year 1278, gave a remarkable proof of his arrogance and obstinacy, in refusing to crown the emperor Rodolphus I. before he had acknowledged and confirmed, by a folemn treaty, all the pretentions of the Roman fee, of which, if some were plausible, the greatest part were altogether groundless, or, at least, extremely dubious. This agreement, to which all the Italian princes, that were subject to the emperor, were obliged to accede, was no fooner concluded, than Nicolas reduced under his temporal dominion feveral cities and territories in Italy, that had formerly been annexed to the imperial crown, particularly Romania and Bologna. It was therefore under these two pontiss, that the see of Rome arrived, partly by force, and partly by artifice, at that high degree of grandeur and opulence, which it yet maintains in our times [y].

VI. INNOCENT III. who remained at the head of The tyranthe church until the year 1216, followed the steps nic pontificate of Gregory VII. and not only usurped the despotic nocent III. government of the church, but also claimed the proved by feveral empire of the world, and thought of nothing less than examples.

[[]w] This brother of the pontiff was called RICHARD. See for an account of this transaction, MURATORI'S Antiquitat. Italica, tom. v. p. 652.

[[]x] Odor. Raynaldus, Continuat. Annal. Baronii, ad A. 1212. § ii.

[[]y] See RAYNALDUS, loc. cit. ad A. 1278, § 47.

CENT. Subjecting the kings and princes of the earth to his lordly fceptre. He was a man of learning and PART II application; but his cruelty, avarice, and arrogance [z] clouded the lustre of any good qualities which his panegyrifts have thought proper to attribute to In Afia and Europe, he disposed of crowns and fceptres with the most wanton ambition. Asia, he gave a king to the Armenians: in Europe, he usurped the same extravagant privilege in the year 1204, and conferred the regal dignity upon Primislaus, duke of Bohemia $\lceil a \rceil$. The fame year he fent to Johannicus, duke of Bulgaria and Walachia, an extraordinary legate, who, in the name of the pontiff, invested that prince with the ensigns and honours of royalty, while, with his own hand, he crowned Peter II. of Arragon, who had rendered his dominions subject and tributary to the church, and faluted him publicly at Rome with the title of King $\lceil b \rceil$. We omit many other examples of this frenetic pretention to univeral empire, which might be produced from the letters of this arrogant pontiff, and many other acts of despotism, which Europe

> obedience. VII. The ambition of this pope was not fatisfied with the distribution and government of these petty kingdoms. He extended his views farther, and refolved to render the power and majesty of the Roman fee formidable to the greatest European monarchs, and even to the emperors themselves. When the empire of Germany was disputed, towards the commencement of this century, between PHILIP,

> beheld with astonishment, but also, to its eternal reproach, with the ignominious filence of a paffive

[b] Muratorii Antiq. Ital. medii evi, tom. vi. p. 116.-Jo. DE FERRERA, Histoire d'Espagne, tom. iv. p. 8.

^[2] See Matth. Paris, Hiffor. M. jor, p. 206. 230. (3 [a] Other historians assirm, that it was the emperor PHILIP that conferred the royal dignity upon PRIMISLAUS, in order to strengthen his party against OTHO.

duke of Swabia, and Otho IV. third fon ofcent. HENRY LION, he espoused, at first, the cause of XIII. OTHO, thundered out his excommunications against PART II. PHILIP, and, upon the death of the latter, which happened in the year 1209, he placed the imperial diadem upon the head of his adversary. But as Отно was, by no means, difposed to submit to this pontiff's nod, or to fatisfy to the full his ambitious defires, he incurred, of consequence, his lordly indignation; and Innocent, declaring him, by a folemn excommunication, unworthy of the empire, raised in his place FREDERIC II. his pupil, the son of Henry VI. and king of the two Sicilies, to the imperial throne in the year 1212 [c]. The fame pontiff excommunicated Philip Augustus, king of France, for having diffolved his marriage with INGERBURG, a princess of Denmark, and espoused another in her place; nor did he cease to pursue this monarch with his anathemas, until he engaged him to receive the divorced queen, and to reffore her to her lost dignity $\lceil d \rceil$.

VIII. But of all the European princes none felt, in so dishonorable and severe a manner, the despotic fury of this insolent pontiff as John, surnamed Sans terre, king of England. This prince opposed vigorously the measures of Innocent, who had ordered the monks of Canterbury to chuse Stephen Langton, a Roman cardinal of English descent, archbishop of that see, notwithstanding the election of John de Grey to that high dignity, which had been regularly made by the convent, and had been consirmed by royal authority [e]. The

[[]c] All this is amply illustrated in the Origines Guelphica, tom. iii. lib. vii. p. 247.

[[]d] Boulay, Histor. Acad. Paris. tom. iii. p. 8.—Daniel, Histoire de la France tom. iii. p. 475.—Gerhard. du Bois, Histor. Eccles. Paris. tom. ii. p. 204—257.

⁽Ге] Dr. Mosheim passes lightly over this rupture between king John and Innocent III. mentioning in a few lines the interdict under which England was laid by that pontiff, the

CENT. pope, after having confecrated Langton at Viterbo; XIII. wrote a foothing letter in his favour, to the king, PART II. accompanied with four rings, and a mystical comment upon the precious stones with which they were enriched. But this present was not sufficient to avert the just indignation of the offended monarch.

avert the just indignation of the offended monarch, who fent a body of troops to drive out of the kingdom the monks of Canterbury, who had been engaged by the pope's menaces to receive Langton as their archbishop. The king also declared to the pontiff, that, if he perfifted in imposing a prelate upon the fee of Canterbury, in opposition to a regular election already made, the confequences of fuch prefumptuous obstinacy would, in the issue, prove fatal to the papal authority in England. INNOCENT was fo far from being terrified by this menacing remonstrance, that in the year 1200, he sent orders to the bishops of London, Worcester, and Ely, to lay the kingdom under an interdict, in case the monarch refused to yield and to receive LANGTON. JOHN, alarmed at this terrible menace, and unwilling to break entirely with the pope, declared his readiness to confirm the election made at Rome; but, in the act that was drawn up for this purpole, he wifely threw in a clause to prevent any interpretation of this compliance, that might be prejudicial to his rights, dignity, and prerogative. This exception was rejected, and the interdict was proclaimed. stop was immediately put to divine service; the churches were shut; the administration of all the facraments was suspended except that of baptism; the dead were buried in the highways without the usual rites or any funeral folemnity.

excommunication he issued out against the king's person, and the impious act by which he absolved the English from their allegiance. The translator, however, thought this event of too great importance to be treated with such brevity, and has, therefore, taken the liberty to enlarge considerably this eighth section, which contains but eleven lines in the original.

notwithstanding this interdict, the Cistertian order CENT. continued to perform divine service, and several XIII. learned and respectable divines, among which were PART II. the bishops of *Winchester* and *Norwich*, protested against the injustice of the pope's proceedings.

The interdict not producing the effects that were expected from it, the pontiff proceeded to a still farther degree of feverity and prefumption, and denounced a fentence of excommunication against the person of the English monarch. This sentence, which was iffued out in the year 1208, was followed about three years after by a bull, absolving all his subjects from their oath of allegiance, and ordering all persons to avoid him, on pain of excommunication. But it was in the year 1212, that Innocent carried his impious tyranny to the most enormous length, when, affembling a council of cardinals and prelates, he deposed John, declared the throne of England vacant, and wrote to Philip Augus-Tus, king of France, to execute this fentence, to undertake the conquest of England, and to unite that kingdom to his dominions forever. He, at the fame time, published another bull, exhorting all Christian princes to contribute, whatever was in their power, to the fuccess of this expedition, promising such as seconded Philip in this grand enterprife, the fame indulgences that were granted to those who carried arms against the infidels in Palestine. The French monarch entered into the views of the Roman pontiff, and made immense preparations for the invasion of England. The king of England, on the other hand, affembled his forces, and was putting himself in a posture of defence, when PANDULF, the pope's legate, arrived at Dover, and proposed a conference in order to prevent the approaching rupture, and to conjure the storm. This artful legate terrified the king, who met him at that place, with an exaggerated account of the armament of PHILIP on the one hand, and of the disaffection Vol. III.

EENT. of the English on the other; and persuaded him XIII. that there was no possible way left of saving his PART II. dominions from the formidable arms of the French

king, but that of putting them under the protection of the Roman see. John, finding himself in such a perplexing fituation, and full of diffidence both in the nobles of his court and in the officers of his army, complied with this dishonourable proposal, did homage to Innocent, refigned his crown to the legate, and received it again as a present from the fee of Rome, to which he rendered his kingdoms tributary, and fwore fealty as a vaffal and feudatory [f]. In the act by which he refigned, thus fcandalously, his kingdoms to the papal jurisdiction, he declared that he had neither been compelled to this measure by fear nor by force; but that it was his own voluntary deed, performed by the advice, and with the confent, of the barons of his kingdom. He obliged himself and his heirs to pay an annual fum of feven hundred marks for England, and three hundred for Ireland, in acknowledgment of the pope's supremacy and jurisdiction; and consented that he or fuch of his fucceffors as should refuse to pay the submission now stipulated, to the see of Rome, fhould forfeit all their right to the British crown [g]. "This shameful ceremony was performed, says a "modern historian [b], on Ascension-day, in the "house of the Templars at Dover, in the midst of "a great concourse of people, who beheld it with " confusion and indignation. John, in doing "homage to the pope, prefented a fum of money to

[[]f] For a full account of this shameful ceremony, see MATTHEW PARIS, Historia Major, p. 189. 192. 195.—As also Boulay, Histor. Acad. Paris. tom. iii. p. 67.—RAPIN THOYERS Histoire d'Angleterre, tom. ii. p. 304.

Charter of resignation, which may be seen at length in the Hist. Major of MATTHEW PARIS.

[[]b] See the Complete History of England, by Dr. Smoller, vol. i. p. 437.

" his representative, which the proud legate trampled CENT.

" under his feet, as a mark of the king's dependence. XIII.

"Every spectator glowed with resentment, and the PART II.

" archbishop of Dublin exclaimed aloud against such

"intolerable infolence. PANDULF, not satisfied

"with this mortifying act of superiority, kept the

" crown and sceptre five whole days, and then restored

"them as a special favour of the Roman see. John

was despised before this extraordinary resignation;

"but now he was looked upon as a contemptible

"wretch, unworthy to fit upon a throne: while he himself seemed altogether insensible of his dis-

" grace."

IX. INNOCENT III. was fucceeded in the ponti-Honorius ficate by Concio Savelli, who assumed the title of Honorius III. ruled the church above ten years, and whose government, though not signalized by fuch audacious exploits as those of his predecessor, discovered, nevertheless, an ardent zeal for maintaining the pretensions, and supporting the despotism, of the Roman see. It was in consequence of this zeal, that the new pontiff opposed the measures, and drew upon him the indignation of Frederic II. that magnanimous prince, on whose head he himself had placed, in the year 1220, the imperial crown. This spirited prince, following the steps of his illustrious grandfather, had formed the resolution of confirming the authority, and extending the jurisdiction of the emperors in Italy, of depressing the fmall states of Lombardy, and reducing to narrower limits the immense credit and opulence of the pontiffs and bishops; and it was with a view to the execution of these grand projects, that he deferred the fulfilling of the folemn vow, by which he had engaged himself to march a formidable army against the infidels in *Palestine*. The pontiff, on the other hand, urged, with importunity, the emperor's departure, encouraged, animated, and strengthened, by

CENT. fecret fuccours, the Italian states that opposed his pretensions, and resisted the progress of his power PART 11. by all the obstacles which the most fertile invention could fuggeft. These contests, however, had not, as yet, brought on an open rupture.

The calamities that arofe from the ambigory IX.

X. In the year 1227, Hugolinus, bishop of Oftia, whose advanced age had not extinguished the fire of his ambition, nor diminished the firmness and tion of Gre-obstinacy of his spirit, was raised to the pontificate, affumed the title of GREGORY IX. and kindled the feuds and diffensions, that had already secretly fubfisted between the church and the empire, into an open and violent flame. No fooner was he placed in the papal chair, than, contrary to all justice and order, he excommunicated the emperor for putting off his expedition against the Saracens another year, though that delay was manifestly owing to a fit of fickness, which seized that prince when he was ready to embark for Palestine. In the year 1228. Fre-DERIC at last set out and arrived in the Holy Land; but, instead of carrying on the war with vigour, as we have had already occasion to observe, he entered into a truce with SALADIN, and contented himself with the recovery of Jerufalem. The pretended vicar of Christ, forgetting (or rather unwilling to perfuade himself) that his master's kingdom was not of this world, made war upon the emperor in Apuglia during his absence [i], and used his utmost efforts to arm against him all the European powers. FREDE RIC, having received information of these perfidious and violent proceedings, returned into Europe in the year 1229, defeated the papal army, retook the places he had loft in Sicily and in Italy, and the year following made his peace with the pontiff, from

[[]i] Under the feeble reign of HENRY III. the pope drew immenfe fums out of England for the support of this impious war, and carried his audacious avarice so far, as to demand the sifth part of the ecclefialtical revenues of the whole kingdom.

whom he received a public and folemn absolution. CENT. This peace, however, was but of a short duration; XIII. nor was it possible for the emperor to bear the infolent PARTIL. proceedings, and the imperious temper, of GRE-GORY. He therefore broke all measures with that headstrong pontiff, distressed the states of Lombardy that were in alliance with the fee of Rome, feized upon the island of Sardinia, which Gregory looked upon as a part of his spiritual patrimony, and erected it into a kingdom for his fon Entius. Thefe, with other steps that were equally provoking to the avarice and ambition of GREGORY, drew the thunder of the Vatican anew upon the emperor's head in the year 1239. FREDERIC was excommunicated publicly with all the circumstances of feverity that vindictive rage could invent, and was charged with the most flagitious crimes, and the most impious blasphemies, by the exasperated pontiss, who fent a copy of this terrible accufation to all the courts of Europe. The emperor, on the other hand, defended his injured reputation by folemn declarations in writing, while, by his victorious arms, he avenged himself of his adversaries, maintained his ground, and reduced the pontiff to the greatest straits. To get rid of these difficulties, the latter convened in the year 1240, a general council at Rome, with a view to depose Frederic by the unanimous fuffrages of the cardinals and prelates, that were to compose that assembly. But the emperor disconcerted that audacious project by defeating, in the year 1241, a Genoese sleet, on board of which the greatest part of these prelates were embarked, and by feizing, with all their treasures, these reverend fathers, who were all committed to close confinement. This disappointment, attended with others which gave an unhappy turn to his affairs, and blafted his most promising expectations, dejected and confumed the despairing

CENT. pontiff, and contributed probably to the conclusion of XIII. his days, which happened soon after this remarkable PART II. event $\lceil k \rceil$.

Innocent IV.

XI. GEOFFRY, bishop of Milan, who succeeded GREGORY IX. under the title of CELESTINE IV. died before his confecration, and, after a vacancy of twenty months, the apostolic stool was filled by SINIBALD, one of the counts of Fiefque, who was raifed to the pontificate in the year 1243, assumed the denomination of Innocent IV. and yielded to none of his predecessors in arrogance and fury [1]. His elevation, however, offered at first a prospect of peace, as he had formerly been attached to the interests of the emperor, and accordingly the conferences were opened, and a reconciliation was proposed; but the terms offered by the new pope were too imperious and extravagant, not to be rejected with indignation by the emperor $\lceil m \rceil$. Hence it was that Innocent, not thinking himself safe in any part of Italy, fet out from Genoa, the place of his birth, for Lyons in the year 1244, and affembling there a council the following year, deposed, in their presence, though not with their approbation, the emperor FREDERIC, and declared the imperial throne

[1] See Matthew Paris, Historia Major ad A. 1254. p. 771.

[m] These preliminary conditions were: 1st, That the emperor should give up entirely to the church the inheritance which was lest to it by MATHILDA; and, 2dly, That he would oblige himself to submit to whatever terms the pope should think sit to propose, as conditions of peace.

[[]k] Besides the original and authentic authors collected by MURATORI, in his Scriptores rerum Italicarum, and the German and Italian historians, sew or none of whom are absolutely void of partiality in their accounts of these unhappy contests between the empire and the papacy, see Petrus de Viniis, Epistol. lib. i. and Matth. Paris, Historia Major. Add to these Raynaldi Annal.—Muratori Annal. Italia, tom. vii. & Antiquit. Italia. tom. iv. p. 325. 517. It must however be observed, that this branch of history stands yet in need of farther illustrations.

vacant $\lceil n \rceil$. This unjust and infolent measure was CENT. regarded with fuch veneration, and looked upon as xIII. fo weighty by the German princes, seduced and PART II. blinded by the superstition of the times, that they proceeded instantly to a new election, and raised first, Henry, landgrave of Thuringia, and after his death, WILLIAM, count of Holland, to the head of the empire. FREDERIC, whose firm and heroic fpirit supported without dejection these cruel vicissitudes, continued to carry on the war in Italy, until a violent dysentery ended his days in Apulia, the 13th of December, 1250. Upon the death of his formidable and magnanimous adversary, Innocent returned into Italy [0], hoping now to enjoy with fecurity the fruits of his ambition. It was principally from this period, that the two famous factions, called Guelphs and Guibelines, of which the latter espoused the cause of the emperors, and the former that of the pontiffs, involved all the Italian states in the most fatal diffensions, though their origin is much earlier than this century $\lceil p \rceil$.

XII. RAYNALD, count of Segni, and bishop of Alexander Ostia, was raised to the pontificate after the death of IV.

INNOCENT, in the year 1254, and is distinguished in the list of the popes by the name of ALEXANDER IV. During the six years and six months that he governed the see of Rome, his time was less employed in civil affairs, than in regulating the internal state of the church, if we except the measures he took for the destruction of Conradin, grandson of Frederic II. and for composing the tumults that had so long reigned without interruption in Italy. The mendicant friars, in particular, and among

his Antiq. Ital. medii avi, tom. iv. p. 606.

[[]u] This affembly is placed in the list of acumenical, or general councils; but it is not acknowledged as such by the Gallican church.

[[]o] Besides the writers, already mentioned, see Nicol. DE Curio, Vita Innocentii IV. in Baluzii Miscellan. tom. vii. p. 353.

[p] See Muratorii Dissertat. de Guelphis et Guibellinis, in

CENT. them the Dominicans and Franciscans, were much XIII. favoured by this pontiff, and received several marks PART II. of his peculiar bounty.

Urban IV.

He was fucceeded in the Roman fee, A. D. 1261, by URBAN IV. a native of Troyes, of obscure birth, who, before his elevation to the pontificate, was patriarch of Jerusalem, and after that period was more distinguished by his instituting the Festival of the body of Christ, than by any other circumstance in the course of his reign, He had, indeed, formed feveral important projects, but their execution was prevented by his death, which happened, in the year 1264, after a short reign of three years. fuccessor Gui Fulcodi, or Clemens IV. a native of France, and bishop of Sabino, who was raised to the see of Rome in the year 1265, did not enjoy much longer that high dignity. His name, however, makes a greater figure in history, and was rendered famous in many respects, and more especially by his conferring the kingdom of Naples upon CHARLES of Anjou, brother to Lewis IX. king of France. The confequences of this donation are well known, and the fate of CONRADIN, the last descendant of FREDERIC II. who, after an unfortunate battle fought against CHARLES, was publicly beheaded by the barbarous victor, if not by the counfel, yet certainly with the confent, of the Roman pontiff, are well known to fuch as have the finallest acquaintance with the history of these unhappy times.

there arose warm and vehement contests among the cardinals concerning the election of a new pontiss. These debates, which kept the Roman see vacant during the space of three years, were at length terminated in favour of Theald, or Thibald, a native of *Placentia*, and archbishop of *Liege*, who

[[]q] Which happened in the year 1268.

was raised to the pontificate in the year 1271, and CENT. assumed the title of GRECORY X. [r.] This devout XIII. ecclesiastic was in the Holy Land when he received PART II. the news of his election; and, as he had been an' eye-witness of the miserable condition of the Christians in that country, he had nothing fo much at heart, as the defire of contributing to their relief. Hence it was, that, immediately after his confecration, he summoned a council to meet at Lyons, in the year 1274, in which the relief and maintenance of the Christians in Palestine, and the re-union of the Greek and Latin churches, were the two great points, that were to come principally under deliberation. This affembly is acknowledged as the fourteenth general council, and is rendered particularly remarkable by the new regulations that were introduced into the manner of electing the Roman pontiff, and more especially by the famous law, which is still in force, and by which it was enacted, that the cardinal electors should be shut up in the conclave during the vacancy of the pontificate. With respect to the character and fentiments of the new pope we shall only observe, that, though he seemed to be actuated by a milder spirit than many of his predecessors, yet he inculcated, without the least hesitation, that odious maxim of Gregory VII. that declared the bishop of Rome the lord of the world, and, in a more especial manner, of the Roman empire. It was in confequence of this prefumptuous fystem, that, in the year 1271, he wrote an imperious and threatening letter to the German princes, in which, deaf to the pretentions and remonstrances of Alphonsus, king of Castile [s], he ordered them to elect an emperor

[r] The records of this election are published by Luc. WADDINGUS, Annal. Minor. tom. iv. p. 330.

[[]s] Alphonsus, king of Cashile, had been elected emperor in the year 1256, by the archbishop of Triers, the duke of Saxony, the margrave of Brandenburg, and the king of Bohemia, in opposition to Richard, duke of Cornwall, brother of Henry III. king of England, who was at the same time raised to the Vol. III.

A a

CENT. without delay, affuring them, that if they did not do it immediately, he would do it for them. This PART II. letter produced the defigned effect; an electoraldiet was affembled at Franckfort, and Rodolphus, count of Hapsburg, was raised to the imperial throne.

Innocent V. Adrian V. John XXI.

XIV. GREGORY X. was fucceeded, in the year 1276, by PETER of Tarantaife, of the Dominican Nicolas III. order, and bishop of Oslia, who assumed the name of Innocent V. and died about five months after his election. Ottoboni, a native of Genea, and cardinal of St. Adrian, was chosen in his place, took the title of ADRIAN V. [t], and, after having ruled the church during five weeks, was fucceeded by Peter Julian, bishop of Tusculum, who enjoyed that high dignity about eight months, and is distinguished in the papal list by the name of John XXI. $\lceil u \rceil$. The see of Rome continued vacant for above fix months after the death of the last mentioned pontiff, but was at length filled, in the month of November, 1277, by John Cajetan, of the family of Ursins, cardinal of St. Nicolas, whose name he adopted for his papal title. This famous pontiff, as has been already observed, augmented greatly both the opulence and authority of the bishops of Rome, and had formed vast projects, which his undaunted courage and his remarkable activity would have enabled him, without doubt, to execute with fuccess, had not death blasted his hopes, and disconcerted his ambitious schemes.

Martin IV.

XV. He was succeeded in the year 1281, about Nicolas IV. fix months after his departure from this life, by SIMON DE BRIE, who adopted the name of

> fame dignity by the archbishops of Mentz and Bologn, the count Palatine of the Rhine, and the duke of Bavaria.

> [1] We read in the Latin, ADRIAN VI. which is more probably an error of the prefs, than a fault of the author.

> [u] In the original Dr. Mosherm observes, that these three fuccessors of Gregory were elected and carried off by death in the year 1276 but here he has fallen into a slight mistake; for JOHN XXI, died the 16th of May 1277.

MARTIN IV. and was not inferior to NICOLAS III. in CENT. ambition, arrogance, and constancy of mind, of which he gave feveral proofs during his pontificate. MI-PART II. CHAEL PALÆOLOGUS, the Grecian emperor, was one of the first princes, who was solemnly excommunicated by this audacious prieft, and that, under the pretext of his having broken the peace that had been concluded between the Greek and Latin churches, at the council of Lions $\lceil w \rceil$. The fame infult was committed against Peter, king of Arragon, whom MARTIN not only excluded from the bosom of the church, but also deposed from his throne, on account of his attempt upon Sicily, and made a grant of his kingdom, fiels, and possessions to CHARLES, fon of PHILIP the Bold [N], king of France. It was during the execution of such during enterprizes as these, and while he was meditating still greater things for the glory of the Roman hierarchy, that a fudden death, in the year 1285, obliged him to leave his schemes unfinished. They were, however, profecuted with great spirit by his fuccesfor, JAMES SAVELLI, who chose the denomination of Honorius IV. but was also stopt short, in the midst of his career, in the year 1287, having ruled the church only two years. JEROME D'Ascoll, bishop of Palastrina, who was raised to the pontificate in the year 1288, and is known by the name of Nicolas IV. diftinguished himself, during the four years that he remained at the head of the church, by his affiduous application both to ecclefiastical and political affairs. Sometimes we see the disputes of sovereign powers left to his arbitration, and terminated by his decision; at other times, we find him maintaining the pretentions and privileges of the church with the most resolute zeal and the most obstinate perseverance; at other times, again,

[[]w] This council had been held under the pontificate of GREGORY X.

[[]x] PHILIPPE LE HARDI, as he is called by the French.

CENT. we see him employing, with the utmost assiduity, XIII. every probable method of propagating the gospel Part II among the Tartars and other eastern nations. But the object which, of all others, occupied most the thoughts of this vigilant and zealous pontist, was the desperate state of the Christians in Palestine, who were now reduced to the greatest extremities of misery and weakness. His laborious efforts were therefore employed for the restoration of their former grandeur; they were however employed in vain, and his death, which happened in the year 1292, disconcerted all the projects he had formed

for that purpose.

XVI. The death of this pontiff was followed by Celestine V. a vacancy of three years in the fee of Rome, which was owing to the disputes that arose among the cardinals about the election of a new pope. These disputes were at length terminated, and the contending parties united their fuffrages in favour of PETER, furnamed DI MURRONE, from a mountain where he had hitherto lived in the deepest solitude and with the utmost austerity. This venerable old man, who was in high renown on account of the remarkable fanctity of his life and conversation, was raised to the pontificate in the year 1294, and assumed the name of CELESTINE V. But the aufterity of his manners, which was a tacit reproach upon the corruption of the Roman court, and more especially upon the luxury of the cardinals, rendered him extremely difagreeable to a degenerate and licentious clergy; and this dislike was fo heightened by the whole course of his administration (which shewed that he had more at heart the reformation and purity of the church, than the increase of its opulence and the propagation of its authority) that he was almost universally considered as unworthy of the pontificate. Hence it was, that feveral of the cardimals, and particularly Benedict Cajetan, advised him to abdicate the papacy, which he had accepted

with fuch reluctance, and they had the pleasure of cent. seeing their advice followed with the utmost docility. XIII. The good man resigned his dignity the fourth month PART II. after his election, and died in the year 1297, in the castle of Fumone, where his tyrannic and suspicious successor kept him in captivity, that he might not be engaged, by the solicitations of his friends, to attempt the recovery of his abdicated honours. His memory was precious to the virtuous part of the church, and he was elevated to the rank of a saint by CLEMENT V. It was from him that the branch of the Benedictine order, called Celestines, and which yet subsists in France and Italy, derived its origin [y].

XVII. BENEDICT CAJETAN, who had perfuaded Boniface the good pontiff now mentioned to refign his place, VIII. fucceeded him in it in the year 1294, and took the name of Boniface VIII. We may fay, with truth, of this unworthy prelate, that he was born to be a plague both to church and state, a disturber of the repose of nations, and that his attempts to extend and confirm the despotism of the Roman pontists, were carried to a length that approached to frenzy. From the moment that he entered upon his new dignity, he laid claim to a supreme and irrefistible dominion over all the powers of the earth, both spiritual and temporal, terrified kindoms and empires with the thunder of his bulls, called princes and fovereign states before his tribunal to decide their quarrels, augmented the papal jurisprudence with a new body of laws, which was entitled, The Sixth Book of the Decretals, declared war against the illustrious family of Colonna, who disputed his title to the pontificate [z]; in a word, exhibited to the church

[v] Helyot, Histoire des Ordres, tom. vi. p. 180. [z] The reasons they alleged for disputing the title of Boniface to the pontificate were, that the resignation of Celestine was not canonical, and, moreover, that it was brought about by fraudulent means.

NIII. administration of Gregory VII. whom he perhaps Part II surpassed in arrogance [a]. It was this pontiff that, in the year 1300, instituted the samous jubilee, which, since that time, has been regularly celebrated in the Roman church, at certain fixed periods. But the consideration of this institution, which was so favourable to the progress of licentiousness and corruption, as also the other exploits of Boniface, and his deplorable end, belong to the history of the

New monaftic orders.

following century $\lceil b \rceil$. XVIII. In the council of Lateran that was held in the year 1215, a decree had been passed, by the advice of Innocent III. to prevent the introduction of new religions, by which was meant, new monaftic institutions. This decree however seemed to be very little respected, either by that pontisf or his fucceffors, fince feveral religious orders, hitherto unknown in the Christian world, were not only tolerated, but were moreover diffinguished by peculiar marks of approbation and favour, and enriched with various privileges and prerogatives. Nor will this tacit abrogation of the decree of Innocent appear at all furprifing to fuch as confider the state of the church in this century. For, not to mention many enormities that contributed to the suspension of this decree, we shall only observe, that the enemies of Christianity, and the heretical sects, increased daily every where; and, on the other hand, the fecular clergy were more attentive to their worldly advantages than to the interests of the church, and

[a] There is a history of this pontiff written by Jo. Rubeus, a Benedictine monk, whose work, which is entitled Bonifacius VIII. e familia Gajetanorum principum Romanus pontifex, was published at Rome in the year 1651, in 4to.

[b] In this account of the popes, I have chiefly followed Daniel Papebroch, Francis Pagi, and Muratori, in his Annales Italia, confulting at the same time the original sources collected by the last-mentioned author, in his Rerum Italicarum Scriptores.

fpent in mirth and jollity the opulence with which CENT. the piety of their ancestors had enriched that facred XIII. body. The monaftic orders also had almost all dege-P AR T II. rated from their primitive fanctity, and, exhibiting the most offensive and shocking examples of licentiousness and vice to public view, rendered by their flagitious lives the cause of heresy triumphant, instead of retarding its progress. All these things being confidered, it was thought necessary to encourage the establishment of new monastic societies, who, by the fanctity of their manners, might attract the esteem and veneration of the people, and diminish the indignation which the tyranny and ambition of the pontiffs had fo univerfally excited; and who, by their diligence and address, their discourses and their arguments, their power and arms, when thefe violent means were required, might discover, persecute, convert, and vanquish the growing tribe of heretics.

XIX. Of the religious focieties that arose in this several of century some are now entirely suppressed, while the monastic others continue to slourish, and are in high repute suppressed, at this present time. Among the former we may reckon the Humiliati (a title expressive of great humility and self-abasement), whose origin may be traced to a much earlier period than the present century, though their order was confirmed and new modelled by Innocent III. who subjected it to the rule of St. Benedict. These humble monks became so shockingly licentious in process of time, that, in the year 1571, Pope Pius V. was obliged to dissolve their society [c]. We may also place in the list of the suppressed monasteries the facobins, who were erected into a religious order by Innocent III. [d], and who, in this very century, not long after the council of Lyons, were deprived of their charter;

[[]c] Helyot, Hist. des Ordres, tom, vi. p. 152. [d] Matth. Paris, Hist. Mojor, p. 161.

CENT. the Vallischolares, or scholars of the valley, so called from their being instituted by the scholares, i. e. PART II. the four professors of divinity in the university of Paris, and from a deep vale in the province of Champagne in which they affembled and fixed their refidence in the year 1234 [e]. This fociety, whose foundation was laid about the commencement of this century, was formerly governed by the rule of St. Augustin, but is now incorporated into the order of the Regular canons of St. Genivieve. To the fame class belong the order of the bleffed Virgin Mary the Mother of Christ, which had its commencement in the year 1266, and was suppressed in 1274 $\lceil f \rceil$; the Knights of faith and charity, who undertook to disperse the bands of robbers that infested the public roads in France, and who were favoured with the peculiar protection and approbation of GREGORY IX. [g]; the Hermits of St. William duke of Aquitaine $\lceil h \rceil$; not to mention the Brethren of the fack, the Betblehemites, and other orders of inferior note, that flarted up in this century, which, of all others, was the most remarkable for the number and variety of monastic establishments, that date their origin from it $\lceil i \rceil$.

The convents that still subsist.

XX. Among the convents that were founded in this century, and still subsist, the principal place is due to that of the fervites, i. e. the fervants of the bleffed Virgin, whose order was first instituted, A. D. 1223, in Tuscany, by seven Florentine merchants,

[e] Boulay, Histor. Acad. Paris. tom. iii. p. 15.—Alla Sand. Mens. Februar. tom. ii. p. 482.

[f] DION. SAMMARTHANI Gallia Christiana, tom. i. p. 653.
[g] Gallia Christ. tom i. Append. p. 165.—MARTENE, Voyage Liter. de deux Benedictins, tom. ii. p. 23.

[b] Jo. Bollandi De ordine Eremitar. S. Guilielmi Comm. in

actis SS. Februar. tom. ii. p. 472.

[i] MATTH. Paris, Hist. Major. p. 815. edit. Watts. Where, speaking of the prodigious number of convents that were founded in England during this century, he expresses himself thus: Tot jam apparaerunt ordines in Anglia, ut ordinum confusio videretur inordinata.

and afterwards made a great progress under the CENT. government of PHILIP BENIZI its chief. This XIII. order, though subjected to the rule of St. Augus-PART II. TIN, was, nevertheless, erected in commemoration of the most holy widowhood of the blessed Virgin; for which reason its monks wear a black habit $\lceil k \rceil$, and observe several rules unknown to other monasteries. The prodigious numbers of Christians, that were made prisoners by the Mahometans in Palestine, gave rife, towards the conclusion of the x11th century, to the institution of the order, entitled, The Fraternity of the Trinity, which, in the following age, received a still greater degree of stability, under the pontificate of Honorius III. and also of his fuccessor Clement IV. The first founders of this institution were John de Matha and Felix de VALOIS, two pious men, who led an auftere and folitary life at Cerfroy, in the diocese of Meaux, which is still the feat of the principal convent of the order. The monks of this fociety are called the Brethren of the Holy Trinity, because all their churches are folemnly dedicated to that profound mystery; they are also styled MATHURINS, from their having a monastery at Paris erected in a place where there is a chapel confecrated to St. MATHURIN, and Brethren of the redemption of captives [1], because the grand defign of their institution was to find out means for restoring liberty to the Christian captives in the Holy Land, in which charitable work they are

[k] Besides the ordinary writers of the Monastic History, see Pauli Florentini Dialog. de origine Ordinis Servorum, in Lamii Deliciis Eruditorum, tom. i. p. 1—48.

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BROUGHTON and some other writers make a distinction between the Order of the redemption of captives, and the Fraternity, or Bretbren of the Holy Trinity. They allege, that the latter order was instituted at Rome by St. Philip Neri, in the year 1548, about 350 years after the first establishment of the former; and that the monks, who composed it, were obliged, by their vow, to take care of the pilgrims who resorted from all parts of the world to Rome, to visit the tombs of St. Peter and St. Paul.

CENT. obliged to employ the third part of their revenue.

XIII. Their manner of life was, at first, extremely abstervant mious and austere; but its austerity has been from time to time considerably mitigated by the indulgence and lenity of the pontiffs [m].

The mendi- XXI. The religious fociety that surpassed all the cant order, rest in the purity of its manners, the extent of its fame, the number of its privileges, and the multitude of its members, was that of the Mendicant, or begging friars, whose order was first established in this century, and who, by the tenor of their institution, were to remain entirely destitute of all fixed revenues and possessions. The present state and circumstances of the church rendered the establishment of fuch an order absolutely necessary. The monastic orders, who wallowed in opulence, were, by the corrupting influence of their ample possessions, lulled in a luxurious indolence. They loft fight of all their religious obligations, trampled upon the authority of their fuperiors, fuffered herefy to triumph unrestrained, and the sectaries to form affemblies in feveral places; in short, they were incapable of contributing in any respect to promote

the true interests of the church, and abandoned themselves, without either shame or remorse, to all manner of crimes. On the other hand, the

[[]m] Beside Helyot and the other writers of the Monastic History, see Toussaint de Plessis, Hist. de l'Eglise de Meaux, tom. i. p. 172. and 566.—Boulay, Hist. Acad. Paris. tom. ii. p. 523. Ant. Wood, Antiq. Occoniens. tom. i. p. 133. In the ancient records, this society is frequently styled the Order of Asses, on account of the prohibition of the use of horses, which made a part of their rule, and which obliged the mendicant monks to ride upon asses. See Car. du Fresne's Notes upon Joinville's Life of St. Lewis, p. 81. But at present, through the induspence of the Roman pontiss, they are permitted to make use of horses when they find them necessary. An order of the same kind was instituted in Spain, in the year 1228, by Paul Nolasco, under the title of the Order of St. Mary for the redemption of captives. See the Assa Sansorum Januar. tom. ii. p. 980.

enemies of the church, the various fects which hadcent. left its communion, followed certain auftere rules of xIII. life and conduct, which formed a strong contrast PART II. between them and the religious orders, and contributed to render the licentiousness of the latter still more offensive and shocking to the people. fects maintained; that voluntary poverty was the leading and effential quality in a fervant of Christ, obliged their doctors to imitate the simplicity of the apostles, reproached the church with its overgrown opulence, and the vices and corruptions of the clergy, that flowed from thence as from their natural fource, and by this commendation of poverty and contempt of riches, acquired a high degree of respect, and gained a prodigious ascendant over the minds of the multitude. All this rendered it absolutely necessary to introduce into the church a fet of men, who, by the austerity of their manners, their contempt of riches, and the external gravity and fanctity of their conduct and maxims, might resemble the doctors, who had gained fuch reputation to the heretical fects, and who might be fo far above the allurements of worldly profit and pleafure, as not to be feduced, by the promifes or threats of kings and princes, from the performance of the duties they owed to the church, or from persevering in their subordination to the Roman pontiffs. INNOCENT III. was the first of the popes who perceived the necessity of instituting such an order; and, accordingly, he gave fuch monastic societies as made a profession of poverty the most distinguishing marks of his protection and favour. They were also encouraged and patronized by the fucceeding pontiffs, when experience had demonstrated their public and extensive usefulness. But when it became generally known, that they had fuch a peculiar place in the esteem and protection of the rulers of the church, their number grew to fuch an enormous and unwieldy multitude, and swarmed fo prodigiously in all the European

ENT. provinces, that they became a burthen, not only to xiii. the people, but to the church itself.

PART II.

Its history.

XXII. The great inconveniency that arose from the excessive multiplication of the mendicant orders, was remedied by GREGORY X. in a general council which he affembled at Lyons in the year 1272. For here all the religious orders, that had fprung up after the council held at Rome, in the year 1215, under the pontificate of Innocent III. were fuppressed, and the extravagant multitude of mendicants, as GREGORY called them, were reduced to a fmaller number, and confined to the four following focieties, or denominations, viz. the Dominicans, the Franciscans, the Carmelites, and the Hermits of St. Augustin $\lceil n \rceil$. The Carmelite order, which had been inflituted in Palestine during the preceding century, was, in this, transplanted into Europe, and, in the year 1226, was favoured by pope Honorius III. with a place among the monastic focieties, which enjoyed the protection and approbation of the church. The Hermits of St. Augustin had for their founder ALEX-ANDER IV. [0], who, observing that the Hermits were divided into feveral focieties, fome of which followed the maxims of the famous WILLIAM, others the rule of St. Augustin, while others again were distinguished by different denominations, formed the wife project of uniting them all into one religious order, and fubjecting them to the fame rule of discipline, even that which bears the name of St.

[0] This edict of pope ALEXANDER IV. is to be found in the new edition of the Bullarium Romanum, tom. i. p. 110.—

See also Alfa Sanctor. Menf. Februar. tom. ii. p. 472.

[[]n] Concil. Ludg. II. A. 1274. Can. xxiii. in Jo. Hardunt Conciliis, tom. vii. p. 715. Importuna potentium inhiatio Religionum (so were the religious orders entitled) multiplicationem extorsit, verum etiam aliquorum prasumptuosa temeritas diversorum ordinum, pracipue Mendicantium essentam multitudinem adinvenit Hinc ordines Mendicantes post dictum concilium (i. e. the council of Lateran held in 1215) adinventos perpetua prohibitioni subjicimus.

Augustin. This project was put in execution in cent. the year 1256.

XXIII. As the pontiffs allowed these four Men-PART II. dicant orders the liberty of travelling wherever they thought proper, of conversing with persons of all Attractisthe ranks, of instructing the youth and the multitude and esteem wherever they went; and, as these monks exhibited, of the pubin their outward appearance and manner of life, more striking marks of gravity and holiness, than were observable in the other monastic societies, they arose all at once to the very summit of fame, and were regarded with the utmost esteem and veneration throughout all the countries of Europe. The enthusiastic attachment to these sanctimonious beggars went fo far, that, as we learn from the most authentic records, several cities were divided or cantoned out, into four parts, with a view to these four orders: the first part was assigned to the Dominicans; the fecond, to the Franciscans; the third, to the Carmelites; and the fourth, to the Augustinians. The people were unwilling to receive the facraments from any other hands than those of the Mendicants, to whose churches they crowded to perform their devotions, while living, and were extremely defirous to deposit there also their remains after death; all which occasioned grievous complaints among the ordinary priests, to whom the cure of fouls was committed, and who confidered themselves as the spiritual guides of the multitude. Nor did the influence and credit of the Mendicants end here; for we find in the history of this and of the succeeding ages, that they were employed not only in spiritual matters, but also in temporal and political affairs of the greatest consequence, in composing the differences of princes, concluding treaties of peace, concerting alliances, presiding in cabinet-councils, governing courts, levying taxes, and other occupations, not only remote from, but absolutely inconsistent with, the monastic character and profession.

XXIV. We must not however imagine, that all

CENT.

XIII.

the Mendicant friars attained to the same degree of PART II. reputation and authority; for the power of the Dominicans and Franciscans surpassed greatly that of the other two orders, and rendered them fingularly conspicuous in the eyes of the world. During three centuries, these two fraternities governed, with an almost universal and absolute sway, both state and church, filled the most eminent posts ecclefiaftical and civil, taught in the universities and churches with an authority, before which all oppofition was filent, and maintained the pretended majesty and prerogatives of the Roman pontists against kings, princes, bishops, and heretics, with incredible ardour and equal fuccess. The Dominicans and Franciscans were, before the Reformation, what the Jesuits have been fince that happy and glorious period, the very foul of the hierarchy, the engines of the state, the secret springs of all the motions of the one and the other, and the authors or directors of every great and important event both in the religious and political world. Dominic, a Spaniard by birth, a native of the village of Calaroga, descendant of the illustrious house of Guzman, and regular canon of Ofma, a man of a fiery and impetuous temper, and vehemently exasperated by the commotions and contests which the heretics of different denominations had excited in the church, fet out for France with a few companions, in order to combat the fectaries, that were multiplied in that kingdom. This enterprize he executed with the greatest vigour, and we may add, fury, attacking the Albigenses and the other enemies of the church with the power of eloquence, the force of arms, and fubtilty of controversial writings, and the terrors of the inquisition, which owed its form to this violent and fanguine priest. Passing from thence into Italy, he was honoured by the Roman pontiffs Innocent III. and Honorius III. with the most distinguished

marks of their protection and favour; and, after CENT. many labours in the cause of the church, obtained XIII. from them the privilege of erecting this new frater-PARTH. nity, whose principal defign was the extirpation of error, and the destruction of heretics. The first rule which he adopted for the new fociety was that of the Canons of St. Augustin, to which he added feveral austere precepts and observances. But he afterwards changed the discipline of the canons for that of the monks; and, holding a chapter of the order at Bologna in the year 1220, he obliged the brethren to take a vow of absolute poverty, and to abandon entirely all their revenues and all their possessions. He did not live long enough to see the confequences of this reformation, for he died the year following at $Bologna \lceil q \rceil$. His monks were, at first, distinguished by the denomination of preaching friars, because public instruction was the main end of their institution; but were afterwards called Dominicans after their founder $\lceil r \rceil$. $\lceil \not r \rceil$ Just before his death Dominic fent Gilbert de Fresney with twelve of the brethren into England, where they founded their first monastery at Oxford in the year 1221, and foon after, another at London. In the year 1276, the mayor and aldermen of the

[q] See JAC. ECHARD. and QUETIF in Scriptoribus Ord. Dominic. tom. i. p. 84.—Alla Sanctor. April, tom. iii. p. 872.— NICOL. JANSENII Vita S. Dominici, Antwerp, 1622, in 8vo. Add to these the long list of writers mentioned by Fabricius, in his Bibliotheca Lat. med. evi, tom ii. p. 137. and also Antonii Bremondi Bullarium Ordinis Dominicani, published some years ago at Rome.

[r] The Dominicans are called Frates Majores in several of the ancient records; see Ant. Matthæi Analeda vet. evi, tom. ii. p. 172. This appellation, however, by which the Dominicans were set in opposition to the Franciscans, who call themselves Frates Minores, is rather a term of derision than a real name. In France the Dominicans are called Jacobins, from the street where their first convent was crested at Paris, in the year 1218, which street was dedicated to St. James, and is still known by the name of P. J. St. St.

known by the name of Rue de St. Jaques.

CENT. city of London, gave them two whole streets by the XIII. river Thames, where they erected a very commodious PART II. convent, whence that place is still called Black-friars, for so the Dominicans were called in England.

The Fran-

XXV. Francis, the founder of the famous order that bears his name, was the fon of a merchant of Affifi, in the province of Umbria, and a young man who led, for fome time, a most debauched and diffolute life. Upon his recovery from a fevere fit of fickness, which was the consequence and punishment of his licentious conduct, he changed his method of living, and, as extremes are natural to men of warm imaginations, fell into an extravagant kind of devotion, that looked less like religion than alienation of mind. Some time after this [s], he happened to be in a church, where he heard that paffage of the scriptures repeated, in which Christ addresses his apostles in the following manner: Provide neither gold, nor silver, nor brass in your purses, nor scrip for your journey, neither two coats, neither shoes, nor yet staves, for the workman is worthy of his meat [t]. This produced a powerful effect upon his mind, made him confider a voluntary and absolute poverty as the effence of the gospel and the foul of religion, and prescribe this poverty as a facred rule both to himself and to the few that followed him. Such was the commencement of the famous Franciscan order, whose founder and chief was, undoubtedly, a pious and well-meaning man, though grossly ignorant, and manifestly weakened in his intellect by the disorder from which he had but lately recovered. Nevertheless the new society, which appeared to INNOCENT III. extremely adapted to the prefent state of the church, and proper to restore its declining credit, was folemnly approved and confirmed by Honorius III. in the year 1223, and had already made a confiderable progress when its devout founder

[[]s] In the year 1208. [t] Matthew, x. 9, 10.

was called from this life in the year 1226. FRAN-CENT. E1S, through an excessive humility, would not suffer XIII. the monks of his order to be called Fratres, i. e. PART II. brethren, or friars, but Fraterculi, i. e. little brethren, or friars-minors [u], by which denomination they still continue to be distinguished [w]. The Franciscans came into England in the reign of HENRY III. and their first establishment was at Canterbury.

XXVI. These two celebrated orders restored the The emichurch from that declining condition in which it had nentfervices been languishing for many years, by the zeal and the Roman activity with which they fet themselves to discover pontiffs by and extirpate heretics, to undertake various negotia-can and tions and embassies for the interests of the hierarchy, Franciscans: and to confirm the wavering multitude in their implicit obedience to the Roman pontiffs. These ghostly rulers, on the other hand, sensible of their obligations to the new monks, which, no doubt, were very great, not only employed them in every affair they looked upon as of high importance, and raised them to the most eminentstations in the church, but also accumulated upon them employments and privileges, which, if they enriched them on the one hand, could not fail to render them odious on the

[u] They were called Fratricelli by the Italians, Freres Mineurs by the French, and Fratres Minores by the Latin writers.

[w] Bonaventure wrote a life of St. Francis, which has passed through several editions. But the most ample and circumstantial accounts of this extraordinary man are given by Luke Wadding, in the first volume of his Annal. Minorum, which contains a complete history of the Franciscan order, confirmed by a great number of authentic records, and the best edition of which is that published at Rome in 1731, and the following years, in eighteen volumes in solio, by Joseph Maria Fonseca as Ebora. It is to the same Wadding that we are obliged for the Opuscula Sti. Francisci, and the Bibliotheca Ordinis Minorum, the former of which was published in 4to at Antwerp, in the year 1623, and the latter at Rome, in 4to likewise, in 1650. The other writers, who have given accounts of the Franciscan order, are mentioned by Jo. Alb. Fabricius, in his Bibliotheca Lat. medii ævi, tom. ii. p. 573.

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CENT. other [x], and to excite the envy and complaints of other ecclefiaftics. Such, among many other PART II. extraordinary prerogatives, was the permission they received from the pontiffs, of preaching to the multitude, hearing confession, and pronouncing absolution, without any license from the bishops, and even without confulting them; to which we may add the treasure of ample and extensive indulgences, whose distribution was committed by the popes to the Franciscans, as a mean of subfishence, and a rich indemnification for their voluntary poverty [y]. These acts of liberality and marks of protection, lavished upon the Dominican and Franciscan friars with fuch an ill-judged profusion, as they overturned the ancient discipline of the church, and were a manifest encroachment upon the rights of the first and fecond orders of the ecclefiaftical rulers, produced

[N] The popes were so infatuated with the Franciscans, that those whom they could not employ more honourably in their civil negotiations or domestic affairs, they made their publicans, beadles, &c. See for a confirmation of this, the following passages in the Histor. Major of Matthew Paris: Fratres minores et prædicatores (says he) invitos, ut credimus, jam suos fecit dominus papa, non sine ordinis eorum lasione et scandalo, teloniarios et bedellos, p. 634.—Non cessavit papa pecuniam aggregare, faciens de Fratribus prædicatoribus et minoribus, etiam invitis, non jam piscatoribus hominum, sed nummorum, p. 639. Cons. p. 602. 664.

—Erant Minores et Prædicatores magnatum consiliatores et nuntii, etiam domini papæ secretarii: nimis in hoc gratiam sibi secularem comparantes; ad An. 1236. p. 354.—Facti sunt eo tempore Prædicatores et Minores regum consiliarii et nuntii speciales, ut sicut quondam mollibus induti in domibus regum erant, ita tunc qui vilibus vessiebantur, in domibus, cameris et palatiis essent principum; ad An. 1239, p. 465.

[y] See Baluzii Nifcellan. tom. iv. p. 490. tom. vii. p. 392.—It is well known that no religious order had the distribution of fo many and such ample indulgences as the Franciscans. Nor could these good friars live and multiply as they did, without some source of prosit, since, by their institution, they were to be destitute of revenues and possessions of every kind. It was therefore in the place of fixed revenues, that such sat indulgences were put into their hands.

the most unhappy and bitter dissensions between CENT. the Mendicant orders and the bishops. And these XIII. dissensions, extending their contagious influence part II. beyond the limits of the church, excited throughout all the European provinces, and even in the city of Rome [z], under the very eye of the pontists, the most dreadful disturbances and tumults. The measures taken by the popes to appease these tumults were various, but inessectual; because their principal view was to support the cause of their faithful servants and creatures, the Mendicant friars, and to maintain them in the possession of their honours and advantages [a].

XXVII. Among all the controversies which were The dispute maintained by the Mendicants, whether against the between the Dominicans bishops, abbots, schools, or other religious orders, and the none was fo famous, as that which arose, in the year university 1228, between the Dominicans and the university of Paris, and was prolonged, with various fuccess, until the year 1259. The Dominicans claimed, as their unquestionable right, two theological classes in that celebrated university, one of which had been taken from them, and an academical law passed, that no religious order should have what the Dominicans demanded. These latter, however, persisted obstinately in reclaiming the professorship they had lost; while the doctors of the university, perceiving the restless and contentious spirit that animated their efforts, excluded them from their fociety, and formed themselves into a separate body. This measure was

[2] BALUZII Miscellan. tom. vii. p. 441.
[a] See Jo. LAUNOII Explicata Ecclesia Traditio circa Canonem: Omnis utriusque Sexus, tom. i. part I. opp. p. 247.—RICH. SIMON, Critique de la Bibliotheque des Auteurs Ecclesiassiques, par M. Du Pin, tom. i. p. 326.—Lenfant, Histoire du Concile de Pise, tom i. p. 310. tom. ii. p. 8.—Echardi Scriptores Dominicani, tom. i. p. 404. The circumstances of these slaming contests are mentioned by all the writers both of this and the following centuries.

CENT. confidered as a declaration of war; and, accordingly, the most vehement commotions arose between the

The debate was brought before the tribunal of the Roman pontiff in the year 1255; and the decision, as might well have been expected, was in favour of the monks. Alexander IV. ordered the university of Paris not only to restore the Dominicans to their former place in that learned fociety, but moreover to make a grant to them of as many classes or professorships as they should think proper to demand. This unjust and despotic sentence was opposed by the university with the utmost vigour, and thus the contest was renewed with double fury. But the magistrates of Paris were, at length, fo terrified and overwhelmed with the thundering edicts and formidable mandates of the exasperated pontiss, that, in the year 1259, they yielded to superior force, and satisfied the demands not only of the Dominican, but also of the Franciscan order, in obedience to the pope, and to the extent of his commands [b]. Hence arose that secret enmity, that filent ill-will, which prevailed fo long between the university of Paris and the Mendicant orders, especially the Dominicans, and which are not yet entirely extinguished.

The Domiwith a formidable adverfary.

XXVIII. In this famous debate none pleaded the nicans meet cause of the university with greater spirit, and afferted its rights with greater zeal and activity, than Guil-LAUME DE St. AMOUR, doctor of the Sorbonne, a man of true genius, worthy to have lived in better times, and capable of adorning a more enlightened age. This vigorous and able champion attacked

> [b] See CES. EGASS. DU BOULAY, Histor. Acad. Paris. tom. iii. p. 138. 240. 244. 248. 266, &c. Jo. Cordesii, or (to mention him by the name he assumes) Jo. ALITOPHILI Pref. Histor. et Apologetica ad Opera Guilielmi de S. Amore.— Antoine Touron, Vie de S. Thomas, p. 134.—WADDINGI Annal. Minor. tom. iii. p. 247. 366. tom. iv. p. 14. 52. 106. 263 .- MATTH. PARIS, Hiftor. Major, ad An. 1228, & NANGIS Chronicon. apud DACHERIUM; Spicilegii, tom. iii. p. 38.

the whole Mendicant tribe in various treatifes with CENT. the greatest vehemence, and more especially in a XIII. book Concerning the perils of the latter times. He PART II. maintained publicly, that their discipline was in direct opposition to the precepts of the gospel; and that, in confirming and approving it, the popes had been guilty of temerity, and the church was become chargeable with error [c]. What gave occasion to the remarkable title of this famous book, was the author's being entirely perfuaded that the prophecy of St. PAUL, relating to the perilous times that were to come in the last days $\lceil d \rceil$, was fulfilled in the establishment of the Mendicant friars. This notion St. Amour maintained in the warmest manner, and proved it, principally, from the book called the Everlasting Gospel, which was explained publicly by the Dominicans and Franciscans, and of which we shall have occasion to speak more fully hereafter. The fury and refentment of the Mendicants were therefore kindled, in a peculiar manner, against this formidable adversary, whom they perfecuted without interruption, until, in the year 1256, ALEXANDER VI. ordered his book to be publicly burnt, and banished its author out of France, lest he should excite the Sorbonne to renew their opposition to these ghostly beggars. St. Amour submitted to the papal edict, and retired into the Franche Comté, which was the place of his birth; but, under the pontificate of CLEMENT IV. he returned to Paris, where he illustrated the tenets of his famous book in a more extensive work, and died universally esteemed and regretted by all ranks and orders of men, except the Mendicants $\lceil d \rceil$.

[[]c] 2 Timothy, iii. 1. [d] 2 Timothy, iii. 1.

[[]d] The doctors of the university of *Paris* profess still a high respect for the memory of St. Amour, esteem his book, and deny obstinately that he was ever placed in the list of *heretics*. The Dominicans, on the contrary, consider him as a heretic of

XXIX. While the pontiffs accumulated upon the

XIII. The pride and arro-Mendicants.

CENT.

Mendicants the most honourable distinctions, and PART II the most valuable privileges which they had to bestow, they exposed them still more and more to the envy and hatred of the rest of the clergy; and gance of the this hatred was confiderably increased by the audacious arrogance that discovered itself every where in the conduct of these supercilious orders. They had the prefumption to declare publicly, that they had a divine impulse and commission to illustrate and maintain the religion of JEsus; they treated with the utmost insolence and contempt all the different ranks and orders of the priesthood; they affirmed, without a blush, that the true method of obtaining falvation was revealed to them alone, proclaimed with oftentation the superior efficacy and virtue of their indulgences, and vaunted, beyond measure, their interests at the court of heaven, and their familiar connexions with the Supreme Being, the Virgin MARY, and the faints in glory. By these impious wiles, they so deluded and captivated the miferable and blinded multitude, that they would not entrust any others but the Mendicants with the care of their fouls, their spiritual and eternal concerns [e]. We may

> the first magnitude, if we may use that expression. Such of his works as could be found were published in 4to, in the year 1632, at Paris (though the title bears Conflantia), by Cordesius, who has prefixed to them a long and learned Preface, in which he defends the reputation and orthodoxy of St. Amour in a triumphant manner. This learned editor, to avoid the refentment and fury of the Mendicants, concealed his real name, and affumed that of Jo. ALITOPHILUS. This did not, however, fave his book from the vengeance of these friars, who obtained from LEWIS XIII. in the year 1633, an edict for its suppression, which Touron, a Dominican friar, has published in his Vie de St. Thomas, p. 164.—For a farther account of the life of this famous doctor, fee WADDING, Annal. Minor. tom. iii. p. 366 .-BOULAY, Hift. Acad. Parif. tom. iii. p. 266.—NAT. ALEX. Hist. Eccles. Sec. xiii. cap. iii. Art. vii. p. 95 .- Rich. Simon. Critique de la Biblioth. Eccles. de M. Du Pin, tom. i. p. 345.

[e] Sce M. PARIS, ad A. 1246, Hift. Major, p. 607. 630, &c.

give, as a specimen of these notorious frauds, the CENT. ridiculous fable, which the Carmelites impose upon XIII. the credulous, relating to SIMON STOCKIUS, the PARTIL general of their order, who died about the beginning of this century. To this ecclesiastic, they tell us that the Virgin Mary appeared, and gave him a solemn promise, that the souls of such as left the world with the Carmelite cloak or scapulary upon their shoulders, should be infallibly preserved from eternal damnation [f]. And here let it be observed to the association and impious as it was, found patrons and defenders even among the pontists [g].

XXX. It is however certain, that the Mendicant Contests beorders, though they were considered as the main tween the
pillars of the hierarchy, and the principal supports and Francisof the papal authority, involved the pontiss, after cans.
the death of Dominic and Francis, in many
perplexities and troubles, which were no sooner
dispelled than they were unhappily renewed; and
thus the church was often reduced to a state of
imminent danger. These tumults and perplexities
began with the contests between the Dominicans
and Franciscans about pre-eminence, in which these
humble monks loaded each other with the bitterest
invectives and the severest accusations both in their
writings and their discourse, and opposed each other's

[f] See Jo. Launoii Lib. de Viso Stockii Oper. tom. ii. part II. p. 379.—Ala Santor. tom. iii. Mensis Maii ad diem xvi.—Тнеоры. Rainaudi Scapulare Marianum, tom. vii. opp. p. 614.

interests with all the fury of disappointed ambition.

[g] The late pope Benedict XIV. notwithstanding his pretended freedom from superstition and priestly fraud, has deigned to appear among the supporters of this gross siction, though he defends it with his usual air of prudence and timidity, in his book De Festis B. Maria Virg. lib. ii. cap. vi. p. 47.2. tom. x. opp. edit. Rom.

CENT. Many schemes were formed, and various measures were employed, for terminating these scandalous PART II diffensions; but the root of the evil still remained, and the flame was rather covered than extinguished [h]. Besides this, the Franciscans were early divided among themselves, and split into several factions, which gathered strength and confistence from day to day, and not only disturbed the tranquillity of the church, but struck at the supreme jurisdiction and prerogatives of the Roman pontiffs. And whoever confiders with attention the feries of events that happened in the Latin church from this remarkable period, will be fully convinced that the Mendicant orders, whether through imprudence or design we shall not determine, gave several mortal blows to the authority of the church of Rome, and excited in the minds of the people those ardent defires of a reformation in the church, which produced, in after-times, fuch fubstantial and fuch glorious effects.

Intestine divisions among the of their rule.

XXXI. The occasion of these intestine divisions among the Franciscans, was a dispute about the Franciscans precise meaning of their rule. Their founder and occasioned chief had made absolute poverty one of their indifexplications pensable obligations. The religious orders before his time were so constituted, that, though no single monk had any perfonal property, yet the whole community, confidered as one collective body, had possessions and revenues, from whence each individual drew the means of his subsistence. But the austere chief of the Franciscans absolutely prohibited both feparate and collective property to the monks of his order; and neither the individual nor the community were permitted to possels either fund, revenue, or any worldly goods [i]. This injunction appeared

> [h] See the Alcoran des Cordeliers, tom. i. p. 256. 266. 278. &c. Luc. Wadding! Annales Minor. tom. iii. p. 380.

> [i] The words of the rule itself relating to this point are as follow: C. vi. Fratres fibi nibil approprient, nec domum, nec

fo severe to several of the Friars-minors, that they CENT. took the liberty to dispense with it as soon as their xIII. founder was dead; and in this they were feconded PART II. by the Roman pontiff, GREGORY IX. who, in the year 1231, published an interpretation of this rule, which mitigated confiderably its excessive rigour $\lceil k \rceil$. But this mitigation was far from being agreeable to all the Franciscans; it shocked the austere monks of that order, those particularly who were called the Spiritual [1], whose melancholy temper rendered them fond of every thing harsh and gloomy, and whose fanatical spirit hurried them always into extremes. Hence arose a warm debate, which INNOCENT IV. decided, in the year 1245, in favour of those who were for mitigating the severity of the rule in question. By this decree of the pontiff it was enacted, that the Franciscan friars should be permitted to possess certain places, habitations, goods and chattels, books, &c. and to make use of them, but that the property of all these things should reside in St. Peter, or the Roman church; so that without the confent of the Roman pontiff they might neither be fold, changed, nor transferred, under any pretext whatfoever. This edict was confidered by the gloomy part of the order as a most pernicious depravation of their holy rule, and was, confequently, opposed and rejected by them with indignation. Hence many of these spiritual mal-contents retired

locum, nec aliquam rem: sed sicut peregrini et advenz in hoc sæculo, in paupertate et humilitate famulantes Domino, vadant pro elcemosyna considentur... (i. e. let them be sturdy beggars)... Hæc est illa celstudo altissimæ paupertatis, quæ vos carissimos meos fratres hæredes et reges regni cælorum instituit.

[k] This bull was published by Emmanuel Roderic, in his Collettio privilegiorum regularium Mendicantium, et non Mendi-

eantium, tom. i. p. 8.

[1] Luc. WADDINGII Annal. Minor. tom. iii. p. 99. they were also called Zelatores, and Cæsarians, from their chief, Cæsarius.

CENT. into the woods and defarts, while others were appre-XIII. hended, by CRESCENTIUS, the general of the PART II fociety, and fent into exile [m].

XXXII. The face of affairs was, however, foon changed in their favour, when, in the year 1247, JOHN of Parma was chosen general of the order. This famous ecclesiastic, who was zealously attached to the fentiments of the spiritual, recalled them from their exile, and inculcated upon all his monks a strict and unlimitted obedience to the very letter of the rule that had been drawn up by St. Francis [n]. By this reform, he brought back the order to its primitive state; and the only reward he obtained for his zealous labours was to be accused as a rebellious heretic at the tribunal of the Roman pontiff, ALEX-ANDER IV, in confequence of which he was obliged to refign his post. He had also the mortification to see the monks who adhered to his fentiments cast into prison, which unhappy lot he himself escaped with great difficulty [0]. His fuccessor, the famous Bona-VENTURA, who was one of the most eminent scholastic divines of this century, proposed steering a middle course between the two contending factions, having nothing fo much at heart as to prevent an open schism. Nevertheless, the measures he took to reconcile the jarring parties, and to maintain a fpirit of union in the order, were not attended with the degree of fuccess which he expected from them; nor were they sufficient to hinder the less austere part of the Franciscans from foliciting and obtaining, in the year 1247, from ALEXANDER IV. a folemn renewal of the mild interpretation which INNOCENT IV. had given of the rule of their founder $\lceil p \rceil$. On

[[]m] Luc. WADDINGII Annal. Minor. tom. iv. p. 128. & tom. iii. p. 171.

[[]n] Luc. WADDINGII Annal. Minor. tom. iii. p. 171.

^[0] Id. ibid. tom. iv. p. 4.

[[]p] This edict of ALEXANDER IV. is published by WADDINGIUS, Annal. Min. tom. iv. p. 446. among the Records.

the other hand, the faction that adhered to the CENT. fentiments of John of Parma maintained their cause XIII. with such success, that, in an affembly of the order, PART II. held in the year 1260, the explication of Innocent was abrogated and annulled, especially in those points wherein it differed from that which had been formerly given by GREGORY IX. [q].

XXXIII. This dispute concerning the true sense Another of the rule of St. Francis was followed by another contest arises of equal moment, which produced new and among the unhappy divisions among the monks of that order. Franciscans, concerning About the commencement of this century, there the Everwere handed about in Italy several pretended pro-lassing Gesphecies of the samous Joachim, abbot of Sora in abbot Joachim [r], whom the multitude revered as a chim. person divinely inspired, and equal to the most illustrious prophets of ancient times. The greatest part of these predictions were contained in a certain book, entitled, The Everlasting Gospel, and which was also commonly called, The Book of Foachim [s]. This

[q] The interpretation of GREGORY mitigated the rule of St. FRANCIS; but that of INNOCENT went much farther, and feemed to destroy its fundamental principles. See Waddings Annales Minor. tom. iv. p. 128. The lamentable divisions that reigned among the monks of this famous order, are described, in an accurate and lively manner, by Bonaventura himself, in a letter, which is extant in the Annales now cited, tom. iv. p. 58.

CF [r] The refemblance that there is between the words Sora and Flora, has probably led Dr. Mosheim here into a flight mistake. Sora is not in Calabria, but in the province of Capua. It must therefore have been Flora, that our author intended to write, as Spanheim, Fleury, and the other ecclesiastical historians have done.

[s] The MERLIN of the English, the MALACHY of the Irish, and Nostradamus of the Fiench, those pretended soothsayers, who, under the illusory, or seigned persuasion of a divine impulse, sung, in uncouth verse, the suture revolutions of church and state, are just what we may suppose the Joachim of the Italians to have been. Many predictions of this latter were formerly handed about, and are still to be seen; nay, they have passed through various editions, and have been illustrated by the sucubrations of several commentators. It is not to be doubted, that

CENT. JOACHIM, whether a real or fictitious person we shall not pretend to determine, among many other future PART II. events, foretold the destruction of the church of Rome, whose corruptions he censured with the greatest severity, and the promulgation of a new and more perfect gospel in the age of the Holy Ghost, by a fet of poor and austere ministers, whom God was to raife up and employ for that purpose. For he divided the world into three ages, relative to the three dispensations of religion that were to succeed each other in it. The two imperfect ages, to wit, the age of the Old Testament, which was that of the Father, and the age of the New, which was under the administration of the Son, were, according to the predictions of this fanatic, now past, and the third age, even that of the Holy Ghoft, was at hand. The Spiritual, i. e. the austere Franciscans, who were, for the most part, well-meaning, but wrongheaded enthusiasts, not only swallowed down, with the most voracious and implicit credulity, the prophecies and doctrines that were attributed to JoA-CHIM, but applied these predictions to themselves, and to the rule of discipline established by their holy

> JOACHIM was the author of various predictions; and that he, in a particular manner, foretold the reformation of the church, of which he might easily see the absolute necessity. It is however certain, that the greatest part of the predictions and writings, which were formerly attributed to him, were composed by others; and this we may affirm even of the Everlasting Gospel, the work, undoubtedly, of fome obscure, filly, and visionary author, who thought proper to adorn his reveries with the celebrated name of JOACHIM, in order to gain them credit, and to render them more agreeable to the multitude. The title of this senseless production is taken from Revelations xiv. 6. and it contained three books; the first was entitled, Liber Concordia veritatis, i. e. The Book of the Harmony of Truth; the second, Apocalypsis Nova, or New Revelations; and the third, Pfalterium decem Chordarum, i. e. The Ten-stringed Harp. This account was taken from a manuscript of that work, in the library of the Sorbonne, by JAC. ECHARD, who has published it in his Scriptores. Dominic. tom. i. p. 202.

founder St. Francis [t]; for they maintained, CENT. that he delivered to mankind the true gospel, and XIII. that he was the angel whom St. John saw slying in PART II. the midst of heaven [u].

XXXIV. At the very time that the intestine Gerhard's divisions among the Franciscans were at the greatest book conheight, one of the Spiritual friars, whose name was Gerhard, undertook the explication of the Everlasting Gospel attributed to Joachim, in a book which appeared in the year 1250, under the title of Introduction to the Everlasting Gospel [w]. In this

[t] This is acknowledged even by WADDING, notwithstanding his partiality in favour of the *spiritual* or austere Franciscans. See his *Annal. Minor.* tom. iv. p. 3—6.

[u] Revel. xiv. 6. And I saw another angel fly in the midst of heaven, having the everlasting gospel to preach unto them that dwell on the earth, &c.—See on this subject Baluzii Miscellan. tom. i. p. 221. 228. 235. 246. Echardi Scriptor. Dominic. tom. i. p. 202.—Codex Inquisit. Tholosana a Limborchio edit. p. 301,

302. 305, &c.

[w] As the accounts given of this book, by ancient and modern writers, are not fufficiently accurate, it may not be improper to offer here some observations that may correct their millakes. 1. They almost all confound the Everlasting Gospel, or The Gospel of the Holy Ghost, (for so was it also called, as we are told by Guill. DE St. Amour, in his book De Periculis noviss. Tempor. p. 38.) with the Introduction to the Everlasting Gospel. But these two productions must be carefully distinguished from each other. The Everlasting Gospel was attributed to the abbot JOACHIM, and it confifted in three books, as has been already observed. But the Introduction to this Gospel was the work of a certain Franciscan monk, who explained the obscure predictions of the pretended Gospel, and applied them to his order. The Everlafting Gospel was neither complained of by the university of Paris, nor condemned by the Roman pontiff, ALEXANDER IV.; but the Introduction was complained of, condemned, and burnt, as appears evidently from the letters of the abovementioned pontiff, which are to be feen in Boulay's Histor. Academ. Parif. tom. iii. p. 292. The former consisted, as productions of that nature generally do, in ambiguous predictions and intricate riddles, and was confequently despised or neglected; but the latter was dangerous in many respects. 2. It is farther to be observed, that the ancient writers are not agreed concerning the author of this Introduction. They are unanimous in attributing it to one of the

CENT. book, the fanatical monk, among other enormities, as XIII. infipid as impious, inculcated the following detestable PART II.

Mendicant friars; but the votaries of St. Francis maintain, that the author was a Dominican; while the Dominican party affirm as obstinately, that he was a Franciscan. It is however certain, that the greatest part of the learned are of opinion, that the author of the infamous work in question was John of Parma, general of the Franciscans, who is known to have been most warmly attached to the *spiritual* faction of that order, and to have maintained the fentiments of the abbot JOACHIM with an excessive See Luc. WADDING. Annal. Minor. tom. iv. p. q. who endeavours to defend him against this accufation, though without (See also the Ada Sandorum, tom. iii. Martii, p. 157. for John of Parma, though he preferred the Gospel of St. Francis to that of CHRIST, has, nevertheless, obtained a place among The learned ECHARD is of a different opinion, and has proved, in his Scriptor. Dominican. tom. i. p. 202, 203. from the curious manufcripts yet preferved in the Sorbonne, relating to the Everlassing Gospel, that Gerhard, a Franciscan friar, was the author of the infamous Introduction to that book. GERHARD, indeed, was the intimate friend and companion to JOHN of Parma, and not only maintained, with the greatest obstinacy, the cause of the spiritual, but also embraced all the fentiments that were attributed to the abbot Joachim, with such an ardent zeal, that he chose to remain eighteen years in prison rather than to abandon them. See WADDINGII Annal. Minor. tom. iv. p. 4. 7. The Franciscans, who were called observantes, i. e. vigilant, from their professing a more rigid observance of the rule of their founder than was practifed by the rest of their order, place Gerhard among the faints of the first rank, and impudently affirm, that he was not only endowed with the gift of prophecy, but also with the power of working miracles. See WADDINGII Annales Min. tom. iii. p. 213, 214. It is to be observed 3dly, That whoever may have been the writer of this detestable book, the whole Mendicant order, in the judgment of the greatest part of the historians of this age, shared the guilt of its composition and publication, more especially the Dominicans and Franciscans, who are supposed to have fallen upon this impious method of deluding the multitude into a high notion of their fanctity, in order thus to establish their dominion, and to extend their authority beyond all This opinion however is ill-founded, notwithstanding the numbers by which it has been adopted. The Franciscans alone are chargeable with the guilt of this horrid production, as appears most evidently from the fragments of the book itself, which yet remain; but we are obliged in justice to observe farther, that this guilt does not even lie upon all the Franciscans, but only on that

doctrine; "That St. FRANCIS, who was the CENT. " angel mentioned in the Revelations xiv. 6. had XIII. " promulgated to the world the true and everlasting PART II.

" gospel of God; that the gospel of Christ was to be abrogated in the year 1260, and to give " place to this new and everlasting gospel, which "was to be substituted in its room; and that the ministers of this great reformation were to be "humble and bare-footed friars, destitute of all "worldly emoluments $\lceil x \rceil$." When this strange book was published at Paris in the year 1254, it excited in the doctors of the church, and, indeed, in all good men, the most lively feelings of horror

faction of the order, which is known under the title of the Spiritual. Perhaps we might go still farther, and allege, that the charge ought not to be extended even to all the members of this faction, but to fuch alone as placed an idle and enthusiastic confidence in the abbot Joachim, and gave credit to all his pretended prophecies. These observations are necessary to the true understanding of what has been said concerning the Everlasting Gospel by the following learned men; Jo. Andr. Schmidius, Singular Differtat. Helmst. 1700, in 4to. - Usserius, De Successione Ecclefiar. Occident. c. ix. § 20. p. 337 .- Boulay, Hift. Acad. Parif. tom. iii. p. 292.—NATAI.. ALEXANDER, Histor. Eccles. Sæc. xiii. Artic. iv. p. 78.—Luc. WADDING. Annal. Minor. tom. iv. p. 9.—Upon the whole it may be affirmed, that the book under confideration is not, as the greatest part of the learned have imagined, a monument of the arrogance of the Mendicant orders, but rather a proof of the impious fanaticism and extravagance of an handful of Franciscans.

[x] See Guil. DE St. Amore, De Periculis noviss. Tempor. p. 38, 39. who observes, that the book under consideration was not indeed published before the year 1254, but that the opinions contained in it had an earlier origin, and were propagated even in the year 1200. Several of the ancient writers have given large extracts from this infamous book, fee HERM. CORNERS Chronicon, in Eccardi Corpore Histor. medii avi, tom. ii. p. 850.—Ghronosen Egmondanum, in Ant. Matthæl Analedis veteris ævi, tom. ii. p. 517.—Ricobaldus apud Eccardum, loc. cit. tom. i. p. 1215. But there is a great difference between these extracts, which feems to have arisen from this, that some drew their citations from the Everlafling Gospel of Joachim, while others drew theirs from the Introduction of GERHARD, not sufficiently distin-

guishing the one work from the other.

CENT. and indignation against the Mendicant friars, who had already incurred the displeasure of the public P AR T II. on other accounts. This universal ferment engaged the Roman pontiff, ALEXANDER IV. though much against his will, to order the suppression of this abfurd book in the year 1255; he, however, took care to have this order executed with the greatest possible mildness, lest it should hurt the reputation of the Mendicants, and open the eyes of the fuperstitious multitude. But the university of Paris was not fatisfied with these gentle and timorous proceedings; and confequently its doctors repeated without interruption their accufations and complaints. until the extravagant production, that had given fuch just and general offence, was publicly committed to the flames [y].

of St. Fran-

conflitution raged among the Franciscans, and was smothered, of inicolas Hill relating though not extinguished, by the prudent manageto the rule ment of BONAVENTURA, broke out anew with redoubled fury after the death of that pacific doctor. The Franciscan monks, who were fond of opulence and eafe, renewed their complaints against the rule of their founder, as unreasonable and unjust, demanding what it was absolutely beyond the power of man to perform. Their complaints, however, were without effect; and their schemes were disconcerted by the Roman pontiff, NICOLAS III. who leaned to the fide of the austere Franciscans; and, in the year 1279, published that famous constitution, which confirmed the rule of St. FRANCIS, and contained an accurate and elaborate explication of the maxims it recommended, and the duties it pre-By this edict, the pontiff renewed fcribed [z].

XXXV. The intestine slame of discord, that had

[y] See Boulay, Hift. Acad. Parif. tom. iii. p. 299.— JORDANI Chronicon, in MURATORII Antiq. Ital. tom. iv. p.

[2] Some affirm, that this famous Conflitution was issued out by MICOLAS IV.; but their opinion is refuted by WADDING, in his Annal. Min. tom. v. p. 73.

that part of the rule, that prohibited all kinds of cent. property among the Franciscans, every thing that xiii. bore the least resemblance of a legal possession, or Part II. a fixed domain; but he granted to them, at the same time, the use of things necessary, such as houses, books, and other conveniences of that nature, the property of which, in conformity with the appointment of Innocent IV. was to reside in the church of Rome. Nor did the provident pontiss stop here; but prohibited, under the severest penalties, all private explications of this new law, less they should excite disputes and surnish new matter of contention; and reserved the power of interpreting it to himself alone, and to his successors in the pontificate [a].

AXXVI. However disposed Nicolas was to Excites new satisfy the Spiritual, and austere part of the Frantoubles and ciscan order, which was now become numerous both exasperates in Italy and France, and particularly in the province of Narbonne, the constitution above mentioned was far from producing that effect. The monks of that gloomy saction that resided in Italy, received the papal edict with a sullen and discontented silence. Their brethren in France, and more especially in the southern parts of that kingdom, where the inhabitants are of a warm and sanguine complexion, testissed, in an open and tumultuous manner, their disapprobation of this new constitution, and having at their head a famous Franciscan, whose name was Jean Pierre D'Olive, they excited new dissentions and troubles in the order [b]. This Pierre

[a] This constitution is yet extant in the Jus Canon. Lib. vi. Decretal. Tit. xii. c. iii. p. 1028, edit. Bohmeriana, and is vulgarly called the Constitution Exist, from its beginning thus: Exist, &c.

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[[]b] In some ancient records, this ringleader is called Petrus Betterrensis, i. e. Peter of Beziers, because he resided for a long time in the convent of Beziers, where he performed the sunctions of a public teacher. By others, he is named Petrus de Serignano, from the place of his nativity. This remark is so much the more necessary, as certain authors have taken these three denominations for three distinct persons.

CENT. D'OLIVE was a native of Scrignan in Languedocz MIII.

who had acquired a shining reputation by his writings, PART II. and whose eminent fanctity and learning drew after him a great number of followers; nor is it to be denied, that there were many important truths and wife maxims in the instructions he delivered. of the great objects, which he never lost fight of inhis writings, was the corruption of the church of Rome, which he centured with a peculiar freedomand feverity, in a work entitled, Postilla, or A Commentary on the Revelations, affirming boldly, that that church was represented by the whore of Babylon, the mother of harlots, whom St. John beheld sitting upon a fearlet-coloured beaft, full of names of blafphemy, having feven heads and ten horns. [c]. It is, however, to be observed, that this severe censor of a corrupt church was, himfelf, a most superstitious fanatic in feveral respects, having imbibed the greatest part of those monstrous opinions, which the Spiritual pretended to have received from the abbot Joachim; to which he added an impious and extravagant veneration for St. Francis, whom he confidered as wholly and entirely transformed into the person of Christ $\lceil d \rceil$. In the debate concerning the fense of the rule of this famous chief, he feemed to adhere to neither of the contending parties; for he allowed his followers the bare use of the necessaries of life; and being called upon, at different times, by the authority of his fuperiors, to declare his fentiments uponthis head, he professed his assent to the interpretation that had been given of the rule in question by NICOLAS III. He leaned, nevertheless, to the fide of those austere and Spiritual Franciscans, whonot only opposed the introduction of property among the individuals of the order, but also maintained

[[]c] Revelations xvii. 3, 4, 5.
[d] Totum Christo configuratum. See the Litera Magistrorum de Postilla Fratris P. Joh. Olivi, in BALUZII Miscellan. tom. is p. 213. - WADDING! Annales Minor. tom. v. p. 51.

that the whole community, confidered collectively, CENT. was likewise to be excluded from possessions of every XIII. kind. His zeal for these gloomy Franciscans was PART II. great, and he defended their cause with warmth [e]; hence he is looked upon as the chief of that saction, which disputed so often, and so vehemently, with the Roman pontists, in savour of the renunciation of property, in consequence of the institution of St. Francis [f].

FRANCIS [f].

XXXVII. The credit and authority of PIERRE ContinuaD'OLIVE, whom the multitude confidered not only tion of these
debates.

as a man of unblemished sanctity, but also as a prophet sent from above, added new force and vigour to the Spiritual, and encouraged them to renew the combat with redoubled sury. But the prudence of the heads of the order prevented, for some time, the pernicious effects of these violent efforts, and so over-ruled the impetuous motions of this enthusiastic faction, that a fort of equality was preserved between the contending parties. But the promotion of MATTHEW of Aqua Sparta, who was elected general of the order in the year 1287, put an end to these prudential measures, and changed entirely the face

[e] The real fentiments of Pierre D'Ouve will be best discovered in the last discourse he pronounced, which is yet extant in Boulay's Histor. Acad. Paris. tom. iii. p. 535. and

in Wadding's Annal. Minor. tom. v. p. 378.

[f] For an account of this famous friar, fee not only the common monastic historians, such as RAYNALDUS, ALEXANDER, and OUDINUS, but also the following: BALUZII Mijcell. tom. i. p. 213. and in Vitis Pontif. Aven on. tom. ii. p. 752.—CAR. Plessis d'Argentre, Collectio judiciorum de novis Ecclesia Erroribus, tom. i. p. 226.—Wadding. Annal. Minor. tom. v. p. 52. 108. 121. 140. 236. and more especially p. 378. where he makes an unsuccessful attempt to justify this enthusiast —Boulay, Hist. Acad. Paris. tom. iii. p. 535.—Schelhorniast Amanitates Literaria, tom. ix. p. 678.—Histoire Generale de Languedoc, par les Moines Benedictins, tom. iv. p. 91. 179. 182. The bones of Pierre d'Olive were raised by the order of the Roman pontist John XXII. and burnt publicly, with his writings, in the year 1325. See Raynald. ad An. 1325. § 20.

CENT. of affairs. This new chief fuffered the ancient disci-XIII. pline of the Franciscans to dwindle away to nothing, PART II indulged his monks in abandoning even the very

appearance of poverty, and thus drew upon him, not only the indignation and rage of the austerer part of the Spiritual Franciscans, but also the disapprobation of the more moderate members of that party. Hence arose various tumults and seditions, first in the marquisate of Ancona, and afterwards in France, which the new general endeavoured to suppress by imprisonment, exile, and corporal punishments; but, finding all these means ineffectual, refigned his place in the year 1289 [g]. His fuccessor RAYMOND GOFFREDI employed his utmost efforts to appeale these troubles. For this purpose he recalled the banished friars, set at liberty those that had been cast into prison, and put out of the way feveral of the austerer Franciscans, who had been the principal fomenters of these unhappy divifions, by fending them into Armenia in the character of mislionaries. But the disorder was too far gone to admit of a remedy. The more moderate Francifcans, who had a relish for the sweets of property and opulence, accused the new general of a partial attachment to the Spiritual, whom he treated with peculiar affection and respect, and therefore employed their whole credit to get him removed from his office, which, with much difficulty, they, at length, effected under the pontificate of Boniface VIII. On the other hand, the more rigid part of the Spiritual faction renounced all fellowship, even with such of their own party as discovered a pacific and reconciling spirit; and, forming themselves into a separate body, protested publicly against the interpretation which NICOLAS III. had given of the rule of St. Francis. Thus, from the year 1290, the affairs of the Franciscans carried a dismal aspect, and portended nothing else but seditions and schisms

^[5] WADDING! Annales Min. tom. v. p. 210, 211. 235.

in an order, that had been so famous for its pre-CENT. tended disinterestedness and humility [b].

XXXVIII. In the year 1294, a certain number PART II. of Italian Franciscans, of the Spiritual party, addressed themselves to Celestin V. for a permission to form a feparate order, in which they might not only profefs, but also observe, in the strictest manner, that austere rule of absolute poverty, which St. Francis had prescribed to his followers. The good pontiff, who, before his elevation to the head of the church, had led a folitary and auftere life [i], and was fond of every thing that looked like mortification and felf-denial, granted, with the utmost facility, the request of these friars, and placed at the head of the new order, a monk, whose name was LIBERA-TUS, and who was one of the greatest felf-tormentors of all the monastic tribe [k]. Soon after this, CE-LESTIN, finding himself unsit for the duties of his high and important office, refigned the pontificate, in which he was fucceeded by Boniface VIII. who annulled every act that had been passed during the short reign of his predecessor, and suppressed, among other institutions, the new order, which had assumed the title of the Celestin Hermits of St. Francis [1]. This difgrace was, as it were, the fignal which drew

[b] Id. ibid. tom. v. p. 108. 121. 140. and more especially

p. 235, 236.

[k] WADDINGI Annales, tom. v. p. 324. 338.

retired very young to a solitary mountain, in order to devote himself entirely to prayer and mortification. The same of his piety brought many to see him from a principle of curiosity, several of whom renounced the world, and became the companions of his solitude. With these he formed a kind of community, in the year 1254, which was approved by URBAN IV. in 1264, and erected into a distinct order, called The Hermits of St. Damien. Upon Meuron's elevation to the pontificate, and his assuming the name of Celestin V. his order, which must not be consounded with the new Franciscan Celestin Hermits, took the title of Celestins.

^[1] Id, ibid. tom. vi. p. 1. Bullarium Magnum Contin. III. IV. p. 108, 109.

XIII.

CENT. upon them the most furious attacks of their enemies. The worldly-minded Franciscans perfecuted them PART II. with the most unrelenting bitterness, accused them of various crimes, and even cast upon them the odious reproach of Manicheism. Hence many of these unhappy fanatics retired into Achaia, from whence they passed into a small island, where they imagined themselves secure from the rage of their adversaries, and at liberty to indulge themselves in all the austerities of that miferable life, which they looked upon as the perfection of holiness here below. But no retreat was fufficient to screen them from the vigilance and fury of their crnel perfecutors, who left no means unemployed to perpetuate their miseries. the mean time, that branch of the Spiritual Francifcans that remained in Italy, continued to observe the rigorous laws of their primitive institution in fpite of Boniface VIII. who used his utmost efforts to conquer their obstinacy. They erected societies of their order first in the kingdom of Naples, afterwards in the Milanese, and in the marquisate of Ancona; and, at length, spreading themselves through the greatest part of Europe, they continued in the most violent state of war with the church of Rome, until the face of things was changed by the Reformation. In these conflicts they underwent trials and fufferings of every kind, and multitudes of them perished in the flames, as miserable victims to the infernal fury of the *Inquisition* [m].

> [m] The writers that scrue generally as guides in this part of the history of the church, and whom I have been obliged to confult upon the divisions of the Franciscans, whose history, as will foon appear, is peculiarly interesting and important, are far from meriting the encomiums that are due to perspicuity and exactness. This part of the Eccletiastical History of, what is called the Middle Age, has not hitherto been accurately illustrated by any writer, though it be, every way, worthy of the labours of the learned, and of the attention of Christians. Its principal merit confifts herein, that it exhibits striking examples of piety and learning struggling against the power of superstition and

XXXIX. Towards the conclusion of this century, CENT. arose in *Italy* the enthusiastic sect of the *Fratricelli* XIII. and *Bizochi*, which, in *Germany* and *France*, received PART II.

ignorance, and against that spiritual tyranny of which they were The Fratrithe principal supports. Nay, these very rebellious Franciscans, celli and Beguards: though fanatical and superstitious in several respects, deserve, nevertheless, an eminent rank among those who prepared the waysfor the Reformation in Europe, and who excited in the minds of the people, a just aversion to the church of Rome. RAYNALDUS, BZOVIUS, SPONDANUS, in their Annals, Ey-MERICUS, in his Directorium Inquisitorum, and NATALIS ALEX-ANDER, in his Ecclefiastical History, relate the revolutions that happened in the Franciscan order, and in the church in general during this period: but their accounts are neither fo accurate, nor fo ample, as the importance of the events deferved. as it is from these authors that the protestant historians have drawn their materials, we need not be furprifed at the defects with which thefe latter abound. WADDING, who merits the highest encomiums as a laborious and learned writer, is yet an uncertain guide, when he treats of the matters now under confideration. His attachment to one party, and his fear of the others, lay him under restraints, that prevent his declaring the truth with a noble freedom. He shades his picture with dexte-He conceals, diffembles, excuses, acknowledges, and denies, with fuch a timorous prudence and caution, that the truth could not but fuffer confiderably under his pen. He appears to have been attached to the rigid Franciscans, and yet had not the courage to declare openly, that they had been injured by the pontiffs. He faw on the other hand, the tumults and perplexities in which these rigid Franciscans had involved the church of Rome, and the strokes they had levelled, with no small success, at the majesty of the pontisfs: but he has taken all imaginable pains to throw such a shade upon this part of their conduct, as conceals its violence from the view of his readers. Such then being the characters of the writers, who have handed down to us the history of the church in this important period, I could follow none of them as a fure or constant guide in all the events they relate, the judgments they form, or the characters they describe. I have not, however, been destitute of a clue to conduct me through the various windings of this intricate labyrinth. testimonies of ancient authors, with feveral manuscripts that have never yet been published, such as the Diplomas of the Pontists and Emperors, the Ads of the Inquifition, and other records of that kind, are the authentic fources from whence I have drawn my accounts of many things that have been very imperfectly reprefented by other historians.

CENT. the denomination of Beguards. They were conXIII. demned by Boniface VIII. [n], and by feveral of
PART II his fuccessors; and the inquisitors were charged by
these despotic pontists to perfecute them until they
were entirely extirpated, which commission they
executed with their usual barbarity. The Fratricelli,
or Little Brethren, were Franciscan monks, who
separated themselves from the grand community of
St. Francis, with a design to observe the laws of
their parent and sounder in a more strict and rigorous
manner than they were observed by the other Franciscans; and who, accordingly, renounced every
kind of possession and property both common and
personal, and begged from door to door their daily
subsistence [o]. They alleged that neither Christ

[n] See Trithemius Annal. Hirfaug. tom. ii. p. 74. though this author is defective in feveral respects, and more especially in his accounts of the origin and sentiments of the Fratricelli. It is also to be observed, that he confounds, through the whole of his history, the sects and orders of this century one with another, in the most ignorant and unskilful manner. See rather Du Boulay, Histor. Acad. Paris. tom. iii. p. 541. where the edict published in the year 1297, by Boniface VIII. against the Bizochi, or Beguards, is inserted; as also Jordani Chronicon, in Muratorii zintiq. Italiz, tom. iv. p. 1020.

[0] The Fratricelli resemble the Spiritual in many of their maxims and observances: they, however, are a distinct body, and differ from them in various respects. The Spiritual, for instance, continued to hold communion with the rest of the Franciscans, from whom they differed in points of confiderable moment, nor did they ever pretend to erect themselves into a particular and diffinct order; the Fratricelli, on the contrary, renounced all communion with the Franciscans, and, withdrawing their obedience from the superiors of that society, chose for themselves a new chief, under whom they formed a new and separate order. The Spiritual did not absolutely oppose their order's possessing certain goods jointly, and in common, provided they renounced all property in these goods, and confined their pretensions to the mere uje of them; whereas the Fratricelli rejected every kind of possession, whether personal or in common, and embraced that absolute poverty and want, which St. Francis had prescribed in his Rule and in his last Testament. We omit the mention of other less important differences that might be alleged here.

nor his apostles had any possessions, either personal, CENT. or in common; and that they were the models, whom xiii. St. Francis commanded his followers to imitate. PART II. After the example also of their austere founder, they went about clothed with fordid garments, or rather with loathfome rags, declaimed against the corruption of the church of Rome, and the vices of the pontiffs and bishops, foretold the reformation of the church and the restoration of the true gospel of CHRIST by the genuine followers of St. FRANCIS, and declared their affent to almost all the doctrines, which were published under the name of the abbot JOACHIM. They esteemed and respected CELESTIN V. because, as has been already observed, he was, in fome measure, the founder of their fociety, by permitting them to erect themselves into a separate order. But they refused to acknowledge, as true and lawful heads of the church, his fuccessor Boni-FACE and the other pontiffs after him, who opposed the Fratricelli, and perfecuted their order $\lceil p \rceil$.

[p] The accounts of the Fratricelli, that are given by ancient and modern writers, even by those that pretend to the greatest exactness, are extremely confused and uncertain. TRITHEMIUS, in his Annal. Hirfaug. tom. ii. p. 74. affirms, that they derived their origin from TANCHELINUS, and thus ignorantly confounds them with the Catharists and other sects that arose in those times. The Franciscans leave no means unemployed to clear themselves from all relation to this fociety, and to demonstrate, that fuch a pestilential and impious sect, as that of the Fratricelli, did not derive their origin from the order of St. FRANCIS. In confequence of this, they deny that the Fratricelli professed the Franciscan rule; and maintain, on the contrary, that the fociety, which was distinguished by this title, was a heap of rabble, composed of persons of allkinds and all religions, whom HERMAN PONGILUP, towards the conclusion of this century, gathered together at Ferrara in Italy, and erected into a diffinct order. See Luc. WADDING. Annal. Minor. tom. vi. p. 279. This author employs all his eloquence to defend his order from the infamous reproach of having given rife to that of the Fratricelli: But his efforts are vain; for he acknowledges, nay, even proves by unquestionable authorities, that this hated fect professed and observed, in the most rigorous manner, the rule of St. Francis;

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CENT. XL. As the Franciscan order acknowledged, as XIII. its companions and affociates, a set of men who PART II.

Tertiaries, Rocafoti, and Beguins. and, nevertheless, he denies that they were Franciscans; by which he means, and indeed can only mean, that they were not fuch Franciscans as those who lived in subjection to the general of the order, and adopted the interpretation which the pontiffs had given of the rule of their founder. All WADDING's boafted demonstration, therefore, comes to no more than this, that the Fratricelli were Franciscans who separated themselves from the grand order of St. FRANCIS, and rejected the authority of the general of that order, and the laws and interpretations, together with the jurisdiction of the Roman pontiffs; and this no mortal ever took it into his head to deny. HERMANNUS, or, as he is called by many, Armannus Pongilup, whom Wadding and others consider as the parent of the Fratricelli, lived in this century, at Ferrara, in the highest reputation on account of hisextraordinary piety; and when he died, in the year 1269, was: interred with the greatest magnificence and pomp in the principal church of that city. His memory was, for a long time, honoured with a degree of veneration equal to that which is paid to the most illustrious faints; and it was supposed that the Supreme Being: bore testimony to his eminent fanctity by various miracles. as Pongilup had been suspected of heresy by the Inquisitors *. on account of the peculiar auflerity of his life, which refembled that of the Catharifts, they made, even after his death, fuch an exact and ferupulous inquiry into his maxims and morals, that, many years after he was laid low in the grave, his impiety was detected and published to the world. Hence it was, that, in the year 1300, his tomb was destroyed, his bones dug up, and burned by the order of Boniface VIII. and the multitude effectually cured of the enthusiastic veneration they had for his memory. The judicial acts of this remarkable event are recorded by MURA-TORI, in his Antiquit. Italic. medii avi, toni. v. p. 93-147. and it appears evidently from them, that those learned men, who confider Pongilup as the founder of the order of the Fraticelli, are entirely mistaken. So far was he from being the founder of thisfect, that he was dead before it was in being. The truth of the matter is, that this famous enthulialt was a Catharift, infected with Paulician or Manichean principles, and that he was a member of the fest entitled Bagnolifts, from a town of that name in Provence, where they refided. Some modern writers, indeed, have feen fo far into the truth, as to perceive that the Fratricelli were a separate branch of the rigid and austere Franciscans; but they err in this, that they confider them as the same sect with the

^{*} These sermidable censers were entitled, Inquisitors of Heretical. Pravity.

observed the third rule that was prescribed by St.CENT. Francis, and were from thence commonly called XIII.

Beguards or Beguins, under a different denomination. Such is the opinion adopted by Limborch, in his Hist. Inquisit. lib. i. cap. xix. p. 69. who appears to have been very little acquainted with the matters now under consideration; by Baluzius, in his Miscellan. tom. i. p. 195. & Vit. Pontis. Avenionens. tom. i. p. 509. by Beausobre, in his Differtation concerning the Adamites, subjoined to the History of the Wars of the Hussias, p. 380. and by Wadding, in his Annal. Minor. tom. v. p. 376. But notwithstanding the authorities of these learned men, it is certain, as we shall shew in its place, that there was a real difference between the Fratricelli and the Beguards, not indeed with respect to their opinions, but in their rule of discipline and their manner of life.

The principal cause of the errors that have obscured the History of the Fratricelli, is the ambiguity that there is in the denomination of their order. Fratricellus, or Fratereulus, or Little Brother, was an Italian nick-name, or term of derifion, that was applied in this century to all those who, without belonging to any of the religious orders, affected a monkish air in their cloathing, their carriage, and their manner of living, and assumed a fanctimonious aspect of piety and devotion. See VILLANI Istorie Florentine, lib. viii. c. 84. p. 423.—IMOLA in Dantem, p. 1121. in MURA-TORI Antiq. Ital. tom. i. And as there were many ragabonds of this kind, that wandered about from place to place during this century, it happened, that this general term of Fratricelli was applied to them all, though they differed much from one another in their opinions and in their methods of living. Thus the Catharifts, the Waldenfes, the Apostles, and many other fects, who had invented new opinions in religion, were marked with this denomination by the multitude; while the writers of foreign nations, unacquainted with this ludicrous application of the word, were puzzled in their inquiries after the fect of the Fratricelli, who had given fo much trouble to the Roman pontiffs, nay, were led into the groffest mistakes, and imagined, at one time, that this order was that of the Catharifts, at another, that it was the feet of the Waldenses, &c. But, in order to have distinct ideas of this smatter, it must be considered, that the word Fraterculus, or Little Brother, bore a quite different fense from the ludicrous one now mentioned, when it was applied to the auftere part of the Francifeans, who maintained the necessity of observing, in the strictest manner, the rule of their founder. Instead of being a nick-name, or a term of derifion when applied to them, it was an honourable denomination, in which they delighted, and which they preferred infinitely before all other titles. Fratricelli, or Little Brothers, is a word of the fame fignification with Friars-minors; and every

CENT. Tertiaries [q]; so likewise the order of the Fratricelli, MIII. who were desirous of being considered as the only PART II.

one knows, that this latter appellation was adopted by the Franciscans, as an expression of their extraordinary humility and modelty. In affuming this title, therefore, these monks did not, properly fpeaking, assume a new name, but only translated the ancient name of their order into the Italian language; for what the Latins called Fratres minores, i. e. Friars-minors, that the Italians called Fratricelli. Of the many proofs we might draw from the best authors in favour of this account of the matter, we shall only allege one, from the Life of Thomas Aquinas, by Guilielmus de Thoco in Actis Sanctor. Martii, tom. i. cap. ii. § xxi. Destruxit (favs that biographer) et tertium pestiferum pravitatis errorem St. Thomas . . . cujus seclatores simulet inventores SE NOMINANT FRATERCULOS DE VITA PAUPERE, ut etiam sub koc humilitatis sophistico nomine simplicium corda seducant . . . Contra quem errorem pestiferum Johannes Papa XXII. mirandam edidit Decretale $moldsymbol{.}$

Now this very Decretal of John XXII. against the Fratricelli, which Thoco calls Admirable, is, to mention no other testimonies, a sufficient and satisfactory proof of what I have affirmed in relation to that sect. In this Decretal, which is to be seen in the Extravagantia Joh. XXII. Corporis Juris Canon. tom. ii. p. 1112. edit. Bahmeriana, the pontiff expresses himself thus: Nonnulli profanæ multitudinis viri, qui vulgariter Fratricelli seu Fratres de paupere vita, Bizochi, sive Beguini, nuncupantur in partibus Italia, in insula Sicilia publice mendicare solent. The pontiff afterwards divides the Fratricelli, into Monks and Tertiaries, or (which amounts to the fame thing, as we shall shew in its place) into Fratricelli and Beguins. With respect to the Fratricelli, properly so called, he expresses himself thus: Plurimi regulam seu ordinem Fratrum Minorum . . . Se profiteri ad litteram confervare confingunt, prætendentes se a sancia memoria Calestino Papa Quinto, prædecessore nostro, hujus status, seu vitæ privilegium habuisse. Quod tamen, et sit ostenderent, non valeret, cum Bonifacius Papa Octavus ex certis causis rationabilibus omnia ab ipso Calestino concessa viribus penitus evacuaverit. Here the pontiff describes clearly those Fratricelli, who, separating themselves from the Franciscans with a view to observe more strictly the rule of St. Francis, were erected into a distinct order by pope CELESTIN V. And in the following passage he characterises, with the same perspicuity, the Bizochi or Beguins, who entitled themselves of The third order of the penitents of St. Francis: Nonnulli en ipsis afferentes se esse de iertio ordine beati Francisci panitentium vocato, pradictum statum et ritum corum sub velamine talis nominis satagunt palliare.

[q] Besides two very austere rules drawn up by St. Francis, the one for the Friars-minous, and the other for the Poor-Sisters;

genuine followers of St. Francis, had a great cent. number of *Tertiaries* attached to their cause. These XIII. *Tertiaries*, or half-monks, were called, in *Italy*, *Bizochi* Partisand *Bocasoti*; in *France*, *Beguins*; and in *Germany*, *Beguards*, or *Beghards*, which last was the denomination by which they were commonly known in almost all places [r]. They differed from the

called Clarisses, from St. CLARA their founder, this famous chief drew up a third, whose demands were less rigorous, for such, as, without abandoning their worldly affairs, or refigning their possessions, were, nevertheless, disposed to enter, with certain restrictions, into the Franciscan order, and desirous of enjoying the privileges that were annexed to it. This rule prescribed fasting, continence, hours of devotion and prayer, mean and dirty apparel, gravity of manners, and things of that nature; but neither prohibited contracting marriage, accumulating wealth, filling civil employments, nor attending to worldly affairs. All the Franciscan historians have given accounts of this third rule, more especially WADDING. Annal. Min. tom. ii. p. 7.—HELYOT, Hist. des Ordres, tom. vii. p. 214. They, that professed this third rule, were called Friars of the penance of Christ, and sometimes alfo, on account of the meanness of their garments, Brethren of the fack, but they were more generally known by the denomination of Tertiaries. The greatest part of the religious orders in the church of Rome imitated this inflitution of St. Francis, as foon as they perceived the various advantages that were deducible from it. And hence, at this day, these orders continue to have their Tertiaries.

[r] The Tertiaries that were connected with the order of the Fratricelli, arose about the year 1296, in the marquisate of Ancona and the neighbouring countries, and were called Bizochi, as we learn from the edict issued out against them, in the year 1297, by Boniface VIII. and published by Du Boular, in his Histor. Acad. Paris. tom. iii. p. 541. They are mentioned under the same title by John XXII. in the bull already cited. Add to all these authorities, that of the learned Du Fresne, who, in his Gloffar. Latinit. media, tom. i. p. 1188. observes, that this denomination is derived from Bizochus, which fignifies in French une Beface, i. e. a fack or wallet, fuch as beggars in general, and these holy beggars in particular, were used to carry about with them. The term Bocafotus, or Vocafotus, as Du Boulay writes it (in his Histor. Acad. Paris. tom. iii. p. 510.) has no doubt the same origin, and bears the same signification. It is used by Jordan, in his Chronicle, from whence we shall cite a remarkable passage in the following note. The denominations

CENT. Fratricelli, not in their opinions and doctrine, but XIII. only in their manner of living. The Fratricelli PARTII.

of Beghards and Beguins, that were given to the Tertiaries in France and in Italy, are very frequently to be met with in the Ecclesiastical History of the Middle Age. The accounts, however, which both ancient and modern writers generally give of these famous names, are so uncertain, and so different from each other, that we need not be surprised to find the history of the Beghards and Beguins involved in greater perplexity and darkness, than any other part of the Ecclesiastical Annals of the Age now mentioned. It is therefore my present design to remove this perplexity, and to dispel this darkness, as far as that can be done in the short space to which I am confined, and to disclose the true origin of these famous denominations.

The words Beghard or Beggehard, Begutta, Beghinus, and Beghina, which only differ in their termination, have all one and the same sense. The German and Belgic nations wrote Beghard and Begutte, which terminations are extremely common in the language of the ancient Germans. But the French substituted the Latin termination in the place of the German, and changed Beghard into Beghinus and Beghina; so that those who in Holland and Germany were called Beghard and Begutte, were denominated in France, Beghini and Beghina. Nay, even in Germany and Holland, the Latin termination was gradually introduced inflead of the German, particularly in the feminine term Begutta, of which change we might allege feveral probable reasons, were this the proper place for disquisitions of that nature. There are many different opinions concerning the origin and fignification of thefe terms, which it would be too tedious to mention, and still more so to refute. Besides, I have done this in a large work now almost finished, concerning the Leghards and Beghines, wherein I have traced out with the utmost pains and labour, in Records, the greatest part of which have never seen the light, the history of all the different fects to whom these names have been given, and have at the same time detected the errors into which many learned men have fallen in treating this part of the history of the church*. At prefent, therefore, fetting afide many opinions and conjectures, I shall confine myself to a brief inquiry into the true origin and fignification of these words. They are undoubtedly derived from the old German word beggen, beggeren, which fignifies to feek any thing with importunity, zeal, and carnefinefs. In joining to this word the fyllable hard, which is the termination of many German words, we have the term Beggehard, which is applicable

^{*}The work here hinted at has not yet appeared, though we hope that those who are entrusted with the papers of the learned author, will prevent such a valuable production being lost to the republic of letters.

were real monks, subjected to the rule of St. FRAN-CENT. cis; while the Bizochi, or Beguins, if we except XIII.

PART II.

to a person who asks any thing with ardour and importunity. And as none are fo remarkable for asking in this manner as common beggars, who subsist upon the liberality of the public, therefore, in the ancient German language, they were called Beghard, from which the English word beggar is manifestly derived. Begutta fignifies a female beggar. - When Christianity was introduced into Germany, the word beggen, or beggeren, was used in a religious sense, and expressed the act of devout and fervent prayer to the Supreme Being. Accordingly we find in the Gothick translation of the Four Gospels attributed to UPHI-LAS, the word beggen employed to express the duty of earnest and fervent prayer. Hence, when any person distinguished himself from others by the frequency and fervour of his devotional fervices, he was called a Beghard, i. e. a devout man; and the denomination of Begutta was given, in the fame fense, to women of uncommon piety. And as they, who distinguished themselves from others by the frequency of their prayers, assumed by that means a more striking air of external devotion than the rest of their fellow-christians; hence it came to pass, that all those who were ambitious of appearing more religious and devout than their

neighbours, were called Beghardi, or Beguita.

The observations we have hitherto made, with respect to the origin and fignification of the words in question, will ferve as a clue to deliver the attentive reader from that labyrinth of difficulties in which the history of the Beghards and Beghing has been involved. They will also enable him to account for the prodigious multitudes of Beghards and Beguines that sprung up in Europe in the thirteenth century; and will show him how it happened, that these denominations were given to above thirty fects or orders, which differed widely from each other in their opinions, their discipline, and manner of living. The first and original fignification of the word Beghard (or Beggert, as it was pronounced by the common people) was importunate beggar. Therefore, when the people saw certain persons, not only embracing with refignation, but also with the most voluntary choice, and under a pretext of devotion, the horrors of absolute poverty, begging their daily bread from door to door, and renouncing all their worldly possessions and occupations, they called all such persons Beghards, or, if they were women, Beghurts, without ever once confidering the variety of opinions and maxims by which they were distinguished. The sect called Apostles, the rigid Franciscans, the Brethren of the free spirit (of whom hereaster), all embraced this fordid state of beggary; and though among thele orders there was not only the widelt difference, but even the CENT. their fordid habit, and certain observances and XIII. maxims, which they followed in consequence of the Part II.

- greatest opposition, the Germans called them indiscriminately Beghards, from the miserable state which they had all embraced. Nor is this to be wondered at; the character, which they possessed in common, was striking; while the sentiments and maxims that divided them escaped the observation of the multitude.

But the word Beghard acquired a fecond and new fignification in this century, being employed, as we have already observed, to fignify a person who prayed with uncommon frequency, and who distinguished himself from those about him by an extraordinary appearance of piety. The force of this term, in its new fignification, is the same with that of the word Methodist, which is at present the denomination of a certain set of fanatics in these kingdoms. Such, therefore, as departed from the manner of living that was usual among their fellow-citizens, and distinguished themselves by the gravity of their aspect, and the austerity of their manners, were comprehended under the general denomination of Beghards and Beguttes in Germany, and of Beguins and Beguines in France. The use of these terms was, at first, so extensive, that, as we could shew by many examples, they were applied even to the monks themselves; but, in process of time, they were applied with less extent, and were confined to those who formed a fort of an intermediate order between the monks and citizens, and who refembled the former in their manner of living, without affuming their name, or contracting their obligations. The Tertiaries, therefore, or half-monks of the Dominican, Franciscan, and, in general, of all the religious orders, were called Beghards; for though, as lay-citizens, they belonged to the body politic, yet they diffinguished themselves by their monkish dispositions, and their profession of extraordinary piety and fanctity of manners. The Fraternity of weavers, the Brethren of St. ALEXIUS, the Followers of GERHARD the Great, in a word, all who pretended to an uncommon degree of fanctity and devotion, were called *Beghards*, although they procured themfelves the necessaries of life by honest industry, without having recourse to the fordid trade of begging.

The denominations, therefore, of Beghards, Eeguites, Beguins, and Beguines, are rather honourable than otherwise, when we consider their origin; and they are mentioned as such, in several records and deeds of this century, whose authority is most respectable, particularly in the Testament of St. Lewis, king of France. But, in process of time, these terms lost gradually, as the case often happens, their primitive signification, and became marks of insamy and derision. For, among these religious beggars and these sanctimonious pretenders to extraordinary piety,

injunctions of the famous faint now mentioned, lived CENT. after the manner of other men, and were therefore XIII. confidered in no other light, than as feculars and PART II. laymen [s]. It is, however, to be observed, that the Bizochi were divided into two classes, which derived their different denominations of perfect and

there were many, whose piety was nothing more than the most senseles superstition; many, also, whose austere devotion was accompanied with the opinions of a corrupt nature, and entirely opposite to the doctrine of the church, and (what was still more horrible) many artful hypocrites, who, under the mask of religion, concealed the most abominable principles, and committed the most enormous crimes. These were the sools and knaves who brought the denomination of Beghards into disrepute, and rendered it both ridiculous and infamous, so that it was only employed to signify idiots, heretics, or hypocrites. The denomination of Lolhards, of which we shall have occasion to speak more amply hereafter, met with the same sate, and was rendered contemptible by the persons who masked their iniquity under that

[s] See the Acta Inquif. Theolof. published by Limborch, p. 298. 302. 310. 313. and particularly 307. 329. 382. 389. &c. Among the various passages of ancient writers, which tend to illustrate the history of the Fratricelli and Leguins, I shall quote only one, which is to be found in JORDAN'S Chronicon, published by Muratort, in his Antiqa. Ital. medii avi, tom. iv. p. 1020. and confirms almost every thing we have faid upon that head; Anno 1294. Petrus de Macerata et Petrus de Forosemproneo Apostate suerunt ordinis Minorum et hæretici. His perntibus eremitice vivere, ut Regulam B. Francisci ad litteram server c possent. Quibus plures Apostatæ adhaserunt, qui statum communitatis damnabant et declarationes Regulæ, et vocabant se Fratres S. Francisci (he ought to have faid Fratricellos) Seculares; i. e. the Tertiaries, who were the friends and affociates of the Fratricelli, without quitting, however, their fecular state or entering into the monastic order), Saculares autem vocarunt Bizocios aut Fratricellos vel Bocafotos (here JORDAN is miltaken) in affirming, that the Saculares were called Fratricelli; for this latter name belonged only to the true monks of St. Francis, and not to the Tertiaries. The other circumstances of this account are exact, and shew that the more austere professors of the Franciscan rule were divided into two classes, viz. into friars and seculars, and that the latter were called Bizoch. Ii dogmatizabant, quod nullus fummus Pontifex Regulam B. Francisci declarare potuit. Item, quod Augelus abstulit a Nicolao, tertio Papatus austoritatem Et quod ipsi soli sunt in via Dei et vera ecclesia, &c.

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specious title.

CENT. imperfect, from the different degrees of austerity that XIII. they discovered in their manner of living. The Part II perfect lived upon alms, abstained from wedlock, and had no fixed habitations. The imperfect, on the contrary, had their houses, wives, and possessions, and were engaged, like the rest of their fellow-citizens, in the various affairs of life [t].

A great difference beference between the
Trancifean
Beguines
and Belgic Beguines, who crept out of their obfcuand those of
Germany
and the Nevery fhort space of time [u]. Their origin was of
therlands.

XLI. We must not confound these Beguins and
these Beguines, who derived their origin from an austere
tranciscan order, with the German
and Belgic Beguines, who crept out of their obscurity in this century, and multiplied prodigiously in a
therlands.

Their origin was of
therlands.

[t] This division is mentioned, or supposed, by several authors, and more especially in the Ada Inquisit. Tholosana, p. 303. 310.

312, 313. 319, &c.

 $\lceil u \rceil$ In the last century, there was a great debate carried on in the Netherlands concerning the origin of the Beghards and Beguines, of which I have given an ample account in a work not yet published. In the course of this controversy, the Beguines produced the most authentic and unexceptionable records and diplomas, from which it appeared, that, so early as the eleventh and twelfth centuries, there had been feveral focieties of Beguines established in Holland and Flanders. It is true, they had no more than three of these authentic acts to offer as a proof of their antiquity; the first was drawn up in the year 1065, the second in the year 1129, the third in 1151; and they were all three drawn up, at Vilvorden, by the Beguines, who, at that time, were fettled there. See Aub. Miræi Opera Diplomatico-historica, tom. ii. c. xxvi. p. 948. and tom. iii. p. 628, edit. nov.--ERYCIUS PUTEANUS, De Beghinarum apud Belgas instituto et nomine fuffragio. This treatise of Putlanus is to be found with another of the same author, and upon the same subject, in a work entitled, Josephi Geldolphia Ryckel Vita S. Vegge cum Adnotationibus, p. 65-227. Duaci, 1631, in 4to. Now, though we grant that those writers are mistaken, who place the first rife of the *Beguines* in the twelfih or thirteenth century, yet the fmall number of authentic records, which they have to produce in favour of their antiquity, is an incontestable proof of the obscurity in which they lay concealed before the time in which thefe writers place their origin, and may render it almost probable, that the only convent of Beguines, that existed before the thirteenth century, was that of Vilvorden in Brabant.

that they acquired a name, and made a noise in the CENT. world. Their primitive establishment was, undoubt- xIII. edly, the effect of virtuous dispositions and upright PART II. intentions. A certain number of pious women, both virgins and widows, in order to maintain their integrity, and preserve their principles from the contagion of a vicious and corrupt age, formed themselves into societies, each of which had a fixed place of residence, and was under the inspection and government of a female head. Here they divided their time between exercises of devotion, and works of honest industry, reserving to themselves the liberty of entering into the state of matrimony, as also of quitting the convent, whenever they thought proper. And as all those among the female fex, who made extraordinary professions of piety and devotion, were distinguished by the title of Beguines, i. e. persons who were uncommonly a//iduous in prayer, that title was given to the women of whom we are now speaking [w]. The first fociety of this kind, that we read of, was formed at Nivelle in Brabant, in the year 1226 [x]; and

[w] All the Beghards and Beguines that yet remain in Flanders and Holland, where their convents have almost entirely changed their ancient and primitive form, affirm ununimously, that both their name and institution derive their origin from St. BEGGHE, dutchess of Erabant, and daughter of Perin, mayor of the palace to the king of Austrasia, who lived in the seventh century. This lady, therefore, they confider as their patronefs, and honour her as a kind of tutclary divinity with the deepest fentiments of veneration and refpect. See Jos. Gald. A Ryc-KEL in vita S. Begga cum Adnotat. Duaci et Lovanii edita; a work of great bulk and little merit, and full of the most filly and insipid fables.—Those who are no well-wishers to the cause of the Beguines, adopt a quite different account of their origin, which they deduce from LAMBERT LE BEGUE, a priest and native of Liege, who lived in the twelfth century, and was much effeemed on account of his eminent piety. The learned PETER COENS, canon of Antwerp, has defended this opinion with more erudition than any other writer, in his Disquisitio Historica de Origine Beghinarum et Beghinagiorem in Belgio, Leod, 1672, in 12mo. [x] Other historians say, in the year 1207.

CENT. was followed by fo many inflitutions of a like nature KIII. in France, Germany, Holland, and Flanders, that, PART II towards the middle of the thirteenth century, there was fearcely a city of any note, that had not its beguinage, or vineyard, as it was fometimes called in conformity to the style of the Song of Songs [y]. All these female societies were not governed by the fame laws; but, in the greatest part of them, the hours, that were not devoted to prayer, meditation, or other religious exercifes, were employed in weaving, embroidering, and other manual labours of various kinds. The poor, fick, and difabled Beguines were supported by the pious liberality of fuch obulent persons as were friends to the order.

Beghards

XLII. This female inflitution was foon imitated or Lollards. in Flanders by the other fex; and confiderable numbers of unmarried men, both bachelors and widowers, formed themselves into communities of the same kind with those of the Beguines, under the inspection and government of a certain chief, and with the fame religious views and purpofes; still, however, referving to themselves the liberty of returning to their former method of life [z]. These pious persons were, in the style of this age, called Beghards, and by a corruption of that term usual among the Flemish and the Dutch, Bogards; from others they received the denomination of Lollards; in France

> [y] See Matth. Paris, Histor. Major, ad An. 1243 & 1250, p. 540. 696.—THOMAS CANTIFRATENSIS in Bono Universali de Apibus, lib. ii. cap. li. p. 478. edit. Colvenerii.-PETRUS DE HERENTHAL, in his Annals, from which, though they are not yet published, we have a very remarkable passage cited by Jos. GELD. A RYCKEL, in his Observationes ad Vitam S. Beggæ, & exevi. p. 355. The origin and charters of the convents of Beguines, that were founded during this and the following century in Holland and Flanders, are treated in an ample manner by Aub. MIRÆUS, in his Opera Historico-diplomatica, JOHN BAPT. GRAMMAYE, in his Antiquitates Belgica, ANTON. Sanders, in his Brabantia et Flandria illustrata, and by the other writers of Belgic history.

[2] MATTH. PARIS, Hift. Major. ad An. 1253, p. 539, 540.

they were distinguished at first by that of Bons Valets, CERT. or Bons Garçons, and afterwards by that of Begrins: XIII. they were also called the Fraternity of weavers, from PART IL the trade which the greatest part of them exercised. The first society of the Beghards seems to have been that which was established at Antwerp in the year 1228, and continues still in a flourishing state; though the brethren, of whom it is composed, have long fince departed from their primitive rule of discipline and manners. This first establishment of the Beghards was followed by many more in Germany, France, Holland, and Flanders; though, after all their fuccess, their congregations were less numerous than those of the Beguines [a]. It is worthy of observation that the Roman pontiffs never honoured the focieties of the Beghards and Beguines with their folemn or explicit approbation, nor confirmed their establishments by the seal of their authority. They, however, granted them a full toleration, and even defended them often against the stratagems and violence of their enemies, who were many in number. This appears by the edicts in favour of the Beghards, which the pontiffs granted in compliance with the earnest solicitations of many illustrious personages, who wished well to that fociety. It did not however continue always in a flourithing state. The greatest part of the convents, both of the Beghards and Beguines, are now either demolished, or converted to other uses. In Flanders,

[[]a] See Ryckelii Vita S. Begge, p. 635.—Ant. Sinderii Flandria Illustrata, lib. c. nvi. p. 136.—Jo. Bapt. Grammayei Antiquit. Fland. & in Gandavo, p. 22.—Aub. Miræi Opera Diplom. Hift. tom. iii. c. claviii. p. 145.—Helyot, Hift. des Ordres, tom. vii. p. 248, who is, nevertheless, chargeable with many errors—Grrhardus Antonicus, Pater Minister (so the head of the order is called in our times) B. ghardorum sintwerpinssum in Epischa ad Ryckium de Beghardorum origine et saits, in Ryckelii Vita S. Begge, p. 489. This author, indeed, from a spirit of partiality to his order, conceals the truth designedly in various places.

DENT. indeed, a confiderable number of the latter still subsist, NIII. but few of the former are to be found any where.

PART II. XLIII. After the accounts hitherto given of the rulers of the church, and of the monastic and other religious orders that were instituted or became famous during this century, it will not be improper to conclude this chapter by mentioning briefly the Greek and Latin writers, who, during the same period, acquired a name by their learned productions, The most eminent among the Greeks were,

NICETAS ACOMINATUS, who composed a work entitled, The History and Treasure of the Orthodox Faith;

GERMANUS, the Grecian patriarch, of whom we have yet extant, among other productions of lefs note, A Book against the Latins, and An Exposition of the Greek Liturgy;

THEODORUS LASCARIS, who left behind him feveral treatifes upon various fubjects of a religious nature, and who also entered the lists against the Latins, which was the reigning passion among such of the Greeks, as were endowed with any tolerable parts, and were desirous of shewing their zeal for the honour of their nation;

NICEPHORUS BLEMMIDA, who employed his talents in the falutary work of healing the divisions between the Greeks and Latins;

ARSENIUS, whose Synopsis of the Canon Law of the Greeks, is far from being contemptible;

GEORGIUS ACROPOLITA, who acquired a high degree of renown, not only by his historical writings, but also by the transactions and negociations in which he was employed by the emperor MICHAEL;

Johannes Beccus or Veccus, who involved himself in much trouble, and made himself many enemies, by defending the cause of the Latins against his own nation with too much zeal;

GEORGE METOCHITA, and CONSTANTINE MELITENIOTA, who employed, without fuccefs,

their most earnest efforts to bring about a reconcicent. liation between the Greeks and Latins;

GEORGE PACHYMERES, who acquired a name by PART II. his commentary upon DIONYSIUS, the pretended chief of the mystics, and by a history which he composed of his own time; and

GEORGE the Cyprian, whose hatred of the Latins, and warm opposition to Veccus above mentioned, rendered him more famous than all his other pro-

ductions [b].

XLIV. The prodigious number of Latin writers Latin writhat appeared in this century, renders it impossible ters. for us to mention them all; we shall therefore confine our account to those among them, who were the most eminent, and whose theological writings demand most frequently our notice in the course of this history. Such are,

Joachim, abbot of *Flora* in *Calabria*, who, though efteemed on account of his piety and knowledge, was, nevertheless, a man of mean parts and of a weak judgment, full of enthusiastic and visionary notions, and therefore considered, during his life and after his death, by the miserable and blinded multitude, as a prophet sent from above. The pretended prophecies of this silly fanatic are abundantly known, and have been frequently published [c];

STEPHEN LANGTON, archbishop of Canterbury, who wrote commentaries upon the greatest part of

the books of scripture $\lceil d \rceil$;

[b] For a more ample account of these writers, the reader

may confult the Bibliotheca Graca of FABRICIUS.

[c] The life of JOACHIM was written in Italian by GREGORY DI LAURO, and published in 4to at Naples in the year 1660. The first edition of his prophecies was printed at Venice, in the year 1517, and was followed by several new editions, to satisfy the curiosity of the populace, great and small.

[d] Langton was a learned and polite author for the age he lived in. It is to him we are indebted for the division of the Bible into chapters. He wrote Commentaries upon all the

Books of the Old Testament, and upon St. Paul's Epistles.

CENT. FRANCIS, the founder of the famous fociety of XIII. Friars-minors, or Franciscans, whose writings were devout sentiments, but discover little genius, and less judgment;

ALAN DE L'ISLE, a logician, who made no mean figure among the disputatious tribe, who applied himself also to the study of chemistry, and published several moral discourses, in which there are many wise and useful exhortations and precepts [e];

JACOBUS DE VITRIACO, who acquired a name by his Oriental History; and JACOBUS DE VORAGINE; whose History of the Lombards [f] was received

with applause.

The writers of this century, who obtained the greatest renown on account of their laborious researches in, what was called, philosophical or dialectical theology, were Albertus Magnus, Thomas Aquinas, and Bonaventura, who were, each of them, truly possessed of an inquisitive turn of mind, a sublime and penetrating genius, accompanied with an uncommon talent of sounding the most hidden truths, and treating with facility the most abstructe subjects, though they are all chargeable with errors and reveries that do little honour to their memories [g]. The other writers, who trod the

[e] Several of the name of Alan lived in this century, who have been strangely confounded both by ancient and modern writers. See JAQ. LE BOEUF, Memoires sur l'Hist, d'Auxerre, tom. i. p. 300. & Dissert. sur l'Hist. Civil. et Eccles. de Paris, tom. ii. p. 293.

[f] JAC. ECHARDI Scriptor. Domin. tom. i. p. 454.—Bol-

LANDI Pref. ad Ada Sandor. tom. i. p. 9.

[g] For an account of Albert, fee Echard. Script. Dom. tom. i. p. 162.—For an account of Thomas Acuinas, who was called the Angel of the scholastics among other splendid titles, see the Asa Sanstorum, tom. i. Martii, p. 655. & Ant. Turon, Vie de St. Thomas, Paris, 1737, in 4to.—We have also a circumstantial relation of whatever concerns the life, writings, and exploits of Bonaventura, the tutelary saint of the Lionnois in France, in the two sollowing books, viz. Colonia, Histoire

fame intricate paths of metaphysical divinity, were CENT. many in number, and several of them justly admired, XIII. though much inferior in renown to the celebrated PART II. triumvirate now mentioned; such were ALEXANDER DE HALES, the interpreter of ARISTOTLE, WILLIAM of Paris [h], ROBERT CAPITO [i], THOMAS CANTIPRATENSIS, JOHN DE PECKHAM, WILLIAM DURAND, ROGER BACON [h], RICHARD MIDDLETON, ÆGIDIUS DE COLUMNA, ARMAND DE BELLO VISU, and several others.

HUGO DE ST. CARO gained much applause by the Concordance, which he composed, of the Holy Bible

 $\lceil l \rceil$.

GUILLAUME DE ST. AMOUR carried on with great spirit and resolution, but with little success, a literary and theological war against the Mendicant friars, who looked upon begging as a mark of sanctity.

HUMBERT DE ROMANIS drew up a fifteen of rules and precepts, with a view to put under a better regulation the lives and manners of the mona-

stic orders.

Litteraire de la Ville de Lyon, tom. ii. p. 307. and the Histoire de la Vie et du Culte de S. Bonaventure, par un Religiene Cordelier, à Lyon, 1747, in 8vo.

[h] See the Gallia Christiana, published by the Benediclinis,

tom. vii. p. 95.

[i] The learned Anthony Wood has given an ample account of Robert Capito, in his Antiquicat. Oxodienf. tom. i. p. 31.

105.

(F[k] We are surprised to find ROGLE B LON shruth here into a crowd of vulgar I terati, since that great man, whose astonishing genius and universal learning have already been taken notice of, was, in every respect, superior to Albert and Donaventura, two of the heroes of Dr. Moshfiels columnistics.

very learned collection of the various readings of the Hebrew, Greek, and Latin manuscripts of the Bible. This work, which he entitled Correctorium Biblie, is preserved in manuscript in the Sorbonne library. We must not forget to observe also, that his Concordance is the first that ever was compiled.

CENT. Guillelmus Peraldus arose in this century to XIII. the highest degree of literary renown, in consequence of a system of morals he published under the title of Summa Virtutum et Vitiorum [m].

RAYMOND MARTIN yet survives the oblivion that has covered many of his cotemporaries; and his Pugio Fidei, or Sword of Faith, which he drew against the Jews and Saracens, has escaped the ruins of time.

JOHN of PARIS deserves an eminent rank among the glorious defenders of truth, liberty, and justice; since he maintained the authority of the civil powers, and the majesty of kings and princes, against the ambitious stratagems and usurpations of the Roman pontiffs, and declared openly his opposition to the opinion that was commonly adopted with respect to the sacrament of the Lord's supper, and the presence of Christ in that holy ordinance [n].

CHAPTER III.

Concerning the doctrine of the Christian church during this century.

The general flate of the corruptions and fuperstitious abuses were, that had hitherto reigned in the church, and deformed the beautiful simplicity of the gospel, they were

[m] See Colonia, Histoire Litteraire de la Ville de Lyon,

tom. ii. p. 322.

[n] We may learn his opinion concerning the eucharist from his treatise, entitled, *Determinatio de S. Cana*, and published in 8vo. at *London*, by the learned Dr. Alix, in the year 1686.—See also Echardi Scriptor. Dominican. tom. i. p. 501.—Balu-211 Vita Pontif. Avenionens. tom. i. p. 4. 576, 577.

nevertheless increased in this century, instead of CENT. being reformed, and the religion of CHRIST con- XIII. tinued to suffer under the growing tyranny of PART II. fanaticism and superstition. The progress of reason and truth was retarded among the Greeks and Orientals, by their immoderate aversion to the Latins, their blind admiration of whatever bore the stamp of antiquity, the indolence of their bishops, the stupidity of their clergy, and the calamities of the times. Among the Latins, many concurring causes united to augment the darkness of that cloud that had already been cast over the divine lustre of genuine Christianity. On the one hand, the Roman pontiffs could not bear the thoughts of any thing that might have the remotest tendency to diminish their authority, or to encroach upon their prerogatives; and therefore they laboured affiduoully to keep the multitude in the dark, and to blast every attempt that was made towards a reformation in the doctrine or discipline of the church. On the other hand, the school divines, among whom the Dominican and Franciscan monks made the greatest figure on account of their unintelligible jargon and fubility, shed perplexity and darkness over the plain truths of religion by their intricate distinctions and endless divisions, and by that cavilling, quibbling, disputatious spirit, that is the mortal enemy both of truth and virtue. It is true, that these scholastic doctors were not all equally chargeable with corrupting the truth; the most enormous and criminal corrupters of Christianity were those who led the multitude into the two following abominable errors: that it was in the power of man to perform, if he pleafed, a more perfect obedience than God required; and that the whole of religion confifted in an external air of gravity, and in certain composed bodily gestures.

II. It will be easy to confirm this general account New artiof the state of religion by particular facts. In the imposed by
fourth council of the Lateran that was held by Innocentill.

CENT. INNOCENT III. in the year 1215, and at which a XIII. prodigious number of ecclesiastics were assembled PARTHO, that imperious pontiff, without deigning to consult any body, published no less than seventy laws or decrees, by which not only the authority of the popes and the power of the clergy were confirmed and extended, but also new doctrines, or articles of faith, were imposed upon Christians. Hitherto the opinions of the Christian doctors, concerning the manner in which the body and blood of Christ were present in the eucharist, were extremely different; nor had the church determined by any clear and positive decree, the sentiment that was to be embraced in relation to that important matter. It was referved for Innocent to put an end to the liberty, which every Christian had hitherto enjoyed, of interpreting this prefence in the manner he thought most agreeable to the declarations fcripture, and to decide in favour of the most monstrous doctrine that the frenzy of superstition was capable of inventing. This audacious pontiff pro-nounced the opinion, that is embraced at this day in the church of Rome relating to that point, to be the only true and orthodox account of the matter: and he had the honour of introducing and establishing the use of the term Transubstantiation, which was hitherto absolutely unknown $\lceil p \rceil$. The same pontisf placed, by his own authority, among the duties prescribed by the divine laws, that of auricular confession to a priest; a confession that implied not only a general acknowledgment, but also a particular enumeration of the fins and follies of the penitent. Before this period feveral doctors, indeed, looked upon this kind of confession, as a duty inculcated by

^[0] At this council there were present 412 bishops, 800 abbots and priors, besides the ambassiadors of almost all the European princes.

[[]p] Sce Edm. Albertinus, De Euchariflia, lib. iii. p. 972.

divine authority; but this opinion was not publicly cent. received as the doctrine of the church. For though xiii. the confession of sins was justly looked upon as an Parrill essential duty, yet it was left to every Christian's choice, to make this confession mentally to the Supreme Being, or to express it in words to a spiritual confident and director [q]. These two laws, which, by the authority of Innocent, were received as laws of God, and adopted, of consequence, as laws of the church, occasioned a multitude of new injunctions and rites, of which not even the smallest traces are to be found in the facred writings, or in the apostolic and primitive ages, and which were much more adapted to establish and extend the reign of superstition, than to open the eyes of the blinded multitude upon the enormous abuses of which it had been the source.

III. There is nothing that will contribute more to The fest o convince us of the miferable state of religion in this the Flagel-century, and of the frenzy that almost generally whippers. prevailed in the devotion of these unhappy times, than the rife of the fect called Flagellantes, or Whippers, which fprung up in Italy in the year 1260, and was propagated from thence through almost all the countries of Europe. The focieties that embraced this new discipline, presented the most hideous and shocking spectacle that can well be conceived; they ran in multitudes, composed of persons of both sexes, and of all ranks and ages, through the public places of the most populous cities, and also through the fields and defarts, with whips in their hands, lashing their naked bodies with the most astonishing severity, filling the air with their wild shrieks, and beholding the firmament with an air of distraction, ferocity, and horror; and all this with a view to obtain the divine mercy for themselves, and others, by their

^[7] See the book of the learned DAILLE, concerning Auricular Confession.

CENT. voluntary mortification and penance $\lceil r \rceil$. This method of appealing the Deity was perfectly con-XIII. PART II. formable to the notions concerning religion that generally prevailed in this century; nor did these fanatical Whippers do any thing more, in this extravagant discipline, than practise the lessons they had received from the monks, especially from those of the Mendicant orders. Hence they attracted the esteem and veneration not only of the populace, but also of their rulers, and were honoured and revered by all ranks and orders, on account of their extraordinary fanctity and virtue. Their fect, however, did not continue always in the fame high degree of credit and reputation; for though the primitive Whippers were exemplary in point of morals, yet their focieties were augmented, as might naturally be expected, by a turbulent and furious rabble, many of whom were infected with the most ridiculous and impious opinions. Hence both the emperors and pontiffs thought proper to put an end to this religious frenzy, by declaring all devout whipping contrary to the divine law, and prejudicial to the

The method IV. The Christian interpreters and commentators of of this century differ very little from those of the preing and explaining the ceding times. The greatest part of them pretended for to draw from the depths of truth (or rather of their little altered in this centimaginations) what they called the Internal juice and marrow of the scriptures, i. e. their hidden and mysterious sense; and this they did with so little dexterity, so little plausibility and invention, that the most of their explications must appear insipid and nauseous to such as are not entirely destitute of

foul's eternal interests.

[r] Christ. Schotgenii Historia Flagellantium.—Jaques Boileau, Histoire des Flagellans, chap. ix. p. 253. We have also a lively picture of this fanatical discipline of the Whippers, exhibited in Mautene's Voyage Literaire de deux Benedictins, tom. ii. p. 105. with which the reader may compare Muratori Antiq. Ital. medii avi, tom. vi. p. 469.

judgment and taste. If our readers be desirous of CENT. a proof of the justice of this censure, or curious to XIII. try the extent of their patience, they have only to PART II. peruse the explications that have been given by archbishop Langton, Hugh de St. Cher, and Antony of Padua, of the various books of the Old and New Testament. The Mystic doctors carried this visionary method of interpreting scripture to the greatest height, and displayed the most laborious industry, or rather the most egregious folly, in fearching for mysteries, where reason and common fense could find nothing but plain and evident truths. They were too penetrating and quick-fighted not to perceive clearly in the holy scriptures all those doctrines that were agreeable to their idle and fantastic system. Nor were their adversaries, the schoolmen, entirely averse to this arbitrary and fanciful manner of interpretation; though their principal industry was employed rather in collecting the explications given by the ancient doctors, than in inventing new ones, as appears from the writings of ALEXANDER HALES, GUILIELMUS ALVERNUS, and Thomas Aquinas himself. We must not, however, omit observing, that the scholastic doctors in general, and more especially these now mentioned, had recourse often to the subtilties of logic and metaphysic, to affist them in their explications of the facred writings. To facilitate the study and interpretation of these divine books, Hugh DE ST. CHER composed his Concordance [s], and the Dominicans, under the eye of their supreme chief, the learned JORDAN, gave a new edition of the Latin translation of the Bible, carefully revised and corrected from the ancient copies [t]. The Greeks contributed nothing that deferves attention towards the illustration of the

[t] RICH SIMON, Gritique de la Bibliotheque des Auteu. Eccles. par M. Du Pin.

[[]s] See Echardi Scriptor. Ord. Prædicator. tom. i. p. 194. [t] Rich Simon, Critique de la Bibliotheque des Auteurs

ENT. Holy Scriptures; the greatest part of which were expounded with great learning by Gregory Abul-Part II. Pharaius, that celebrated Syrian, whose erudition was famous throughout all the east, and whom we have already had occasion to mention in the course of this history [u].

The ftate of the didactic theology.

V. Systems of theology and morals were multiplied exceedingly in this century; and the number of those writers, who treated of the divine perfections and worship, and of the practical rules of virtue and obedience, is too great to permit our mentioning them particularly. All fuch as were endowed with any confiderable degree of genius and eloquence employed their labours upon these noble branches of facred science, more especially the academical and public teachers, among whom the Dominicans and Franciscans held the most eminent rank. It is, indeed, neither necessary to mention the names, nor to enumerate the productions of these doctors, since whoever is acquainted with the characters and writings of ALBERT the Great and THOMAS AQUINAS, will know every thing that is worthy of note in the rest, who were no more than their echos. The latter of these two truly great men, who is commonly called the Angel of the schools or the Angelic Doctor, fat unrivalled at the head of the divines of this century, and defervedly obtained the principal place among those who digested the doctrines of Christianity into a regular fystem, and illustrated and explained them in a scientific manner. For no fooner had his system or fum of theology and morals feen the light, than it was received univerfally with the highest applause, placed in the fame rank with the famous Book of Sentences of PETER LOMBARD, and admitted as the standard of truth and the great rule according to which the public teachers formed their plans of instruction, and

[[]u] Jos. Sim. Assemanni Liblioth. Orient. Vatican. tom. ii. p. 277.

the youth their method of study. Certain writers, CENT. indeed, have denied that Thomas was the author XIII of the celebrated system that bears his name [w]; PART II. but the reasons they allege in support of this notion are utterly destitute of evidence and solidity [x].

VI. The greatest part of these doctors followed the scho-ARISTOTLE as their model, and made use of the logi-lastic doc-cal and metaphysical principles of that subtile philo-most part, fopher, in illustrating the doctrines of Christianity Realights *. and removing the difficulties with which some of them were attended. In their philosophical explications of the more fublime truths of that divine religion they followed the hypothesis of the Realists, which fect, in this century, was much more numerous and flourishing than that of the Nominalists, on account of the lustre and credit it derived from the authority of Thomas Aquinas and Albert, its learned and venerable patrons. Yet notwithstanding all the fubtilty and penetration of these irrefragable, feraphic, and angelic doctors, as they were commonly styled, they often appeared wifer in their own conceit than they were in reality, and frequently did little more than involve in greater obscurity the doctrines which they pretended to place in the clearest light. For, not to mention the ridiculous oddity of many of their expressions, the hideous barbarity of their style, and their extravagant and presumptuous desire of prying into matters that infinitely furpass the comprehension of short-sighted

[w] See Jo. LAUNOII Traditio Ecclesia circa Simoniam, p.

[[]N] See NATALIS ALEXANDER, Histor. Eccles. Sec. xiii. p. 391.—Echard and Quetif, Scriptor. Ordin. Predicator. Sec. xiii. tom. i. p. 293.—Ant. Touron, Vie de St. Thomas, p. 604.

In the original we find Positivi in the margin, which is manifestly a fault; since the Positivi were quite opposite, in their method of teaching, to the schoolmen, and were the same with Biblici mentioned in the following section. See above, Cent. XII. Part II. Ch. III. § VIII.

CENT. mortals, they were chargeable with defects in their manner of reasoning, which every true philosopher PART II. will, of all others, be most careful to avoid. For they neither defined their terms accurately, and hence arose innumerable disputes merely about words; nor did they divide their subject with perfpicuity and precision, and hence they generally treated it in a confused and unsatisfactory manner. The great Angelic Doctor himself, notwithstanding his boasted method, was defective in these respects; his definitions are often vague, or obscure, and his plans or divisions, though full of art, are frequently-

destitute of clearness and proportion.

The numpilers, or Biblicifts *, greatly diminished.

VII. The method of investigating divine truth ber of com- by reason and philosophy prevailed universally, and was followed with fuel ardour, that the number of those, who, in conformity with the example of the ancient doctors, drew their fystems of theology from the holy scriptures and the writings of the fathers, and who acquired on that account the name of Biblicifts, diminished from day to day. It is true indeed, that feveral persons of eminent piety [y], and even fome of the Roman pontiffs [z], exhorted with

> * In the margin of the original, instead of Biblicifle, which we find in the text, Dr. Mosueim has wrote Sententiarii, which is undoubtedly an overfight. The Sententiarii, or followers of Peter Lombard, who is confidered as the father of the scholastic philosophy, are to be placed in the same class with the philosophical divines, mentioned in the preceding section, and were quite opposite to the Biblici, both in their manner of thinking and teaching. See above, Cent. XII. Part II. Ch. III. & VIII.

[y] See Du Boulay, Hift. Acad. Parif. tom. iii. p. 9. 129. 180 .- Ant. Wood, Antiqq. Oxonienf. tom. i. p. 91, 92. 94.

[2] See the famous epillle of GREGORY IX. to the professors in the univerfity of $\it Paris$, published in ${
m Dv}$ Boulay's $\it Hifter.$ Acad. Parif. tom. iii. p. 129. The pontiff concludes that remarkable epistle with the following words: Mandamus et stricte pracipinus, quaterus fine fermento mundana feientia, doccatis Theologicam puritatem non adulterantes verbum Dei Philosophorum figmentis . . . sed contenti terminis a patribus institutis mentes auditorum vestrorum fructu calefiis cloquii faginetis, ut hauriant a fontibus falvatoris.

great feriousness and warmth the fcholastic divines, CENT. and more especially those of the university of Paris, x_{111} . to change their method of teaching theology, and, P_{ART} 11. laying afide their philosophical abstraction and subtilty, to deduce the fublime science of salvation from the holy scriptures with that purity and simplicity with which it was there delivered by the inspired writers. But these admonitions and exhortations were without effect; the evil was become too inveterate to admit of a remedy, and the passion for logic and metaphysic was grown so universal and so violent, that neither remonstrances nor arguments could check its prefumption, or allay its ardour. In justice however to the scholastic doctors, it is necessary to observe, that they did not neglect the dictates of the gospel, nor the authority of tradition; though what they drew from these two sources proves sufficiently that they had studied neither with much attention or application of mind [a]. And it is moreover certain, that, in process of time, they committed to others the care of confulting the fources now mentioned, and referved to themselves the much-refpected province of philosophy, and the intricate mazes of dialectical chicane. And, indeed, independent of their philosophical vanity, we may affign another reason for this method of proceeding, drawn from the nature of their profession, and the circumstances in which they were placed. For the greatest part of these subtile doctors were Dominican or Franciscan friars; and as the monks of these Orders had no possessions, not even libraries, and led, besides, wandering and itinerant lives, fuch of them as were ambitious of literary fame, and of the honours of authorship, were, for the most part, obliged to

[[]a] FAYDIT, Alteration du Dogme Theologique par la Philofophie d'Aristote, p. 289.—RICHARD SIMON, Critique de la Bibliotheque des Auteurs Eccles. par M. Du Pin, tom. i. p. 170, 187.

CENT. draw their materials from their own genius and memory, being destitute of all other succours. XIII.

Равт 11. Much opposition fcholaftic doctors.

VIII. The opinions which these philosophical divines instilled into the minds of the youth, appeared to the votaries of the ancient fathers highly danmide to the gerous and even pernicious; and hence they used their utmost efforts to stop the progress of these opinions, and to diminish the credit and influence of their authors. Nor was their opposition at all ill-grounded; for the fubtile doctors of the school not only explained the mysteries of religion in a manner conformable to the principles of their prefumptuous logic, and modified them according to the dictates of their imperfect reason, but also propagated the most impious sentiments and tenets concerning the Supreme Being, the material world, the origin of the universe, and the nature of the soul. And when it was objected to these sentiments and tenets, that they were in direct contradiction to the genius of Christianity, and to the express doctrines of scripture, these scholastic quibblers had recourse, for a reply, or rather for a method of escape, to that perfidious distinction, which has been frequently employed by modern deifts, that these tenets were philosophically true, and conformable to right reason, but that they were, indeed, theologically false, and contrary to the orthodox faith. This kindled an open war between the Biblicists, or Bible-divines, and the scholastic doctors, which was carried on with great warmth throughout the whole course of this century, particularly in the universities of Oxford and Paris, where we find the former loading the latter with the heaviest reproaches in their public acts and in their polemic writings, and accusing them of corrupting the doctrines of the gospel both in their public lessons and in their private discourse $\lceil b \rceil$.

[[]b] See Matth. Paris, Hiftor. Major, p. 541.—Boulay, Hift. Acad. Parif. tom. iii. p. 397. 430. 433. 472, &c.

Even St. Thomas himself was accused of holding cent. opinions contrary to the truth; his orthodoxy, at xiii. least, was looked upon as extremely dubious by Part II. many of the Parisian doctors [c]. He accordingly saw a formidable scene of opposition arising against him, but had the good fortune to conjure the storm, and to escape untouched. Others, whose authority was less extensive and their names less respectable, were treated with more severity. The living were obliged to confess publicly their errors; and the dead, who had persevered in them to the last, had their memories branded with infamy.

IX. But the most formidable adversaries the The Mystfcholastic doctors had to encounter, were the Mystics, tics oppose who, rejecting every thing that had the least resemmen. blance of argumentation or dispute about matters of doctrine and opinion, confined their endeavours to the advancement of inward piety, and the propagation of devout and tender feelings, and thus acquired the highest degree of popularity. The people, who are much more affected with what touches their passions, than with what is only addressed to their reason, were attached to the $M_{y/tics}$ in the warmest manner; and this gave fuch weight to the reproaches and invectives which they threw out against the school-men, that the latter thought it more prudent to difarm these favourites of the multitude by mild and fubmissive measures, than to return their reproaches with indignation and bitterness. accordingly fet themselves to flatter the Mystics, and not only extolled their fentimental system, but employed their pens in illustrating and defending it; nay, they affociated it with the scholastic philosophy, though they were as different from each other as

[[]c] See Jo. Launoii Histor. Gymnas. Navarreni, part III. lib. iii. cap. cxvi. tom. iv. opp. part I. p. 485.—Boulay, Histor. Acad. Paris. tom. iv. p. 204.—Petri Zornii Opuscula Sacra, tom. i. p. 445.—R. Simon, Lettres Choisies, tom. ii. p. 266.—Echardi Scriptor. Ordin. Pradicator. tom. i. p. 435.

That Bonaventura, Albert the Great, Robert Part II. Capito, and Thomas Aquinas contributed to this reconciliation between Myfticism and Dialectics by their learned labours, and even went so far as to write commentaries upon Dionysius, the chief of the Mystics, whom these subtile doctors probably looked upon with a secret contempt.

The state of Christian morality.

X. Both the school-men and Mystics of this century treated, in their writings, of the obligations of morality, the duties of the Christian life, and of the means that were most adapted to preserve or deliver the foul from the fervitude and contagion of vice; but their methods of handling these important subjects were, as may be easily conceived, entirely different. We may form an idea of mystical morality from the Observations of George Pachymeres, upon the writings of Dionysius, and from the Spiritual Institutes, or Abridgment of Mystic Theology, composed by HUMBERT DE ROMANIS, of which productions the first was written in Greek and the second in Latin. As to the scholastic moralists, they were principally employed in defining the nature of virtue and vice in general, and the characters of the various virtues and vices in particular; and hence the prodigious number of fums, or systematical collections, of virtues and vices, that appeared in this century. The school-men divided the virtues into two classes. The first comprehended the moral virtues, which differ, in no respect, from those which ARISTOTLE recommended to his disciples. The second contained the theological virtues, which, in confequence of what St. PAUL fays, I Corinth. xiii. 13. they made to confift in Faith, Hope, and Charity. In explaining and illustrating the nature of the virtues comprehended in these two classes, they seemed rather to have in view the pleafure of disputing than the defign of instructing; and they exhausted all their subtilty in resolving difficulties which were of their

own creation. Thomas Aquinas shone forth as a cent. star of the sirst magnitude, though, like the others, xiii. he was often covered with impenetrable fogs. The Part II. second part of his famous fum was wholly employed in laying down the principles of morality, and in deducing and illustrating the various duties that result from them; and this part of his learned labours has had the honour and misfortune of passing through the hands of a truly prodigious number of commentators.

XI. It is absolutely necessary to observe here, that An importhe moral writers of this and the following centuries tant remarks must be read with the utmost caution; and with a the manner perpetual attention to this circumstance, that, of treating though they employ the same terms that we find in this centhe facred writings, yet they use them in a quite tury. different fense from that which they bear in these divine books. They speak of justice, charity, faith, and holiness; but as these virtues are illustrated by these quibbling sophists, they disser much from the amiable and fublime duties, which CHRIST and his disciples have inculcated under the same denominations. A fingle example will be fufficient to render this evident beyond contradiction. A pious and holy man, according to the fense annexed by our Saviour to these terms, is one, who consecrates his affections and actions to the fervice of the Supreme Being, and accounts it his highest honour and felicity, as well as his indispensable duty, to obey his laws. But, in the style of the moral writers of this age, he was a pious and holy man, who deprived himfelf of his possessions to enrich the priesthood, to build churches and found monasteries, and whose faith and obedience were fo implicitly enflaved to the imperious dictates of the Roman pontiffs, that he believed and acted without examination, as these lordly directors thought proper to prescribe. Nor were the ideas which these writers entertained concerning justice, at all conformable to the nature of

CENT. that virtue, as it is described in the holy scriptures; XIII. since in their opinion it was lawful to injure, revile, PART II torment, persecute, and even to put to death, a Heretic, i. e. any person who resused to obey blindly the decrees of the pontiss, or to believe all the absurdities which they imposed upon the credulity of the multitude.

The flate of polemic or controver-fial theology.

XII. The writers of controversy in this century were more numerous than respectable. NICETAS Acominatus, who made a confiderable figure among the Greeks, attacked all the different fects in his work entitled, The Treasure of the Orthodox Faith; but he combated after the Grecian manner, and defended the cause he undertook to maintain, rather by the decrees of councils, and the decisions of the fathers, than by the dictates of reason and the authority of scripture. RAYMOND of-PENNA-FORT was one of the first among the Latins, who abandoned the unchristian method of converting infidels by the force of arms and the terrors of capital punishments, and who undertook to vanquish the Jews and Saracens by reason and argument $\lceil d \rceil$. This engaged in the fame controversy a considerable number of able disputants, who were acquainted with the Hebrew and Arabic languages; among whom RAYMOND MARTIN, the celebrated author of the Sword of Faith $\lceil e \rceil$, is unquestionably entitled to the first rank. Thomas Aquinas also appeared with dignity among the Christian champions; and his book against the Gentiles [f] is far from being contemptible: nor ought we to omit mentioning a learned work of ALAN DE L'ISLE, which was defigned to refute the objections of both Jews and

[[]d] Echard et Quetif in Scriptoribus Ordinis Pradicator. tom. i. § xiii. p. 106.

[[]e] BAYLE's Dictionary, at the article MARTINI.—PAULI COLOMESII Hispania Orient. p. 209.

[[]f] Jo. Alb. Fabricius, Delect. Argumentorum et Scriptor. pro veritate Relig. Christian. p. 270.

Pagans [g]. The writers, who handled other more CENT. particular branches of theological controversy, were XIII. far inferior to these now mentioned in genius and PART II. abilities; and their works seemed less calculated to promote the truth, than to render their adversaries odious.

XIII. The grand controverfy between the Greek The controand Latin church was still carried on; and all the verfy beefforts that were made, during this century, to bring tween the Greeks and it to a conclusion, one way or another, proved Latins conineffectual. GREGORY IX. employed the ministry tinued. of the Franciscan monks to bring about an accommodation with the Greeks, and purfued with zeal this laudable purpose from the year 1232 to the end of his pontificate, but without the least appearance of fuccess $\lceil h \rceil$. Innocent IV. embarked in the fame undertaking in the year 1247, and fent John of PARMA, with other Franciscan friars, to Nice for the same purpose; while the Grecian pontiff came in person to Rome, and was declared legate of the Apostolic see [i]. But these previous acts of mutual civility and respect, which could not but excite the hopes of fuch as longed for the conclusion of these unhappy discords, did not terminate in the reconciliation that was expected. New incidents arose to blast the influence of these salutary measures, and the flame of diffension recovered new vigour. Under the pontificate of URBAN IV. the aspect of things changed for the better, and the negociations for peace were renewed with fuch fuccefs, as promifed a speedy conclusion of these unhappy divisions. For MICHAEL PALÆOLOGUS had no fooner driven the Latins out of Constantinople, than he sent ambassadors

[g] Liber contra Judaos et Paganos.

[[]b] See Wadding. Annal. Minor. tom. ii. p. 279. 296 & ECHARD, Scriptor. Ordin. Pradicator. tom. i. p. 103. 911.—Add to these Matth. Paris, Histor. Major. p. 386.

[[]i] See Baluzii Miscellan. tom. vii. p. 370. 388. 393. 397. 497, 498.—Wadding. Annal. Minor. tom. iii. & iv. p. 37. Vol. III. K k

CENT. to Rome to declare his pacific intentions, that thus

XIII.

he might establish his disputed dominion, and gain PART II over the Roman pontiff to his fide $\lceil k \rceil$. But, during the course of these negociations, URBAN's death left matters unfinished, and suspended once more the hopes and expectations of the public. Under the pontificate of GREGORY X. proposals of peace were again made by the same emperor, who, after much opposition from his own clergy, sent ambassadors to the council that was affembled at Lions in the year 1274 [1], and there, with the folemn confent of JOHN VECCUS, patriarch of Constantinople, and several Greek bishops, publicly agreed to the terms of accommodation proposed by the Roman pontist $\lceil m \rceil$. This re-union, however, was not durable; for the fituation of affairs in Greece and Italy being changed fome years after this convention, and that in fuch a manner as to deliver the former from all apprehensions of a Latin invasion, Andronicus, the fon of MICHAEL, affembled a council at Constantinople in the palace of Blacherna, A. D. 1284, in which, by a folemn decree, this ignominious treaty

[[]k] WADDING. Annal. Minor. tom. iv. p. 181. 201. 223. 269. 303.

^[1] See WADDING. Annal. Minor. tom. iv. p. 343. 371. tom. v. p. 9. 29. 62.—Colonia, Hist. Litter. de la Ville de Lyon, tom. ii. p. 284.

[[]m] Joseph, and not Veccus, was patriarch of Constantinople, when this treaty was concluded. The former had bound himself by a solemn oath never to consent to a reconciliation, between the Greek and Latin churches; for which reason the emperor, when he fent his ambaffadors to Lions, proposed to JOSEPH the following alternative: that, if they succeeded in bringing about an accommodation, he should renounce his patriarchal dignity; but, if they failed in their attempt, he was to remain patriarch, advising him, at the same time, to retire to a convent, until the matter was decided. The ambaffador fucceeded, Joseph was deposed, and Veccus elected in his place; when, and not before, this latter ratified the treaty in question by his folemn confent to the ignominious article of fupremacy and pre-eminence, which it confirmed to the Roman pontiff.

was declared entirely null, and the famous Veccus, CENT. by whose perfuasion and authority it had been con- xIII. cluded, was fent into exile [n]. This resolute P_{ART} II. measure, as may well be imagined, rendered the divisions more violent than they had been before the treaty now mentioned; and it was also followed by an open schism, and by the most unhappy discords among the Grecian clergy.

XIV. We pass over several controversies of a The dismore private kind and of inferior moment, which putes conhave nothing in their nature or circumstances that presence of

deserves the attention of the curious; but we must Christ's body in the not forget to observe that the grand dispute con-eucharist cerning the eucharist was still continued in this continued. century, not only in France, but also in feveral other places. For though INNOCENT III. had, in the council held at the Lateran in the year 1215, prefumptuously taken upon him to place Transubstantiation among the avowed doctrines of the Latin church, yet the authority of this decree was called in question by many, and several divines had the courage to maintain the probability of the opinions that were opposed to that monstrous doctrine. Those who, adopting the sentiments of BERENGER, confidered the bread and wine in no other light, than as figns or fymbols of the body and blood of Christ, did not venture either to defend or profess this opinion in a public manner. Many, also, thought it fufficient to acknowledge, what was termed a real presence, though they explained the manner of this presence quite otherwise than the doctrine of Innoсент had defined it [o]. Among these John, furnamed Pungens Asinus, a fubtile doctor of the

[[]n] LEO ALLATIUS de perpetua conscussione Ecctef. Orient, et Occident. lib. ii. c. xv, xvi. p. 727. - FRED. SPANHEIM de perpet. dissensione Gracor. et Latin. tom. ii. opp. p. 488, &c.

^[0] PET. ALLIX. Pref. ad F. Johannis Determinate de Sacramento Altaris, published at London in 8vo, in the year 1686.

CENT. university of *Paris*, acquired an eminent and distin-XIII. guished name, and, without incurring the censure PART III of his superiors, substituted *Consubstantiation* in the place of *Transubstantiation* towards the conclusion of this century [p].

CHAPTER IV.

Concerning the rites and ceremonies used in the church during this century.

Rites mul-

I. IT would be endless to enumerate the additions that were made in this century to the external part of divine worship, in order to increase its pomp and render it more striking. These additions were owing partly to the public edicts of the Roman pontiffs, and partly to the private injunctions of the Sacerdotal and Monastic orders, who shared the veneration which was excited in the multitude by the splendor and magnificence of this religious spectacle. Instead of mentioning these additions, we shall only observe in general, that religion was now become a fort of a raree-show in the hands of the rulers of the church, who, to render its impresfions more deep and lasting, thought proper to exhibit it in a striking manner to the external senses. For this purpose, at certain stated times, and especially upon the more illustrious festivals, the miraculous dispensations of the divine wisdom in favour of the church, and the more remarkable events in the

[[]p] The book of this celebrated doctor was published by the learned Albix abovementioned. See Baluzii Vita Pontif. Avenion. tom. i. p. 576.—Dacherii Spicileg. Veter. Scriptor. tom. iii. p. 58.—Echardi Scriptores Dominicani, tom. i. p. 561.

Christian history, were represented under certain CENT. allegorical figures and images, or rather in a kind of XIII. mimic shew [q]. But these scenic representations, PART IL in which there was a motley mixture of mirth and gravity, these tragi-comical spectacles, though they amused and affected in a certain manner the gazing populace, were highly detrimental, instead of being useful, to the cause of religion; they degraded its dignity, and surnished abundant matter of laughter to its enemies.

II. It will not appear furprifing that the bread, The rites confecrated in the facrament of the Lord's fupper, relation to became the object of religious worship; for this the euchawas the natural consequence of the monstrous rist. doctrine of Transubstantiation. But the effects of that impious and ridiculous doctrine did not end here; it produced all that train of ceremonies and institutions that are still used in the church of Rome in honour of that deisied bread, as they blasphemously call it. Hence those rich and splendid receptacles, that were formed for the residence of God under this new shape [r], and the lamps and other precious ornaments that were designed to beautify this habitation of the Deity. And hence the custom that still prevails, of carrying about this divine bread

[q] It is probable enough, that this licentious custom of exhibiting mimic representations of religious objects derived its origin from the Mendicant friars.

This blashemous language, which Dr. Mosheim is obliged to use in representing the absurdaties of the doctrine of Transubstantiation, is nothing in comparison with the impious figures that were made use of by the abettors of that monstrous tenet to accommodate it, in some measure, to the capacities of the multitude. We need not wonder, that the Pagans metamorphosed their Jupiter into a bull, a swan, and other such figures, when we see the rulers of the Christian church transforming the Son of God into a piece of bread; a transformation so vile, and, even were it not vile, so useless, that it is inconceivable how it could enter into the head of any mortal, and equally so, how the bishops of Rome could conside so far in the credulity of the people as to risk their authority by propagating such a doctrine.

CENT. in folemn pomp through the public streets, when XIII. it is to be administered to sick or dying persons, with PART. II. many other ceremonies of a like nature, which are dishonourable to religion, and opprobrious to humanity. But that which gave the finishing touch to this heap of abfurdities, and displayed superstition in its highest extravagance, was the institution of the celebrated annual Festival of the Holy Sacrament, or, as it is fometimes called, of the body of Christ, whose origin was as follows: A certain devout woman, whose name was Juliana, and who lived at Liege, declared that she had received a revelation from heaven, intimating to her, that it was the will of God, that a peculiar festival should be annually observed in honour of the holy facrament, or rather of the real presence of Christ's body in that sacred institution. Few gave attention or credit to this pretended vision, whose circumstances were extremely equivocal and abfurd [s], and which would have come to nothing, had it not been supported by ROBERT, bishop of Liege, who, in the year 1246, published an order for the celebration of this festival throughout the whole province, notwithstanding the opposition which he knew would be made to a proposal founded only on an idle dream. death of Juliana, one of her friends and companions, whose name was Eve, took up her cause with uncommon zeal, and had credit enough with URBAN IV. to engage him to publish, in the year 1264, a folemn edict, by which the festival in question was imposed upon all the Christian churches, without exception. This edict, however, did not produce

This fanatical woman declared, that as often as she addressed herself to God, or to the saints in prayer, she saw the full moon with a small defect or breach in it; and that, having long studied to find out the signification of this strange appearance, she was inwardly informed by the spirit, that the moon signified the church, and that the defect or breach was the want of an annual session of the holy sacrament.

its full and proper effect, on account of the death CENT. of the pontiff, which happened soon after its publi- XIII. cation; so that the festival under consideration was PART IL not celebrated universally throughout the Latin churches before the pontificate of CLEMENT V. [t], who, in the council, held at Vienne in France, in the year 1311, confirmed the edict of URBAN, and thus, in spite of all opposition, established a festival, which contributed more to render the doctrine of translubstantiation agreeable to the people, than the decree of the council of the Lateran under INNOCENT III. or than all the exhortations of his lordly successors.

III. About the conclusion of this century, Boni-The year of FACE VIII. added to the public rites and ceremonies jubilee adof the church, the famous jubilee, which is still rites of the celebrated at Rome, at a stated period, with the church. utmost profusion of pomp and magnificence. In the year 1299, a rumour was spread abroad among the inhabitants of that city, that all fuch as vifited, within the limits of the following year, the church of St. Peter, should obtain the remission of all their fins, and that this privilege was to be annexed to the performance of the same service once every hundred years. Boniface no fooner heard of this, than he ordered strict enquiry to be made concerning the author and the foundation of this report, and the refult of this inquiry was answerable to his views; for he was assured, by many testimonies worthy of credit $\lceil u \rceil$, (fay the Roman-catholic historians) that,

[[]t] See Barthol. Fisen. Origo prima Festi Corporis Christi ex Viso Sancta Virginis Juliana oblato, published in 8vo at Liege, in the year 1619.—Dallaus, De cultus religiosi objecto, p. 287.—Ada Sanctor. April. tom. i. p. 437. 903.—And above all Benedict. Pont. Max. de Festis Christi et Maria, lib. i. c. xiii. p. 360. tom. x. opp.

[[]u] These Testimonies worthy of credit have never been produced by the Romish writers, unless we rank in that class, that of an old man, who had completed his 107th year, and

TIII. of remission and indulgence was to be obtained by PARTII the services above-mentioned. No sooner had the pontiff received this information than he issued out an epistolary mandate addressed to all Christians, in which he enacted it as a solemn law of the church, that those who, every hundredth or jubilee year, confessed their sins, and visited, with sentiments of contrition and repentance the churches of St. Peter and St. Paul at Rome, should obtain thereby the entire remission of their various offences [w]. The successors of Boniface were not satisfied with adding

who, being brought before Boniface VIII. declared (if we may believe the Abbé Fleury) that his father, who was a common labourer, had affifted at the celebration of a jubilee, an hundred years before that time. See Fleury Hift. Ecclef. towards the end of the twelfth century. It is, however, a very unaccountable thing, if the inflitution of the jubilee year was not the invention of Boniface, that there should be neither in the acts of councils, nor in the records of history, nor in the writings of the learned, any trace, or the least mention of its celebration before the year 1300; this, with other reasons of an irresistible evidence, have persuaded some Roman-catholic writers to consider the institution of the jubilee year, as the invention of this pontiff, who, to render it more respectable, pretended it was of a much earlier date. See Ghilen. & Victorell. apud Bonann Numism. Pontif. Rom. tom. i. p. 22, 23.

[w] So the matter is related by James Cajetan, cardinal of St. George, and nephew to Boniface, in his Relatio de Centesimo seu Jubilæo anno, which is published in his Magna Bibliotheca Vet. Patrum, tom. vi. p. 426. 440. and in the Bibliotheca Maxima Patrum, tom. xxv. p. 267. Nor is there any reason to believe that this account is erroneous and salse, nor that Boniface acted the part of an impostor, from a principle of avarice, upon this occasion.

MOSHEIM deciding in this manner with respect to the good faith of Boniface and the relation of his nephew. The character of that wicked and ambitious pontiff is well known, and the relation of the cardinal of St. George has been proved to be the most ridiculous, fabulous, motley piece of stuff that ever usurped the title of an historical record. See the excellent Lettres de M. Chais sur les Jubilés (that are mentioned more at large in the following note), tom. i. p. 53.

a multitude of new rites and inventions, by way of CENT. ornaments, to this superstitious institution; but, XIII. finding by experience that it added to the lustre and PART II. augmented the revenues of the Roman church, they rendered its return more frequent, and fixed its celebration to every five and twentieth year [x].

[x] The various writers, who have treated of the institution of the Roman jubilee, are enumerated by Jo. Albert Fabricius in his Bibliogr. Antiquar. p. 316. Among the Authors that may be added to this list, there is one whom we think it necessary to mention particularly, viz. the Reverend Charles Chais, whose Lettres Historiques et Dogmatiques sur les Jubilés et des Indulgences, were published at the Hague in three volumes 8vo. in the year

1751.

These letters of Mr. CHAIS (minister of the French church at the Hague, and well known in the Republic of Letters) contain the most full and accurate account that has been ever given of the institution of the jubilee, and of the rife, progress, abuses, and enormities of the infamous traffic of indulgences. This account is judiciously collected from the best authors of antiquity, and from feveral curious records that have escaped the researches of other writers; it is also interspersed with curious, and sometimes ludicrows anecdotes, that render the work equally productive of entertainment and instruction. In the first volume of these Letters, the learned author lays open the nature and origin of the institution of the jubilee; he proves it to have been a human invention, which owed its rife to the avarice and ambition of the popes, and its credit to the ignorance and superstition of the people, and whose celebration was absolutely unknown before the thirteenth century, which is the true date of its origin. takes notice of the various changes it underwent with respect to the time of its celebration, the various colours with which the ambitious pontiffs covered it in order to render it respectable and alluring in the eyes of the multitude; and exposes these illusions by many convincing arguments, whose gravity is seasoned with an agreeable and temperate mixture of decent raillery. He proves, with the utmost evidence, that the papal jubilee is an imitation of the Secular Games, that were celebrated with such pomp in Pagan Rome. He points out the gross contradictions that reign in the bulls of the different popes, with respect to the nature of this institution and the time of its celebration. does he pass over in silence the infamous trassic of indulgences, the worldly pomp and splendour, the crimes, debaueherics, and diforders of every kind, that were observable at the return of each jubilee year. He lays also before the reader an historical

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CHAPTER V.

Concerning the divisions and herefics that troubled the church during this century.

I. WE have no account of any new fects CENT. that arose among the Greeks during this century. XIII. PART II. Those of the Nestorians and Jacobites, which were fettled in the remoter regions of the east, and who Neitorians equalled the Greeks in their aversion to the rites and and Jacojurisdiction of the Latin church, were frequently bites. folicited, by the ministry of Franciscan and Dominican missionaries fent among them by the popes, to receive the Roman yoke. In the year 1246, Inno-CENT IV. used his utmost efforts to bring both these fects under his dominion; and in the year 1278, terms of accommodation were proposed by NICOLAS IV. to the Nestorians, and particularly to that branch of the fect which refided in the Northern parts of Asia [y]. The leading men both among the Nestorians and Jacobites seemed to give ear to the propofals that were made to them, and were by no means averse to a reconciliation with the church of

view of all the jubilees that were celebrated from the pontificate of Boniface VIII. in the year 1300, to that of Benedict XIV. in 1750, with an entertaining account of the most remarkable adventures that happened among the pilgrims who repaired to Rome on those occasions. The second and third volumes of these interesting Letters treat of the indulgences that are administered in the church of Rome. The reader will find here their nature and origin explained, the dostrine of the Roman-catholic divines relating to them stated and resuted, the history of this impious traffic accurately laid down, and its enormities and pernicious effects circumstantially exposed with learning, perspicuity, and candour.

[y] Odor. Renaldus, Annal. Ecclef. tom. xiii. ad A. 1247. § xxxii. & tom. xv. ad A. 1303. § xxii. & ad A. 1304. § xxiii. —Matth. Paris, Hift. Major. p. 372. Rome; but the prospect of peace soon vanished, and CENT. a variety of causes concurred to prolong the rupture. XIII.

II. During the whole course of this century, the PART II. Roman pontiffs carried on the most barbarous and The coninhuman perfecution against those whom they branded tests of the with the denomination of bereties; i. e. against all Roman those who called their pretended authority and jurif-pontiffs with varidiction in question, or taught doctrines different from ous feets, those which were adopted and propagated by the whom they branded church of Rome. For the fects of the Catharifts, indifferini-Waldenses, Petrobrussians, &c. gathered strength from the name of day to day, spread imperceptibly throughout all Heretics. Europe, assembled numerous congregations in Italy, France, Spain, and Germany, and formed by degrees fuch a powerful party as rendered them formidable to the Roman pontiffs, and menaced the papal jurifdiction with a fatal revolution. To the ancient fects new factions were added, which, though they differed from each other in various respects, yet were all unanimously agreed in this one point, viz. "That the public and established religion was a "motley fystem of errors and superstition; and that "the dominion which the popes had usurped over "Christians, as also the authority they exercised in " religious matters, were unlawful and tyrannical." Such were the notions propagated by the fecturies, who refuted the superstitions and impostures of the times by arguments drawn from the holy scriptures, and whose declamations against the power, the opulence, and the vices of the pontiffs and clergy were extremely agreeable to many princes and civil magistrates, who grouned under the usurpations of the facred order. The pontiffs, therefore, confidered themselves as obliged to have recourse to new and extraordinary methods of defeating and fubduing enemies, who, both by their number and their rank, were every way proper to fill them with terror.

III. The number of these dissenters from the church

III. The number of these differences from the church of Rome was no where greater than in Narbonne

CENT. Gaul [z] and the countries adjacent, where

the inquifition in Nurbonne Gaul.

XIII.

they were received and protected, in a fingular PART II. manner, by RAYMOND VI. earl of Tholouse, and The rife of the persons of the highest distinction; and where the bishops, either through humanity or indolence, were so negligent and remiss in the prosecution of heretics, that the latter, laying afide all their fears, formed fettlements, and multiplied prodigiously from day to day. Innocent III. was foon informed of all these proceedings; and about the commencement of this century fent legates extraordinary into the fouthern provinces of France to do what the bishops had left undone, and to extirpate herefy, in all its various forms and modifications, without being at all fcrupulous in using such methods as might be necesfary to effect this falutary purpose. The persons charged with this ghoftly commission were RAINIER [a], a Cistertian monk, PIERRE DE CASTELNAU [b], archdeacon of Maguelonne, who became also afterwards a Cistertian friar. These eminent missionaries were followed by feveral others, among whom was the famous Spaniard Dominic, founder of the order of preachers, who, returning from Rome in the year 1206, fell in with these delegates, embarked in their cause, and laboured both by his exhortations and actions in the extirpation of herefy. These spiritual champions, who engaged in this expedition upon the fole authority of the pope, without either asking the advice or demanding the fuccours of the bishops, and who inflicted capital

> [2] That part of France which, in ancient times, comprehended the provinces of Savoy, Dauphine, Provence, and Languedoc.

> [a] Instead of RAINIER, other historians mention one RAOUL, or RALPH, as the affociate of PIERRE DE CASTELNAU.

See FLEURY, Histoire Eccles. livr. Ixxvi. § xii.

[b] The greatest part of the Roman writers consider Pierre DE CASTELNAU as the first Inquisitor. It will appear hereaster in what fense this affertion may be admitted. For an account of this legate, fee the Ada Sandor. tom. i. Martii, p. 411.

* punishment upon such of the heretics as they could CENT. not convert by reason and argument, were distin-XIII. guished in common discourse by the title of Inqui-PART II. stors, and from them the formidable and odious tribunal called the Inquisition derived its original.

IV. When this new fet of herefy-hunters [c] The form had executed their commission, and purged the of the inquifition fetprovinces to which they were fent of the greatest tled. part of the enemies of the Roman faith, the pontiffs were fo fenfible of their excellent fervices, that they established missionaries of a like nature, or, in other words, placed Inquifitors in almost every city whose inhabitants had the misfortune to be suspected of herefy, notwithstanding the reluctance which the people shewed to this new institution, and the violence with which they frequently expelled, and fometimes maffacred, these bloody officers of the popish hierarchy. The council held at Tholouse, in the year 1229, by Romanus, cardinal of St. Angelo, and pope's legate, went still farther, and erected in every city a council of inquisitors consisting of one priest and three laymen [d]. This institution was, however, superfeded in the year 1233, by GREGORY IX. who intrusted the Dominicans, or preaching friars, with the important commission of discovering and bringing to judgment the heretics that were lurking in France, and in a formal epiftle discharged the bishops from the burthen of that painful office $\lceil e \rceil$. Immediately after this, the bishop of Tournay, who was the pope's

[c] The term of Herefy-hunters, for which the translator is responsible, will not seem absurd, when it is known, that the missionaries, who were sent into the provinces of France to extirpate herefy, and the inquisitors who succeeded them, were bound by an oath, not only to seek for the heretics in towns, houses, cellars, and other lurking places, but also in woods, caves, fields, &c.

[d] See HARDUNI Concilia, tom. vii. p. 175.

[e] Bernhard Guidonis in Chronico Pontif. MS. ap. Jac. Echardum Scriptor. Pradicator. tom. i. p. 88.—Percini Historia Inquisit. Tholosana, subjoined to his Historia Conventus FF. Pradicat. Tholosana, 1693, in 8vo.—Histoire Generale de Languedoc, tom. iii. p. 394, 395.

CENT. legate in France, began to execute this new refolu-MIII. tion, by appointing PIERRE CELLAN, and GUIL-PART IL LAUME ARNAUD, inquisitors of the heretical pravity

at Tholouse, and afterwards proceeded in every city, where the Dominicans had a convent, to constitute officers of the fame nature, chosen from among the monks of that celebrated order $\lceil f \rceil$. From this period we are to date the commencement of the dreadful tribunal of the inquisition, which in this and the following ages subdued such a prodigious multitude of heretics, part of whom were converted to the church by terror, and the rest committed to the flames without mercy. For the Dominicans erected, first at Tholouse, and afterwards at Carcassone and other places, a tremendous court, before which were fummoned not only beretics, and persons sufpected of herefy, but likewise all who were accused of magic, forcery, judaism, witchcrast, and other crimes of that kind. This tribunal, in process of time, was erected in the other countries of Europe, though not every where with the same success $\lceil g \rceil$.

V. The method of proceeding in this court of inquisition was at first simple, and almost in every

[f] Echard & Percinus loc. citat.
[g] The accounts we have here given of the first rise of the Inquifition, though founded upon the most unexceptionable testimonies and the most authentic records, are yet very different from those that are to be found in most authors. Certain learned men tell us, that the Tribunal of the Inquisition was the invention of St. Dominic, and was first erected by him in the city of Thelouse: that he, of confequence, was the first inquisitor: that the year of its institution is indeed uncertain; but that it was undoubtedly confirmed in a folemn manner, by Innocent III. in the council of the Lateran, in the year 1215. See Jo. Alb. Fabricius, in his Lux Evangelii toti orbi exoriens, p. 569.—PHIL. LIMBORCHI Historia Inquist. lib. i. c. x. p. 39. and the other writers mentioned by FARRICIUS. I will not affirm, that the writers who give this account of the matter have advanced all this without authority; but this I will venture to fay, that the authors, whom they have taken for their guides, are not of the first rate in point of merit and credibility. LIMBORCH, whose History of the Inquisition is looked upon as a most important and capital work,

respect similar to that which was observed in the cent. ordinary courts of justice [b]. But this simplicity xiii. was gradually changed by the Dominicans, to whom PART II. experience suggested several new methods of augmenting the pomp and majesty of their spiritual tribunal, and who made such alterations in the forms of proceedings, that the manner of taking cognizance of beretical causes became totally different

is generally followed by modern writers in their accounts of that odious tribunal. But, however laudable that historian may have been in point of fidelity and diligence, it is certain, that he was but little acquainted with the ecclefiastical history of the middle age; that he drew his materials, not from the true and original fources, but from writers of a fecond class, and thus has fallen, in the course of his history, into various mistakes. His account of the origin of the inquisition is undoubtedly false; nor does that which is given by many other writers approach nearer to the truth. The circumstances of this account, which I have mentioned in the beginning of this note, are more especially destitute of all foundation. Many of the Dominicans, who, in our times have prefided in the court of inquifition, and have extelled the fanctity of that pious institution, deny, at the same time, that Deminic was its founder, as also that he was the first inquisitor, nay, that he was an inquisitor at all. They go still farther, and affirm, that the court of inquisition was not erected during the life of St. Domt-NIC. Nor is all this advanced inconfiderately, as every impartial inquirer into the proofs they allege will eafily perceive. Neverthelefs, the question, Whether or not St. Dominic was an inquisitor? feems to be merely a dispute about words, and depends entirely upon the different fignifications of which the term inquisitor is susceptible. That word, according to its original meaning, fignified a person invested with the commission and authority of the Roman pontiff to extirpate herefy and oppose its abettors, but not cloathed with any judicial power-But it foon acquired a different meaning, and fignified a perfen appointed by the Roman pontiff to proceed judicially against heretics and fuch as were suspected of herefy, to pronounce sentence according to their respective cases, and to deliver over to the fecular arm fuch as perfifted obstinately in their errors. this latter fense Dominic was not an inquisitor; since it is well known that there were no papal judges of this nature before the pontificate of GREGORY IX.; but he was undoubtedly an inquisitor in the original sense that was attached to that term.

[b] The records, published by the Benedictines in their Historie Gener. de Languedoc, tom. iii. p. 371. shew the simplicity that reigned in the proceedings of the inquisition at its first institution.

CENT. from that which was usual in civil affairs. XIII. friars were, to fay the truth, entirely ignorant of PARTII. judicial matters; nor were they acquainted with the procedures of any other tribunal, than that which was called, in the Roman church, the Tribunal of penance. It was therefore after this, that they modelled the new court of Inquisition, as far as a refemblance between the two was possible; and hence arose that strange system of inquisitorial law, which, in many respects, is so contrary to the common feelings of humanity, and the plainest dictates of equity and justice. This is the important circumstance by which we are enabled to account for the absurd, imprudent, and iniquitous proceedings of the inquisitors, against persons that are accused of holding, what they call, heretical opinions.

The rights leges grant-

VI. That nothing might be wanting to render and privithis spiritual court formidable and tremendous, the Roman pontiffs perfuaded the European princes, inquisition and more especially the emperor FREDERIC II. and LEWIS IX. king of France, not only to enach the most barbarous laws against heretics, and to commit to the flames, by the ministry of public justice, those who were pronounced fuch by the inquisitors, but also to maintain the inquisitors in their office, and grant them their protection in the most open and folemn manner. The edicts to this purpose issued out by FREDERIC II. are well known; edicts every way proper to excite horror, and which rendered the most illustrious piety and virtue incapable of faving from the cruelest death such as had the misfortune to be disagreeable to the inquisitors $\lceil i \rceil$.

[[]i] The law of the emperor FREDERIC, in relation to the inquisitors, may be seen in Limborch's History of the Inquisition, as also in the Epistles of Pierre de Vignes, and in Bzovius, RAYNALDUS, &c. The edict of St. Lewis, in favour of these ghostly judges, is generally known under the title of Cupientes; for fo it is called by the French lawyers on account of its beginning with that word. It was issued out in the year 1229, as the

These abominable laws were not, however, sufficient CENT. to restrain the just indignation of the people against XIII. these inhuman judges, whose barbarity was accom. PART II, panied with superstition and arrogance, with a spirit of suspicion and perfidy, nay, even with temerity and imprudence. Accordingly they were infulted by the multitude in many places, were driven, in an ignominious manner, out of fome cities, and were put to death in others; and Conrad of Marpurg, the first German inquisitor, who derived his commission from Gregory IX. was one of the many victims that were facrificed upon this occasion to the vengeance of the public [k], which his incredible barbarities had raifed to a dreadful degree of vehemence and fury $\lceil l \rceil$.

VII. When INNOCENT III. perceived that the Severermes labours of the first inquisitors were not immediately thods are employed attended with fuch abundant fruits as he had fondly against the expected, he addressed himself, in the year 1207, to heretics. PHILIP AUGUSTUS, king of France, and to the

Benedictine monks have proved fufficiently in their Hift. Generale de Languedoc, tom. iii. p. 378. 575. It is also published by CATELIUS, in his Histor. Comit. Tolosanor. p. 340. and in many other authors. This edict is as severe and inhuman, to the full, as the laws of Frederic II. For a great part of the functity of good king Lewis confifted in his furious and implacable aversion to heretics, against whom he judged it more expedient to employ the influence of racks and gibbets, than the power of reason and argument. See Du Fresne, Vita Ludovici a Joinvillio scripta, p. 11. 39.

 $\lceil k \rceil$ The life of this furious and celebrated inquisitor has been composed from the most authentic records that are extant, and also from feveral valuable manufcripts by the learned John Herman SCHMINKIUS. See also WADDING. Annal. Minor. tom. ii. p. 151. 355. & Echard. Scriptor. Dominican. tom. i. p. 487.

([1] The Abbé FLEURY acknowledges the brutal barbarity of this unrelenting inquisitor, who, under the pretext of herefy, not only committed to the flames a prodigious number of nobles, clerks, monks, hermits, and lay-perfons of all ranks, but moreover caused them to be put to death, the very same day they were accused, without appeal. See FLEURY, Hist. Eccles. livr. lxxx. § xxiv.

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CENT. leading men of that nation, foliciting them by the alluring promifes of the most ample indulgences, to PART II. extirpate all, whom he thought proper to call heretics, by fire and fword $\lceil m \rceil$. This exhortation was repeated with new accessions of fervour and earnestness the year following, when PIERRE DE CASTELNAU, the legate of this pontiff, and his inquisitor in France, was put to death by the patrons of the people, called heretics [n]. Not long after this, the Cistertian monks, in the name of this pope, proclaimed a crusade against the heretics throughout the whole kingdom of France, and a storm seemed to be gathering against them on all sides: RAYMOND VI. earl of Tholoule, in whose territories Castelnau had been massacred was solemnly excommunicated, and, to deliver himself from this ecclesiastical malediction, changed fides, and embarked in the crufade now mentioned. In the year 1209, a formidable army of crofs-bearers commenced against the heretics, who were comprehended under the general denomination of Albigenses [o], an open war which they

[m] INNOCENTII III. Epistolæ, Lib. x. Epist. 49.
[n] Id. ibid. Lib. xi. Ep. 26, 27, 28, 29.—Alla Sanitor.
Mart. tom. i. p. 411.

[0] The term Albigenses is used in two senses, of which the one is general, and the other more confined. In its more general and extensive sense it comprehends all the various kinds of heretics who refided at this time in Narbonne-Gaul, i. e. in the fouthern parts of France. This appears from the following passage of PETRUS SARNENSIS, who, in the Dedication of his History of the Albigenses to Innocent III. expresses himself thus. Tolosani et aliarum civitatum, et castrorum baretici, et desensores eorum generaliter Albigenses vocantur. The same author divides afterwards the Albigenses into various sects (Cap. ii. p. 3 & 8.) of which he confiders that of the Waldenses as the least pernicious. erant Waldenfes, fed comparatione alionum hareticorum longe minus perversi. It was not, however, from the city of Albigia, or Albi, that the French heretics were comprehended under the general title of Albigenses, but from another circumstance, to wit, that the greatest part of Narbonne-Gaul was, in this century, called Albigenfium, as the Benedicline monks have clearly demonstrated in their Histoire Generale de Languedoc, tom. iii. not. xiii. p. 552.

carried on with the utmost exertions of cruelty, CENT. though with various fuccefs, for feveral years. The x1111. chief director of this ghoftly war was ARNALD, PART II. abbot of the Ciftertians, and legate of the Roman pontiff; and the commander in chief of the troops employed in this noble expedition was Simon earl of Montford. RAYMOND VI. earl of Tholoufe, who, confulting his fafety rather than his confcience, had engaged in the crusade against the heretics, was obliged to change fides, and to attack their perfecutors. For Simon, who had embarked in this war, not so much from a principle of zeal for religion, or of aversion to the heretics, as from a defire of augmenting his fortune, cast a greedy eye upon the territories of RAYMOND, and his felfish views were feconded and accomplished by the court of Rome. After many battles, fieges, and a multitude of other exploits conducted with the most intrepid courage and the most abominable barbarity, he received from the hands of INNOCENT III. at the council of the Lateran, A. D. 1215, the county of Tholouse and the other lands, belonging to that earl, as a reward for his zeal in supporting the cause of God and of the church. About three years after this, he lost his life at the fiege of Tholoufe. RAYMOND, his valiant adverfary, died in the year 1222.

VIII. Thus were the two chiefs of this deplorable The fruitwar taken off the scene; but this removal was far less opponfrom extinguishing the infernal flame of persecution by the carl on the side of the pontiffs, or calming the restless of Tholous's to the Ro-

man politiff.

The term Albigenses, in its more confined sense, was used to denote those heretics who inclined towards the Manichæan system, and who were otherwise known by the denominations of Catharists, Publicans, or Paulicians, and Bulgarians. This appears evidently from many incontestable authorities, and more especially from the Coden Inquisitionis Tolosana, published by LIMBORCH, in his History of the Inquisition, and in which the Albigenses are carefully diffinguished from the other fests that made a noise in this century.

CENT. spirit of faction on that of the pretended heretics. XIII. RAYMOND VII. earl of Tholouse, and AMALRIC, PART II. earl of Montford, succeeded their fathers at the head of the contending parties, and carried on the war with the utmost vehemence, and with such various fuccess as rendered the issue for some time doubtful. The former feemed at first more powerful than his adversary, and the Roman pontiff Honorius III. alarmed at the vigorous opposition he made to the orthodox legions, engaged Lewis VIII. king of France, by the most pompous promises, to march in person with a formidable army against the enemies of the church. The obsequious monarch listened to the folicitations of the lordly pontiff, and embarked with a confiderable military force in the cause of the church, but did not live to reap the fruits of his zeal. His engagements, however, with the court of Rome, and his furious defigns against the heretics, were executed with the greatest alacrity and vigour by his fon and fucceffor Lewis the Saint; fo that RAY-MOND, pressed on all sides, was obliged, in the year 1229, to make peace upon the most disadvantageous terms, even by making a cession of the greatest part of his territories to the French monarch, after having facrificed a confiderable portion of them, as a peaceoffering to the church of Rome[p]. This treaty of peace gave a mortal blow to the cause of heresy,

[[]p] It was in consequence of this treaty (of which the articles were drawn up at Meaux, and afterwards confirmed at Paris, in presence of Lewis) that the university of Tholouse was founded, Raymond having bound himself thereby to pay the sum of 4000 silver marcs, in order to the support of two professors of divinity, two of canon law, two of grammar, and six of the liberal arts, during the space of ten years. We must also observe, that what Dr. Mosheim says of the cession that Raymond made of his lands is not sufficiently clear and accurate. These lands were not to be transferred till after his death, and they were to be transferred to the brother of Lewis IX. who, according to the treaty, was to espouse the daughter of Raymond. See Fleury, Hist. Eccles. liv. lxxix. § 50.

and dispersed the champions that had appeared in CENT. its defence; the inquisition was established at Tholouse, XIII. and the heretics were not only exposed to the pious PART II. cruelties of Lewis, but, what was still more shocking, RAYMOND himself, who had formerly been their patron, became their perfecutor, and treated them upon all occasions with the most inhuman severity. It is true, this prince broke the engagements into which he had entered by the treaty above mentioned, and renewed the war against Lewis and the inquifitors, who abused their victory and the power they had acquired in the most odious manner. But this new effort, in favour of the heretics, was attended with little or no effect; and the unfortunate earl of Tholouse, the last representative of that noble and powerful house, dejected and exhausted by the losses he had fustained, and the perplexities in which he was involved, died, in the year 1249, without male iffue. And thus ended a civil war, of which religion had been partly the cause, and partly the pretext, and which, in its confequences, was highly profitable both to the kings of France and to the Roman pontiffs $\lceil q \rceil$.

[q] Many writers both ancient and modern have related the circumstances of this religious war, that was carried on against the earls of Tholoufe and their confederates, and also against the heretics, whose cause they maintained. But none of the historians, whom I have confulted on this subject, have treated it with that impartiality which is so essential to the merit of historical writing. The Protestant writers, among whom Basnage deferves an eminent rank, are too favourable to RAYMOND and the Albigenfes; the Roman catholic historians lean with still more partiality to the other fide. Of these latter the most recent are Benedict, a Dominican monk, author of the Histoire des Albigeois, des Vaudois, et de Barbets, published at Paris, in 1691, in two volumes, 12mo. -J. BAPT. LANGLOIS, a jesuit, who composed the Histoire des Croifades contre les Albigeos, which was published in 12mo, at Rouen, in 1703, to which we must add, Jo. Jac. Percini Monumenta Conventus Tolofani Ordinis FF. Prædicator. in quibus Historia hujus Conventus distribuitur, et refertur totius zilbigensium satti narratio, Telosa, 1693, Fol. These writers are chargeable CENT. XIII.

The Brethren and free fpirit.

IX. The severity which the court of Rome employed in the extirpation of herefy, and the for-PART II. midable arguments of fire and fword, racks and gibbets, with which the popes and their creatures reasoned against the enemies of the church, were Sisters of the not fufficient to prevent the rife of new and most pernicious fects in feveral places. Many of thefe fects were inconsiderable in themselves, and tranfitory in their duration, while fome of them made a noise in the world, and were suppressed with difficulty. Among the latter we may reckon that of the Brethren and Sifters of the free spirit, which about this time gained ground fecretly and imperceptibly in Italy, France, and Germany, and seduced into its bosom multitudes of persons of both sexes, by the striking appearance of piety that was observed in the conduct of the members that composed it. How far the councils of this century proceeded against this new feet, we cannot fay with any certainty; because we have upon record but a few of the decrees that were iffued out upon that occasion. Perhaps the obscurity of the rising faction skreened it, in a great measure, from public view. But that was not the case in the following age; the Brethren and Sisters above mentioned came forth from their retreats in proportion as their numbers increased; they drew upon them the eyes of the world, and particularly those of the inquisitors, who committed to the slames such of these unhappy enthusiasts as fell into their hands;

> with the greatest partiality and injustice in the reproaches and calumnies they throw out so liberally against the RAYMONDS and the Albigenses, while they disguise, with a perfidious dexterity, the barbarity of Simon of Montfert, and the ambitious views of extending their dominions that engaged the kings of France to enter into this war. The most ample and accurate account of this expedition against the Heretics is that which is given by the learned Benedictines CLAUDE LE VIC and JOSEPH VAISSETTE, in their Histoire Generale de Languedoc, Paris, 1730, tom. iii. in which, however, there are feveral omissions, which render that valuable work defective.

while the councils, held in Germany and other CENT. nations, loaded them with excommunications and xIII. PART II.

damnatory edicts.

This new fect took their denomination from the words of St. PAUL [r], and maintained that the true children of God were invested with the privilege of a full and perfect freedom from the jurisdiction of the law [s]. They were called, by the Germans and Flemish, Beghards and Beguttes, which, as we have feen already, was a name usually given to those who made an extraordinary profession of piety and devotion. They received from others, the reproachful denomination of Bicorni, i. e. Ideots. In France, they were known by the appellation of Beghins and Begbines, while the multitude distinguished them by that of Turlupins, the origin and reason of which title I have not been able to learn $\lceil t \rceil$. Nothing

[r] Romans viii. 2. 14.
[s] The accounts we here give of these wretched Fanatics are, for the most part, taken from authentic records, which have not been as yet published, from the decrees of fynods and councils held in France and Germany, from the Diplomas of the Roman pontiffs, the fentences pronounced by the inquifitors, and the other fources of information to which I have had access. I have also a collection of extracts from certain books of these enthusiasts, and more especially from that which treated of the Nine spiritual rocks, and which was in the highest esteem among the free brethren, who considered it as a treasure of divine wisdom and doctrine. As I cannot expose here these records to the examination of the curious reader, I beg leave to refer him to a long and ample edict issued out against these Brethren by HENRY I. archbishop of Cologn, and published in the Statuta Coloniensia, A. 1554. p. 58. This edict is, in every respect, conformable to those published on the same occasion, at Mentz, Aschaffenburg, Paderborn, Beziers, Triers, and other places.

[t] Many have written, but none with accuracy and precision, concerning the Turlupins. See Beausobre's Differtation fur les Adamites, part II. p. 384. where that learned author has fallen into feveral errors, as usually happens to him when he treats fubjects of this kind. I know not the origin of the word Turlupin, but I am able to demonstrate by the most authentic records, that the persons so called, who were burnt at Paris and

CENT. carried a more shocking air of lunacy and distraction than their external aspect and manners. They ran PART II. from place to place cloathed in the most singular and fantastic apparel, and begged their bread with wild shouts and clamours, rejecting with horror every kind of industry and labour, as an obstacle to divine contemplation, and to the afcent of the foul towards the Father of spirits. In all their excursions they were followed by women, with whom they lived in the most intimate familiarity $\lceil u \rceil$. They distributed among the people, books, which contained the fubstance of their doctrine, held nocturnal assemblies in places remote from public view, and feduced many from frequenting the ordinary institutions of divine

The mystical doctrines of this fect.

worship. X. These brethren, who gloried in the freedom which they pretended to have obtained, through the fpirit, from the dominion and obligation of the law, adopted a certain rigid and fantastic system of Myslic theology, built upon pretended philosophical principles, which carried a striking resemblance of the impious doctrines of the Pantheists. For they held, "That all things flowed by emanation from God, " and were finally to return to their divine fource: "that rational fouls were fo many portions of the "Supreme Deity, and that the universe, considered "as one great whole, was God: that every man, "by the power of contemplation, and by calling off " his mind from fenfible and terrestrial objects, might " be united to the Deity in an inestable manner, and " become one with the Source and Parent of all "things: and that they, who, by long and assiduous " meditation, had plunged themselves, as it were, "into the aby/s of the Divinity, acquired thereby

in other parts of France, were no other than the Brethren of the free spirit, who were condemned by the Roman pontiffs, and also by various councils.

[u] Hence they were called in Germany, Schweffriones, as appears by the decrees of feveral councils.

" a most glorious and sublime liberty, and were not CENT. "only delivered from the violence of finful lusts, x111. 66 but even from the common inflincts of nature." PART II. From these and such like doctrines, the brethren under confideration drew this impious and horrid conclusion, "That the person who had ascended " to God in this manner, and was absorbed by " contemplation in the abyss of Deity, became thus " a part of the Godhead, commenced God, was the "Son of God in the same sense and manner that "CHRIST was, and was thereby raifed to a glorious "independence, and freed from the obligation of " all laws human and divine." It was in confequence of all this, that they treated with contempt the ordinances of the gospel, and every external act of religious worship, looking upon prayer, fasting, baptism, and the sacrament of the Lord's supper, as the first elements of piety adapted to the state and capacity of children, and as of no fort of use to the perfect man, whom long meditation had raifed above all external things, and carried into the bosom and effence of the Deity [w].

[w] It may not be improper to place here a certain number of sentences translated faithfully from several of the more secret books of these Heretics. The following will be sufficient to give

the curious reader a full idea of their impiety.

Every pious and good man is the only begotten fon of God, whom God engendered from all eternity: (for these Heretics maintained, that what the scriptures taught concerning the distinction of Three Persons in the divine nature, is by no means to be understood literally, and therefore explained it according to the principles of their mystical and fantastic system).

All created things are non-entities or nothing: I do not fay that

they are small or minute; but that they are absolutely nothing.

There is in the foul of man fomething that is neither created, nor fusceptible of creation, and that is, rationality, or the power of reasoning.

God is neither good, nor better, nor best: whosever therefore calls the Deity good, does as foolishly as he who calls an object black, which

he knows to be white.

XI. Among these Fanatics there were feveral CENT. xIII. persons of eminent probity, who had entered into PART II this feet with the most upright intentions, and who extended that liberty of the Spirit, which they looked Ameng Ameng the bere-upon as the privilege of true believers, no farther than to an exemption from the duties of external tics there were teme that diffin- worship, and an immunity from the positive laws of the church. The whole of religion was placed by guiffied themfolves this class of men in internal devotion, and they by their treated with the utmost contempt the rules of eminent probity, and monaflic discipline, and all other external rites and others that were licen-institutions, as infinitely beneath the attention of the tious in an perfect. Nor were their exhortations and their infamous examples without effect; for about the middle of degree. this century they perfuaded a confiderable number of monks and devout persons, in Swabia, to live without any rule, and to serve God in the liberty of the spirit, which was the most acceptable service that could be presented to the Deity [x]. The inquisitors, however, stopped these poor enthusiasts in the midst

God still engenders his only begotten son, and begets still the same son, whom he had begotten from eternity. For every operation of the Deity is uniform and one; and therefore he engenders his son without any division.

What the scriptures say concerning Christ is true of every good, of every divine man. And every quality of the divine nature belongs

equally to every person, whose piety is genuine and sincere.

To these horrid passages we may add the following sentences, in which, John, hishop of Strasbourg (in an edict he published against the Bretbren of the free spirit, or Begbards, in the year 1317, the Sunday before the feast of the assumption of the Virgin Mary) discovers farther the blasphemous doctrine of this impious sect. Deus say these Heretics) of formaliter omne quod est. Quilibet homo perfectus est Christus per naturam. Homo perfectus est liber in totum, nec tenetur ad servandum pracepta cocksia data à Deo. Multa sunt poetica in evangelio, qua non sunt vera, et homines credere magis debent conceptibus ex anima sua Deo juncta prosectis, quam evangelio, &c.

[x] See Mart. Crusius, Annal. Suevicorum, part III. lib. ii. cap. xiv. ad A. 1261, p. 99. edit. Vet.—This author has taken his materials from Felix Faber, an impartial writer...

of their career, and committed feveral of them to CENT. the flames, in which they expired, not only with the MIII. most unclouded ferenity, but even with the most Parti.

triumphant feelings of cheerfulness and joy.

But there were among these Brethren of the free spirit another class of Fanatics very different from these now mentioned, and much more extravagant, whose system of religion was as dangerous, as it was ridiculous and abfurd, fince it opened a door to the most licentious manners. These wretched enthusiasts maintained, that, by continual contemplation, it was possible to eradicate all the instincts of nature out of the beaven-born mind, and to introduce into the foul a certain divine flupor, and holy apathy, which they looked upon as the great characteristics of Christian perfection. The perfons who adopted these sentiments, took strange liberties in consequence of their pretended fanctity, and shewed, indeed, by their conduct, that they had little regard to external appearances; for they held their fecret affemblies stark naked, and lay in the same beds with their spiritual sisters, or, indiscriminately, with other women, without the sinallest scruple or hesitation. This fhocking violation of decency was a confequence of their pernicious system. They looked upon decency and modefly as marks of inward corruption, as the characters of a foul that was still under the dominion of the fenfual, animal, and lascivious fpirit, and that was not, as yet, re-united to the divine nature, its center and fource. And they confidered, as at a fatal distance from the Deity, all fuch as either felt the carnal fuggestions of nature, or were penetrated with warm emotions at the view or approach of persons of a different sex, or were incapable of vanquishing and suppressing the rifing fervour of lust and intemperance [y].

[y] Certain writers, whose principal zeal is employed in the defence of these hereties, and who have accustomed themselves CENT.

XIII.

There were, moreover, in this fanatical troop, certain enthuliafts, who far furpassed in impiety the PART II. two classes we have been now mentioning, who abused the system and doctrines of the sect, so as to draw from them an apology for all kinds of wickednefs, and who audaciously maintained, that the divine man, or the believer, who was intimately united to God, could not fin, let his conduct be ever fo horrible and atrocious. This execrable doctrine was not, indeed, explained in the fame manner by all the Brethren of the free spirit that were so outrageous as to adopt it. Some held, that the motions and actions of the body had no relation at all to the foul, which, by its union with God, was blended with the divine nature: others fell into a notion infinitely injurious to the Supreme Being, and maintained, that the propenfities and passions that arose

> to entertain a high idea of the fancity of all those who, in the middle age, separated themselves from the communion of the church of Rome, suspect the inquisitors of having attributed falsely these impious doctrines to the Brethren of the free spirit, with a view to blacken these pious men, and to render them odious. But this suspicion is entirely groundless; and the account of this matter, which we have given in the text, is conformable to the strictest truth. The inquisitors have been less fabulous in their accufations of these heretics, than many are apt to imagine. They acknowledge that the Beghards, though destitute of shame, were not chargeable, generally speaking, with a breach of the duties of chastity and abstinence. They were indeed of opinion, that this firmness and insensibility of heart, which rendered them proof against female charms and deaf to the voice of nature, was a privilege granted them by the devil. For they adopted the opinion of honest NIEBER, (Formicar. lib. iii. cap. v. p. 346.) and affirmed, that it was in the power of that evil spirit to render men cold, and to extinguish the warm and lascivious solicitations of nature; and that Satan wrought this miracle upon his friends and adherents, in order to procure them a high reputation of fanctity, and make them appear superior in virtue to the rest of mankind. Credo (faith NIEDER, who was both a Dominican and an inquilitor) quosdam ex eis damonis opere affectos fuisse, ne moverentur ad naturales actus incontinentia . . . Facillimum enim est damonibus infrigidare.

in the foul of the divine man after his union with the CENT. Deity, were the propensities and affections of God XIII. himself, and were therefore, notwithstanding their PART II. apparent deformity and opposition to the law, hely and good, seeing that the Supreme Being is infinitely exalted above all law and all obligation [2]. It is

[2] This account will be confirmed by the following passage faithfully translated from the famous book of the Nine Rocks, written originally in German: Moreover the divine man operates and engenders whatever the Deity operates and engenders. For in God he produced and formed the heavens and the earth. He is also the father of the eternal world. Neither could God produce any thing without this divine man, who is therefore obliged to render his will conformable to the will of God, that fo what sever may be agreeable to the Deity, may be agreeable to him also. If therefore it be the will of God that I should commit fin, my will must be the same, and I must not even desire to abstrain from sin. This is true contrition. And although a man, who is well and truly united to God, may have committed a thousand mortal sins, he ought not even to wish that he had not committed them; nay, he should rather die a thousand deaths than omit one of these mortal sins. Hence the accusation brought by the inquisitors against this impious sect, whom they reproach with maintaining that the fin of a man united to God, is not fin, fince God works in him and with him whatever he does. HENRY Suso, a Dominican monk, and one of the most celebrated Mystic writers, composed, in the following century, another Book concerning the Nine Rocks, which is to be found in the edition of his works published by LAURENT. SURIUS. But this book is entirely different from that which was in such high effect among the Beghards, though it bears the same title. The latter is of much older date, and was in vogue in Germany, among the Brethren of the free spirit, long before Suso was born. There fell some time ago into my hands an ancient manuscript, composed in Alface, during the fifteenth century, and containing an account of various Revelations and Visions of that age. In this manuscript I found a piece entitled, Declaratio Religiosi cujusdam super revelatione Carthusiano cuidam de Ecclesiæ per gladium reformatione, Leodii, A. 1453, sata; and almost in the beginning of this declaration the following passage relating to the Book of the Nine Rocks: Homo quidam devotissimus, licet Laicus, Librum de novem Rupibus conscripsit à Deo compulsus, ubi multa ad præsens pertinentia continentur de Ecclesia renovatione et pravia gravi persecutione. These Nine Rocks signified, according to the fanatical doctrine of this wrongheaded feet, the different steps by which the divine man ascended to the Deity.

ENT. necessary to observe, before we leave this subject, XIII. that flagitious and impious impostors mingled them-PART II selves sometimes with this sect, and took the name of Beghards, that by a seigned piety they might impose upon the multitude, and deceive the simple into their snares [a].

Amalric.

XII. The famous AMALRIC, native of Bene, and professor of logic and theology at Paris, whose bones were dug up and publicly burnt in the year 1209, although he had abjured his errors before his death, and a considerable number of whose disciples and followers were committed to the slames on account of their absurd and pernicious doctrine, was, undoubtedly, of the same way of thinking with the section.

[a] The founder of this famous feet, the place of its origin, and the precise date of its first appearance, are not known with any degree of certainty. I have actually in my possession Eightynine Sentences of the Beghards, vulgarly called Schwestrones, but who flyle themselves Brethren of the sect of the Free Spirit and of voluntary Powerty, with a Refutation of the faid Sentences, written at Worms towards the conclusion of this century by some one or other of the inquisitors. The 79th of these sentences runs thus: To fay that the truth is in Rhetia, is to full into the herefy of Dongtus, who faid, that God was in Africa, and not elsewhere. From these words it appears evident, that Rhetia was the place where the church of the Brethren of the free spirit was fixed and established, and that from this province they passed into Germany. I am not however of opinion, that this fect had its first rife in that province; but am rather inclined to think, that Italy was its country, and that, being driven from thence, it took refuge in Rhetia. Nor is it at all improbable, that Italy, which faw fo many religious factions arise in its bosom, was also the nursing mother of this blasphemous sect. We shall be almost fully confirmed in this opinion when we confider that, in a long letter from CLEMENT V. to RAIMIER bishop of Cromona (published by Odor. Raynaldus, Annal. tom. xv. A. 1311, n. 66. p. 90.) the zealous pontiff exhorts that prelate to suppress and extirpate, with all his might, the fect of the Brethren of the free spirit, which was fettled in feweral parts of Italy, and particularly in the province of Spoleto and the countries adjacent. Such are the terms of the pontiff's letter; in nonnullis Italia partibus, tan Spoletana provincia, quam circumjasentium regionum.

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whose opinions we have been now considering [b]. CENT. For though the writers of this barbarous age have XIII. given very different and confused accounts of this PART II. man's opinions, and even attributed some doctrines to him which he never maintained, it is nevertheless certain, that he taught, that all things were the parts of one substance, or, in other words, that the universe was God, and that not only the forms of all things, but also their matter or substance, proceeded from the Deity, and must return to the source from whence they were derived [c]. From these absurd

[b] This did not escape the notice of the enemies of the Beghards, or Brethren of the free spirit, in Germany, much less that of the Inquisitors, who, in their Refutation of the 89 Sentences of the Beghards mentioned in the preceding note, express themselves thus: (Sententia 68). Dicere quod omnis creatura est Deus, baresis Alexandri* est, qui dixit, materiam primam et Deum et Hominem, hoc est mentes, esse in substantia, quod postea quidam David de Dinanto sequutus est, qui temporibus nostris de hac haresi de Francia sugatus est, et punitus suisset, si deprehensus suisset.

[c] The account given by FLEURY, in his Ecclefiastical History, of the opinions of AMALRIC, is very different from that which is here given by Dr. Mosheim. The former observes, that AMALRIC, or AMAURI, taught that every Christian was obliged to believe himself a member of Jefus Christ, and that without this belief none could be faved, and he observes also, that his disciples introduced errors still more pernicious, such as the following: "That the power of the Father had continued only "during the Mosaic dispensation, that of the Son 1200 years "after his entrance upon earth, and that, in the thirteenth " century, the age of the Holy Spirit commenced, in which the " facraments and all external worship were to be abolished; that "there would be no refurrection; that heaven and hell were "mere fictions;" and many more fentiments of that nature, which, as the learned Spanheim + imagines, were falfely imputed to AMALRIC, in order to render his memory odious, because he had opposed the worship of faints and images. See FLEURY, Hifl. Ecclef. livr. Ixxvi. § lix.—Dr. Mosheim looks upon AMALRIC to have been a Pantheist, and many men of

^{*} The person here mentioned is ALEXANDER, the Epicurean, of whom PLUTARCH speaks in his Symposium.

[†] See Spanhemii Hist. Eccles. Sec. xxii. p. 1694.

CENT. and blasphemous principles he deduced that chime. rical fystem of fanatical devotion, which we have PART Illalready exposed to the view of the reader, pretended

to demonstrate the possibility of incorporating or translating the human nature into the divine, and rejected all kinds of external worship, as infignificant and useless. The disciples of this enthusiast were men of exemplary piety, were diftinguished by the gravity and aufterity of their lives and manners, and fuffered death in the most dreadful forms with the utmost resolution and constancy. One of the most eminent among these was DAVID of Dinant, a Parisian doctor, who usually expressed the fundamental principle of his mafter in the following proposition: God is the primary matter or substance of all things. He composed a work entitled Quaternarii, with feveral other productions, which were chiefly defigned to affect and gain the multitude: but, after all, was obliged to fave himself by flight [d]. The bishops, affembled in council at Paris in the year 1209, confidered the philosophy of ARISTOTLE as the fource of all these impious doctrines, and, on that account, prohibited the reading, or explaining, either in public or private, the metaphyfical, and other productions of the Grecian fage [e].

Joachim

XIII. If we may depend upon the accounts given Wilhelmina by certain writers, AMALRIC and his followers received with the utmost docility and faith the

> eminent learning are of this opinion. See among others Joh. GERSON apud JAC. THOMASIUM, and also BRUCKER'S Hift.

Philosoph. tom. iii. p. 688.

[d] See MARTENE, Thefaur. Anecdotor. tom iv. p. 163. where there is an account of the herefies, for which feveral priests were burnt at Paris in the year 1209.—NATAL. ALEXANDER, Hifl. Eccl. Sec. xiii. cap. iii. art. ii. p. 76 .- Du Bois, Historia Eccles. Parif. tom. ii. p. 244.—Boulay, Histor. Acad. Parif. tom. iii. p. 24. 48. 53.—JAC. THOMASIUS, De Exustione Mundi Stoica, p. 199.

[e] LAUNOIUS, De varia Aristot. fortuna in Acad. Paris.

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predictions, attributed to Joachim abbot of Flora, CENT. concerning the reformation that was foon to be XIII. brought about in the church by the power of the PART II. fword, the approaching Age of the Holy Ghoft that was to fucceed those of the Father and the Son, and other things of that nature, which raifed the hopes and occupied the thoughts of the Spiritual Franciscans. Whether these accounts may be depended upon or not, we shall not determine. To us they appear extremely doubtful. It is, however, true, that certain persons were so far deluded by these pretended prophecies, as to form new fects with a view to their accomplishment, and to declare war against the established church, its system of doctrine, and its forms of worship. Among other fanatical fectaries, there arose one of a most extraordinary kind, a Bohemian woman named Wilhelmina, who resided in the territory of Milan. This delirious and wrong-headed woman, having studied with attention the predictions concerning the Age of the Holy Ghoft, was extravagant enough to perfuade herfelf, and, what is still more amazing, had influence enough to persuade others, that the Holy Ghost was become incarnate in her person, for the falvation of a great part of mankind. According to her doctrine, " None were faved by the blood of IESUS, "but true and pious Christians; while the Jews, "Saracens, and unworthy Christians, were to obtain " falvation through the Holy Spirit which dwelt in "her, and that, in consequence thereof, all that had "happened to Christ, during his appearance upon "earth in the human nature, was to be exactly " renewed in her person, or rather in that of the "Holy Ghost, which was united to her." This mad woman died at Milan in the year 1281, in the most fragrant odour of fanctity, and her memory was not only held in the highest veneration by her numerous followers and the ignorant multitude, but was also honoured with religious worship both in Vol. III. O_0

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CENT. public and in private. Her sect, nevertheless, was discovered by the curious eye of persecution in the PARI II year 1300, and fell into the clutches of the inquifitors, who destroyed the magnificent monument that had been erected in her honour, had her bones raised and committed to the slames, and in the same fire confumed the chief leaders of this wretched faction, among which there were persons of both fexes [f].

The fect called Apostles.

XIV. It was upon predictions fimilar to those mentioned in the preceding fection, that the fect of the apostles founded its discipline. The members of this fect made little or no alterations in the doctrinal part of the public religion; what they principally aimed at, was, to introduce among Christians the fimplicity of the primitive times, and more especially the manner of life that was observed by the apostles. GERHARD SAGARELLI, the founder of this fect, obliged his followers to go from place to place as the apostles did, to wander about cloathed in white, with long beards, dishevelled hair, and bare heads, accompanied with women, whom they called their Sifters. They were also obliged to renounce all kinds of property and possessions, and to preach in public the necessity of repentance, while in their more private affemblies they declared the approaching destruction of the corrupt church of Rome, and the establishment of a purer service, and a more glorious church, that, according to the prophecies of the abbot loachim, was to arise from its ruins. No fooner was the unhappy leader of this faction

[f] The Milanese historians, such as Bernard, Corius, and others, have related the adventures of this odd woman; but their accounts are very different from those given by the learned MURATORI, in his . ntiq. Italica medii avi, tom. v. p. 91. and which he has drawn from the judicial proceedings of the court, where the extraordinary case of this semale fanatic was examined. We are informed by the same excellent author, that a learned writer, named Puricelli, composed a history of Wilhelmina, and of her sect.

committed to the fiames [g], than he was fucceeded CENT. in that character by a bold and enterprising fanatic, XIII. named Dulcinus, a native of Novara, who pub-PARTH. lished his predictions with more courage, and maintained them with more zeal, than his predecessor had done, and who did not hefitate to declare that, in a short time, the Roman pontiff Boniface VIII. with the corrupt priests and the licentious monks, were to perish by the hand of the emperor FREDERIC III. fon of Peter, king of Arragon, and that a new and most holy pontiff was to be raised to the head of the church. These visionary predictions were, no doubt, drawn from the dreams of the abbot JOACHIM, who is faid to have declared, among other things, that an emperor called FREDERIC III. was to bring to perfection what FREDERIC II. had left unfinished. Be that as it may, Dulcinus appeared with intrepid affurance at the head of the apolites; and acting not only in the character of a prophet, but also in that of a general, he affembled an army to maintain his cause, and perhaps to accomplish, at least in part, his predictions. He was opposed by RAYNERIUS, bishop of Vercelli, who defended the interests of the Roman pontiff, and carried on, during the space of two years and more, a most bloody and dreadful war against this chief of the apostles. The iffue of this contest was fatal to the latter, who, after feveral battles fought with obstinate courage, was at length taken prisoner, and put to death at Vercelli in the most barbarous manner in the year 1307, together with Margaret, whom he had chosen for his Spiritual Sifter, according to the custom of his The terrible end of Dulcinus was not immediately followed by the downfal of his fect, which still subsisted in France, Germany, and in other countries, and stood firm against the most

[[]g] This unhappy man was burnt alive at Parma, in the year 1300.

CENT. vehement efforts of its enemies until the beginning XIII. of the xvth century, when, under the pontificate of PART II. BONIFACE IX. it was totally extirpated [b].

A true account of the whose fanatical predictions turned the heads of so herefy that many well-meaning people, and excited them to was impu-ted to Joa- attempt reforming the church by the fword, and to declare open war against the Roman pontiffs, did not fall under the suspicion of herefy on account of these predictions, but in consequence of a new explication he had given of the doctrine of a Trinity of Persons in the Godhead. He had in an elaborate work attacked very warmly PETER LOMBARD, the master of the sentences, on account of the distinction this latter writer had made between the Divine Essence, and the three Persons in the Godhead; for JOACHIM looked upon this doctrine as introducing a fourth object, even an effence, into the Trinity. But the good man was too little verfed in metaphyfical matters, to carry on a controversy of such a fubtile nature, and he was betrayed by his ignorance fo far as to advance inconfiderately the most rash and exceptionable tenets. For he denied that there was any thing, or any effence, that belonged in common to the three Persons in the Trinity, or was jointly

> [b] I composed in the German language an accurate history, in three books, of this famous feet, which is very little known in our times, and I have in my hands materials, that will furnish an interesting addition to that hislory. That this feet subsisted in Germany, and in some other countries, until the pontificate of BONIFACE IX. is evident from the Chronicle of HERMAN COR-NERUS, published by Jo. GEORGE ECHARD, in his Corpus Historicum medii avi, tom. ii. p. 906. and may be fufficiently demonstrated by other authentic testimonies. In the year 1402, a certain member of this apostolical fect, whose name was WILLIAM, or Wilhelmus, vas burnt alive at Lubeck. See Cornerus, loc. cit. p. 1185. The Germans, who were accustomed to distinguish by the name of Beghards all those who pretended to extraordinary piety, and fought, by poverty and begging, an eminent reputation for fanctity and virtue, gave this title also to the fect of the Apostles.

possessed by them; by which doctrine the substantial CENT. union between the three Persons was taken away, and the unity of the Father, Son, and Holy Ghoft PART II. was reduced from a natural, simple, and numerical unity, to a moral one only; that is, to fuch an unity as reigns in the councils and opinions of different persons, who embrace the same notions, and think and act with one accord. This explication of the Trinity was looked upon by many as very little different from the Arian system; and therefore the Roman pontiff, INNOCENT III. pronounced, in the year 1215, in the council of the Lateran, a damnatory sentence against the doctrine of Joachim, which fentence, however, did not extend to the person or fame of the abbot himself. And, indeed, notwithstanding this papal sentence, JOACHIM has at this day a confiderable number of adherents and defenders, more especially among those of the Franciscans, who are called Observants. Some of these maintain that the book of this abbot was corrupted and interpolated by his enemies, while the rest are of opinion that his doctrine was not thoroughly understood by those that opposed it [i].

[[]i] See Dan. Papebrochius, Disquis. Histor. de Florensi Ordine, Prophetiis, Dostrina, B. Joachimi, in Asis Sanstorum, Maii, tom. vi. p. 486. which contains The Life of Joachim, and several other pieces of consequence. See also NATAL. Alexander, Hist. Eccles. Sec. xiii. Diss. ii. p. 331.—Luc. Waddingi Annal. Minor. tom. iv. p. 6.



FOURTEENTH CENTURY.

PART I.

The External HISTORY of the CHURCH.

CHAPTER I.

Concerning the profperous events that happened to the Church during this century.

I. DEVERAL attempts were made by the CENT. monarchs and princes of the west, set on by the XIV. instigation of the Roman pontiss, to renew the war PART I. in Palestine against the Turks and Saracens, and to deliver the whole province of Syria from the Fruitless attempts to oppressive yoke of these despotic Infidels. The renew the fuccession of pontiffs that resided at Avignon were crusades. particularly zealous for the renovation of religious war, and left no artifice, no methods of persuasion unemployed, that could have the least tendency to engage the kings of England and France in an expedition to the Holy Land. But their fuccess was not answerable to their zeal; and notwithstanding the powerful influence of their exhortations and remonstrances, something still happened to prevent their producing the defired effect. CLE-MENT V. urged the rénewal of this holy war with the greatest ardour in the years 1307, 1308, and set apart an immense sum of money for carrying it on

c'ent. with alacrity and vigour [a]. John XXII. ordered xiv. a fleet of ten ships to be fitted out in the year 1319, Ракт I. to transport an army of pious adventurers into Palef-

tine $\lceil b \rceil$, and had recourse to the power of superstition, that is, to the influence of indulgences, for raising the funds necessary to the support of this great enterprize. These indulgences he offered to such as contributed generously to the carrying on the war, and appointed legates to administer them in all the countries in Europe that were subject to his ghostly jurisdiction. But, under this fair shew of piety and zeal, John is supposed to have covered the most felfish and groveling views; and we find Lewis of Bavaria, who was at that time emperor, and feveral other princes, complaining loudly that this pontiff made use of the holy war as a pretext to disguise his avarice and ambition [c]; and indeed the character of this pope was proper to give credit to füch complaints. Under the pontificate of BENEDICT XII. a formidable army was raifed in the year 1330, by PHILIP DE VALOIS king of France, with a view, as was faid, to attempt the deliverance of the Christians in Palestine [d]; but when he was just ready to embark his troops, the apprehension of an invasion from England, obliged him to lay afide this weighty enterprize. In the year 1345, CLEMENT V. at the request of the Venetians, engaged, by the perfualive power of indulgences, a prodigious number of adventurers to embark for Smyrna, where they composed a numerous army under the command of Guido or Guy, dauphin of Vienne; but the want

[[]a] BALUZII Vitæ Pontif. Avenion. tom. i. p. 15. 594. tom. ii. p. 55. 57. 374. 391, &c. Ant. Matthæl Analesta veteris ævi, tom. ii. p. 577.

[[]b] BALUZII Vitæ Pontif. Avenion. tom. i. p. 125. tom. ii. p. 515.

[[]c] Baluzius, loc. cit. tom. i. p. 175. 786.—Matthæi Analesta vet. ævi, tom. ii. p. 595. 598.

[[]d] BAIUZIUS, loc. cit. tom. i. p. 200.

of provisions obliged this army to return with their CENT. general into Europe in a short time after their deparminut. ture [e]. This disappointment did not, however, Part I. damp the spirits of the restless pontists; for another formidable army was assembled in the year 1363, in consequence of the zealous exhortations of Urban V. and was to be employed in a new expedition against the insidels, with John, king of France, at its head; but the unexpected death of that prince blasted the hopes that many had entertained from this grand project, and occasioned the dispersion of that numerous body which had repaired to his standards [f].

II. The missionaries that had been sent by the The state of Roman pontiffs into China, Tartary, and the adja-Christianity in China and cent countries, in the preceding century, found their Tartary. labours crowned with the defired fuccess, and established a great number of Christian churches in these unenlightened nations. In the year 1307, CLEMENT V. erected Cambalu (which at this time was the celebrated metropolis of Cathay, and is, undoubtedly, the same with Peking, the capital city at present of the Chinese empire) into an archbishopric, which he conferred upon John de Monte Corvino, an Italian friar, who had been employed in propagating the gospel in that country for many years. The fame pontiff fent foon after to affift this prelate in his pious labours feven other bishops of the Franciscan order [g]. John XXII. exerted in this good cause the same zeal which had distinguished the

[[]e] Fragmenta Histor. Romana, in Muratori Antiqq. Ital. medii avi, tom. iii. p. 368.

[[]f] BALUZII Vite Pontif. Avenion. tom. i. p. 366. 386.

<sup>371. 401.

[</sup>g] WADDINGUS, Annal. Ordin. Minor. tom. vi. ad A. 1305,
§ xii. p. 69. ad A. 1307, p. 91. 368. tom. vii. p. 53. 221.
tom. viii. p. 235.—J. S. ASSEMANNI Biblioth. Orient. Vatican.
tom. iii. § ii. p. 521.—J. ECHARDI Scriptor. Predicator. tom. i.
p. 537.—Ala Sanlor. tom. i. Januarii, p. 984.—Moshemis
Historia Eccles. Tartar.

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CENT. pontificate of his predecessors. Upon the death of John de Monte Corvino, in the year 1330, he PART I fent NICOLAS of Bentra to fill the vacant archbishopric of Cambalu, and charged him with letters to the emperor of the Tartars, who, at that time, was in possession of the Chinese dominions. In the year 1338, BENEDICT XII. Sent new legates and missionaries into Tartary and China, in confequence of a folemn embaffy [h] with which he was honoured at Asignon from the Kan of the Tartars. the time that the princes of this latter nation maintained themselves in the empire of China, the Christian religion sourished in these vast regions, and both Latins and Nestorians not only made a public profession of their faith, but also propagated it without any apprehension of danger, throughout the northern provinces of Afia.

Convertion thuanians.

III. There remained in this century fcarcely any of the Li- European prince, unconverted to Christianity, if we except JAGELLO, duke of Lithuania, who continued in the darkness of paganism, and worshipped the gods of his idolatrous ancestors, until the year 1386, when he embraced the Christian faith, received in baptism the name of VLADISLAUS, and perfuaded his fubjects to open their eyes upon the divine light of the gospel. We shall not pretend to justify the purity of the motives that first engaged this prince to renounce the religion of his fathers, as they were accompanied, at least, with views of policy, interest, and ambition. Upon the death of Lewis, king of Poland, which happened in the year 1382, JAGELLO was named among the competitors who aspired after the vacant throne; and as he was a rich and powerful prince, the Poles beheld his pretenfions and efforts with a favourable eye. His religion was the only obstacle that lay in his way to the accomplishment of his views. Hedwige, the youngest daughter

[[]h] Baluzii Vila Pontificum Avenionenfium, tom. p. 242.

of the deceased monarch, who, by a decree of the CENT. fenate, was declared heirefs of the kingdom, was as xiv. little disposed to espouse, as the Poles were to obey, PART I. a Pagan, and hence JAGELLO was obliged to make fuperstition yield to royalty $\lceil i \rceil$. On the other hand, the Teutonic knights and crufaders extirpated by fire and fword any remains of paganism that were yet to be found in Pruffia and Livonia, and effected, by force, what perfuation alone ought to have produced.

We find also in the annals of this century a great Many of many instances of Jews converted to the Christian the Jews faith. The cruel perfecutions they suffered in Christians feveral parts of Europe, particularly in France and through Germany, vanquished their obstinacy, and bent their compution untractable spirits under the yoke of the gospel. The reports (whether false or true we shall not determine) that had been industriously spread abroad of their poiloning the public fountains, of their killing infants and drinking their blood, of their profaning in the most impious and blasphemous manner the confecrated wafers that were used in the celebration of the cucharift, with other accufations equally enormous, excited every where the refentment of the magistrates and the fury of the people, and brought the most terrible sufferings, that unrelenting vengeance could invent, upon that wretched and devoted nation.

IV. The Saracens maintained, as yet, a con-Afcheme fiderable footing in Spain. The kingdoms of Granada laid for the expulsion of and Murcia, with the province of Andalusia, were the Saracens fubject to their dominion; and they carried on a out of Spain, perpetual war with the kings of Caffile, Arragon, and Navarre, in which, however, they were not always victorious. The African princes, and particularly the emperors of Morocco, became their

[[]i] Odor. Raynaldus, Annal. Ecclef. ad A. 1386. § iv. -WADDING! Annal Minor. tom. ix. p. 71.-Solignac, Hife toire de Pologne, tom. iii. p. 241.

auxiliaries against the Christians. On the other CENT. hand, the Roman pontiffs left no means unemployed XIV. PART 1 to excite the Christians to unite their forces against the Mahometans, and to drive them out of the Spanish territories; presents, exhortations, promises, in fhort, every allurement that religion, superstition, or avarice could render powerful, were made use of in order to the execution of this arduous project. The Christians accordingly, united their counsels and efforts for this end; and though for some time the difficulty of the enterprize rendered their progress but inconfiderable, yet even in this century their affairs carried a promifing aspect, and gave them reason to hope that they should one day triumph over their enemies, and become fole possessors of the Spanish dominions $\lceil k \rceil$.

CHAPTER II.

Concerning the calamitous events that happened to the Church during this century.

The Chriftian religion lofes their dominions in Asia with an amazing rapidity, and directed their arms against the Greeks as well as against the Saracens, destroyed wherever they went the fruits that had sprung up in such a rich abundance from the labours of the Christian missionaries, extirpated the religion of Jesus in several provinces and

[k] See Jo. de Ferreras, Histoire de l'Espagne, tom. iv. v. vii.—Fragmenta Histor. Romana, in Muratorii Antiqq. Ital. medii avi, tom. iii. p. 319. in which, however, there is a considerable mixture of truth and falsehood.—Baluzii Miscellan, tom. ii. p. 267.

cities where it flourished, and substituted the impos-CENT. tures of Mahomet in its place. Many of the Tar- xiv. tars had formerly professed the gospel, and still more PART I. had tolerated the exercise of that divine religion; but, from the beginning of this century, things put on a new face; and that fierce nation recounced every other religious doctrine, except that of the Alcoran. TIMUR BEG, commonly called TAMERLANE, their mighty emperor, embraced himself the doctrine of MAHOMET, though under a form different from that which was adopted by the Tartars in general [l]. This formidable warrior, after having subdued the greatest part of Asia, having triumphed over BAJA-ZET the emperor of the Turks, and even filled Europe with terror at the approach of his victorious arms, made use of his authority to force multitudes of Christians to apostatize from their holy faith. To the dictates of authority he added the compulsive power of violence and perfecution, and treated the disciples of Christ with the atmost barbarity. Perfuaded, as we learn from the most credible writers of his life and actions, that it was incumbent upon the true followers of Mahamer, to persecute the Christians, and that the most ample and glorious rewards were referved for fuch as were most instrumental in converting them to the Mahometan faith $\lceil m \rceil$; he employed the most inhuman acts of feverity to vanquish the magnanimous constancy of those that persevered in their attachment to the Christian religion, of whom some suffered death in the most

Ecclef. Tartaror. p. 124.
[m] Petit Croix, Histoire de Timur-Bec, tom. ii. p. 329.

fom. iii. p. 137. 243, &c.

^[1] This great TAMERLANE, whose name seemed to strike terror even when he was no more, adhered to the fect of the Sonnites, and professed the greatest enmity against their adversaries the Schiites. See Petit Croix, Histoire de Timur-Bec, tom. ii. p. 151. tom. iii. p. 228. It is, however, extremely doubtful, what was, in reality, the religion of TAMERLANE, though he protested the Mahometan faith. See Mosheim, Hift.

CENT. barbarous forms, while others were condemned to perpetual flavery $\lceil n \rceil$.

PART I. anity in China and

II. In those parts of $A f \mu a$, that are inhabited by the Chinese, Tartars, Moguls, and other nations as of Christi- yet less known, the Christian religion not only lost ground, but feemed to be totally extirpated. It is, in Tartary, at least, certain, that we have no account of any members of the Latin church residing in those countries, later than the year 1370, nor could we ever learn the fate of the Franciscan missionaries that had been fent thither from Rome. We have, indeed, fome records, from which it would appear that there were Nestorians residing in China so far down as the fixteenth century [0]; but these records are not so clear in relation to this matter, as to remove all uncertainty and doubting. However that may be, it is evident beyond all contradiction, that the abolition of Christianity, in those remote parts of the world, was owing to the wars that were carried on by the Tartars against the Chinese and other Asiatic nations; for in the year 1369, the last emperor of the race of GENGIS KAN was driven out of China, and his throne filled by the Mim family, who, by a folemn law, refused to all foreigners the privilege of entering into China.

[o] Nicol. Trigautius, De Christiana expeditione apud Sinas, lib. i. cap. xi. p. 116 .- Jos. Sim. Assemanni Biblioth. Orient. Vatican. tom. iii. part I. p. 592. & part II. p. 445. 536.-

Halde, Description de la China, tom. i. p. 175.

[[]n] Many instances of this we find in a History of Timur-Bec, wrote by a Persian, who was named Scherfedinus, tom. ii. p. 376. 384. 386. tom. iii. p. 243. tom. iv. p. 111. 115. 117. and published at *Delft*, in four volumes, 8vo, in the year 1723. -See also HERBELOT, Biblioth. Oriental. at the article TIMUR, p. 877.

PART II.

The Internal History of the Church.

CHAPTER I.

Concerning the state of letters and philosophy during this century.

- I. HE Greeks, though dejected by the CENT. foreign and intestine calamities in which they were XIV. involved, were far from withdrawing their attention PART II. and zeal from the cause of literature, as is evident The state from the great number of learned men who flou-of letters rished among them during this period. In this among honourable class was Nicephorus Gregoras, MANUEL CHRYSOLORAS, MAXIMUS PLANUDES, and many others, who, by their indefatigable application to the study of humanity and antiquities, criticism and grammar, acquired considerable reputation. To omit writers of inferior note, Theod-RUS METOCHILA, JOHN CANTACUZENUS, and NICEPHORUS GREGORAS, applied themselves to the composition of history, though with different success. Nor ought we to pass over in silence NICEPHORUS CALLISTUS, who compiled an Ecclefiastical History, which, notwithstanding its being debased with idle stories and evident marks of superstition, is highly useful on account of the light it casts on many important facts.
 - II. As none of the fages of this century was The state of adventurous enough to set up for a leader in philosophy among the philosophy, such of the Greeks as had a taste for Greeks.

The philosophical refearches adhered to Aristotle, as their conductor and guide; but we may learn from Part II the tracts of Theodorus Metochita in what manner they explained the principles and tenets of the Stagirite. Plato also had his followers, especially among those who were fond of mysticism, which had for many ages been held in the highest veneration by the Greeks. In the sublime sciences of mathematics and astronomy Nicolas Cabasilas surpassed all his contemporaries. Barlaam adopted the sentiments and precepts of the Stoics with respect to the obligations of morality and the duties of life, and digested them into a work of his, which

The flate of learning athong the Latins.

is known by the title of Ethica ex Stoicis [q]. III. In all the Latin provinces, schemes were laid and carried into execution with confiderable success. for promoting the study of letters, improving taste, and dispelling the pedantic spirit of the times. laudable disposition gave rise to the erection of many schools and academies, at Cologn, Orleans, Cabors, Perufia, Florence, and Pifa, in which all the liberal arts and sciences, distributed into the same classes that still subsist in those places, were taught with affiduity and zeal. Opulent perfons founded and amply endowed particular colleges in the public univerfities, in which, besides the monks, young men of narrow circumstances were educated in all the branches of literature. Libraries were also collected, and men of learning animated to aspire to same and glory, by the prospect of honourable rewards. must be confessed indeed, that the advantages arising to the church and state, from so many professors and learned men, did not wholly answer the expence and care bestowed on this undertaking, by men of rank and fortune: yet we are by no means to conclude, as many have rashly done, that all the doctors of this age, who rose gradually from the lower to the higher-

[[]q] HENRICI CANISH Lectiones Antique, tom. iv. p. 403.

and more honourable stations, were only distin-cent. guished by their stupidity and ignorance.

IV. CLEMENT V. who was now raised to the PART II. pontificate, ordered the Hebrew, and other Ori-The state of ental languages, to be taught in the public schools, languages. that the church might never want a fufficient number of missionaries properly qualified to dispute with the Iews and Mahometans, and to diffuse the divine light of the gospel throughout the east $\lceil r \rceil$: consequence of which appointment, some eminent proficients in these tongues, and especially in the Hebrew, flourished during this age. The Greek language, which hitherto had been much neglected, was now revived, and taught with general applause, first of all by Leontius Pilatus, a Calabrian, who wrote a commentary upon Homer, and a few others [s], but afterwards, with far greater fuccess and reputation, by MANUEL CHRYSOLORAS [t], a native of Constantinople. Nor were there wanting fome extraordinary geniuses, who, by their zeal and application, contributed to the restoration of the ancient and genuine eloquence of the Latins, among whom the excellent and justly-renowned PETRARCH Jayar h held the first place [u], and DANTE ALIGHIERI fante the fecond. Full of this worthy defign, they both

[r] See Ant. Wood, Antiq. Oxonienf. tom. i. p. 156. 159. [s] See Humph. Hody, De Græcis illustribus, Lingua Græca Literarumque humaniorum inflauratoribus, lib. i. p. 5. Londini, 1742, in 8vo.—CALOGERA, Opusculi Scientissici, tom. XXV. p. 258.

[t] Hody, loc. cit. lib. i. p. 10.—Angeli Caloger # loc. cit. p. 248.—And more especially Christ. Frid. Borneri Lib. de Gracis Literarum Gracarum in Italia instauratoribus.

[u] See Jac. Phil. Thomasini vita Petrarchi in Jo. Gerh. MEUSCHEN Vitæ claror. viror. tom. iv. who in his Preface enumerates all the other writers of his life. Of the celebrated poet $\mathbf{D}\mathtt{ANTE}$, feveral have treated, particularly his translator Benevenutus of Imola, from whence Muratorius has borrowed large extractsin his Antiquit. Ital. medii ævi, tom. i. р. 1036. /.

CENT. acted as if they had received an extraordinary XIV. commission to promote the reign of true taste and PART II. the progress of polite learning; and their success was

answerable to the generous ambition that animated their efforts; for they had many followers and admirers, not only among their countrymen, but also among the French and Germans.

of the other sci-

V. The writings of this age furnish us with a long lift of grammarians, historians, lawyers, and phylicians, of which it would be eafy to give a circumstantial account: but as it is quite foreign to our purpose, it will be sufficient to inform our readers, that there were but few of this vast multitude, whose labours were in any great degree useful to fociety. Great numbers applied themselves to the study of the civil and canon law, because it was the readiest way to preferment both in church and state. Such as have any tolerable acquaintance with history, cannot be entire strangers to the fame of BARTOLUS, BALDUS, ANDREAS, and other doctors of laws in this century, who reflected honour on the univerfities of Italy. But, after all, it is certain that the jurisprudence of this age was a most intricate difagreeable study, unenlivened either by history or language, and destitute of every allurement that could recommend it to a man of genius. As for the mathematics, they were cultivated by many; yet, if we except Dr. Thomas Bradwardine, the acute and learned archbishop of Canterbury, there were but few who acquired any reputation worth mentioning by this kind of study.

Of philosophy.

VI. The vast number of philosophers, who rather diffraced than adorned this century, looked upon ARISTOTLE as their infallible oracle and guide; though they stript him of all those excellencies that really belonged to him, and were incapable of entering into the true spirit of his writings. So great was the authority of the peripatetic philosophy, that, is order to disfuse the knowledge of it as

widely as possible, even kings and emperors ordered c E N T. the works of Aristotle to be translated into xiv. the native language of their respective dominions. PART II. Among the most eminent of this class was CHARLES V. king of France, who ordered all the writings of the ancients, and especially those of Aristotle, to be translated into French by Nicholas Oresme w]. Those, however, who professed themselves philosophers, instead of being animated by the love of truth, were inflamed by a rage of disputation, which led them to perplex and deform the pure, simple doctrines of reason and religion, by a multitude of idle fubtilties, trifling questions, and ridiculous distinctions. It is needless to enlarge on the barbarity of their phraseology, in which they supposed the whole strength of their art consisted; as also on that utter aversion to every branch of polite learning in which they foolishly gloried. Those who have a mind to be acquainted with their methods of argumentation, and whatever elfe relates to this wrangling tribe, need only confult John Scotus, or Walter Bulæus. But though they all followed one common track, there were feveral points on which they differed among themselves.

VII. The old disputes between the Realists and TheRealists Nominalists, which had lain dormant a long time, and Nominalists, were now revived with unextinguishable ardour, by an English Franciscan friar of the severer order, named William Occam, who was a follower of the great Scotus, and a doctor of divinity at Paris. The Greeks and Persians never fought against each other with more hatred and sury, than these two discordant sects, whose angry disputations subsisted without any abatement, till the appearance of Luther, who soon obliged the scholastic divines to

[[]w] Jo. Launoius, Hist. Gymnas. Navarr. tom. iv. opp. part I. p. 504.—Boulay, Histor. Acad. Paris. tom. iv. p. 379.
—Le Boeuf, Dissert. sur l'Hist. Eccles. et Civille, Par. tom. iii. p. 456. 463. s.

XIV.

CENT. terminate their mutual wranglings, and to liften to terms of accommodation. The Realists despised their PART II. antagonists as philosophers of a recent date, branding them with the name of Moderns, while, through a great mistake, they ascribed a very high antiquity to the tenets of their own party. The Nominalists, on the other hand, inveighed against them as a set of doating visionaries, who, despising substantial matters, were pursuing mere shadows. The Nominalists had the most eloquent, acute, and subtile doctors of Paris for their leaders, among whom, befides Occam, the famous John Buridan [x] was very eminent: nevertheless, through the countenance given them by fuccessive popes, the Realists prevailed. For when Occam joined the party of the Franciscan monks, who strenuously opposed John XXII. that pope himself, and his successors after him, left no means untried to extirpate the philosophy of the Nominalifts, which was deemed highly prejudicial to the interests of the church $\lceil y \rceil$: and hence it was, that, in the year 1339, the university of Paris, by a public edict, folemnly condemned and prohibited the philosophy of Occam, which was that of the Nominalifts $\lceil z \rceil$. But, as it is natural for men to love and purfue what is forbidden, the confequence was, that the party of the Nominalists flourished more than ever. VIII. Among the philosophers of these times,

Aftrolegy mingles it- there were many who mingled aftrology with their felf with the philosophy of the aspect of the heavens, and the influence of the stars; times, and is confidered as magic.

philosophy, i. e. the art of telling fortunes, by the

[y] Steph. Baluzii Miscellanea, tom. iv. p. 532.

[[]N] ROB. GUAGINUS wrote a particular account of this famous man, as we learn from Jo. LAUNOIUS, in his Hiftoria Gymnasii Navarreni, tom. iv. opp. part I. p. 722. fee also p. 296, 297. 330. and Boulay, Histor. Acad. Paris. tom. iv. p. 282. 307. 341, &c.

^[2] BOULAY, Hift. Acad. Parif. tom. iv. p. 257. tom. v. p. 708 .- CAR. PLESS. D'ARGENTRE, Collectio judiciorum de novis erroribus, &c. fee Mosheim.

and, notwithstanding the obvious folly and absurdity CENT. of this pretended science, all ranks of people, from xIV. the highest down to the lowest, were fond of it even PART II. to distraction. Yet, in spite of all this popular prejudice in favour of their art, these astrological philosophers, to avoid being impeached of witchcraft, and to keep themselves out of the hands of the inquisitors, were obliged to behave with great circumspection. The neglect of this caution was remarkably fatal to Ceccus Asculanus, a famous peripatetic philosopher, astrologer, and mathematician, first of all physician to pope John XXII. and afterwards to CHARLES SINETERRA, duke of Calabria. This unhappy man having performed fome experiments in mechanics, that feemed miraculous to the vulgar, and having also offended many, and among the rest his master, by giving out some predictions, which were faid to have been fulfilled, was univerfally supposed to deal with infernal spirits, and burnt for it by the inquisitors at Florence, in the year 1337 [a]. There is yet extant a commentary of his upon the Sphere of John de Sacrobosco, otherwise named Holywood, which shews its author to have been deeply tainted with fuperstition $\lceil b \rceil$.

IX. RAYMUND LULLY was the author of a new The philoand very fingular kind of philosophy, which he fophy of endeavoured to illustrate and defend by his voluminous writings. He was a native of Majorca, and admirable for the extent and fecundity of his genius; yet, at the same time, a strange compound of reason and folly. Being full of zeal for the propagation of the gospel, and having performed many voyages,

[b] GABR. NAUDÆUS, Apologie pour les grands hommes qui

ent eté soupsonnez de Magie, p. 270. s.

[[]a] PAUL ANTON. Applanus wrote a defence of this unhappy man, which is inferted in Domen. Bernini Storia di tutte l'heresie, tom. iii. sæc. xiv. cap. iii. p. 210. s. We have also a further account of him in Jo. MARIA CRESCIMEENUS. Commentari della volgar. Poesia, vol. ii. part II. lib. iii. cap. xiv.

CENT. and undergone various hardships to promote it, he was flain at Bugia, in Africa, in the year 1315, by PART II. the Mahometans, whom he was attempting to convert. The Franciscans, to whose third order it is faid he belonged, extol him to the skies, and have taken great pains to perfuade several popes to canonize him: while many on the contrary, and especially the Dominicans, inveigh bitterly against him, calling him a harebrained chymist, a hot-headed fanatic, a heretic, a magician, and a mere compiler of the works of the more learned Mahometans. The popes entertained different opinions of him; fome esteeming him a harmless pious man, while others pronounced him a vile heretic. But whoeverperuses the writings of Lully without prejudice, will not be biassed by either of these parties. at least certain, that he would have been a great man, had the warmth and fertility of his imagination been tempered with a found judgment $\lceil c \rceil$.

[c] See John Salzinger's Preface to Raymund Lully's Works, which John William, elector Palatine, caused to be collected at a great expence, and to be published, in 1720, in five folio volumes. Luc. Waddingus, Annal. Minor. tom. iv. p. 421. tom. v. p. 157. 316. tom. vi. p. 229. Concerning the famous invention of Lully, see Dan. Georg. Morhofius, Polyhistoire, lib. ii. cap. v. p. 352. s.

CHAPTER II.

Concerning the doctors and government of the church during this century.

I. THE governors of the church in this CENT. period, from the highest to the lowest orders, were XIV. addicted to vices peculiarly dishonourable to their PART II. facred character. We shall say nothing of the Thecorrupt Grecian and Oriental clergy, who lived, for the state of the most part, under a rigid, severe, and oppressive clergy. government, though they deserve their part in this heavy and ignominious charge. But with regard to the Latins our filence would be inexcusable, fince the flagrant abuses that prevailed among them were attended with confequences equally pernicious to the interests of religion and the well-being of civil fociety. It is however necessary to observe, that there were, even in these degenerate times, feveral pious and worthy men, who ardently longed for a reformation of the church, both in its head and members, as they used to express themselves $\lceil d \rceil$. Laudable as these desires undoubtedly were, many circumstances concurred to prevent their accomplishment; fuch as the exorbitant power of the popes, fo confirmed by length of time that it feemed immoveable, the excessive superstition that enslaved the minds of the generality, together with the wretched ignorance and barbarity of the age, by which every spark of truth was stifled, as it were, in its very birth. Yet, firm and lasting as the dominion of the Roman pontiffs feemed to be, it was gradually undermined and weakened, partly by

[[]d] MATT. FLACIUS, Catalogo testium veritatis, lib. xiii. p. 1697. Jo. Launoius, De varia fortuna Aristotelis, p. 217. Jo. Henr. Hottingeri Historia Eccles. Sac. xiv. p. 754.

the pride and raffiness of the popes themselves, and CENT. partly by feveral unexpected events. XIV. II. This important change may be dated from PART II.

Philip king of France papal tyranny.

the quarrel which arose between Boniface VIII. who filled the papal throne about the beginning of opposes the this century, and Philip the Fair, king of France. This prince, who was endowed with a bold and enterprifing spirit, foon convinced Europe, that it was possible to fet bounds to the overgrown arrogance of the bishop of Rome, notwithstanding many crowned heads had attempted it without fuccess. Boniface fent Philip the haughtiest letters imaginable, in which he afferted, that the king of France, with all other kings and princes whatfoever were obliged, by a divine command, to fubmit to the authority of the popes, as well in all political and civil matters, as in those of a religious nature. The king answered him with great spirit, and in terms expressive of the utmost contempt. The rejoined with more arrogance than ever; and, in that famous bull, unam fanctam, which he published about this time, afferted that Jesus Christ had granted a twofold power to his church, or, in other words, the spiritual and temporal sword; that he had subjected the whole human race to the authority of the Roman pontiff, and that whoever dared to disbelieve it, were to be deemed heretics, and stood excluded from all possibility of falvation $\lceil e \rceil$. The king, on the other hand, in an affembly of the peers of his kingdom, held in the year 1303, ordered WILLIAM DE NOGARET, a celebrated lawyer [f]

[[]e] This bull is yet extant in the Corpus Juris Canon. Extravugant. Commun. lib. i. tit. De majoritate et obedientia.

[[]f] Of this celebrated lawyer, who was the most intrepid and inveterate enemy the popes ever had before LUTHER, none have given us a fuller account than the Benedictine monks, Hift. Generale de Languedoc, tom. iii. p. 114. 117. J. PHILIP made him chancellor of France for his resolute opposition against the pope.

to draw up an accusation against the pope, in which CENT. he publicly charged him with herestes, simony, and XIV. many other vices, demanding, at the same time, an PART II. eccumenical council to depose such an execrable pontiss. The pope, in his turn, passed a sentence of excommunication, that very year, against the king and all his adherents.

III. PHILIP, shortly after he received his sen-The event tence, held an affembly of the states of the kingdom, of this warm conwhere he again employed some persons of the highest test. rank and reputation to fit in judgment upon the pope, and appealed to a general council. After this he fent WILLIAM DE NOGARET, with some others, into Italy, to excite a fedition, to feize the pope's person, and then to convey him to Lyons, where the king was determined to hold the above-mentioned council. NOGARET, being a resolute active man, foon drew over to his affiftance the powerful family of the Colonnas, then at variance with the pope, levied a small army, seized Boniface, who lived in perfect fecurity at Anagni, and as foon as he had got him into his power, treated him in the most shocking manner, carried his refentment fo far as to wound him on the head by a blow with his iron gauntlet. The inhabitants of Anagni rescued him out of the hands of this fierce and inveterate enemy, and conducted him to Rome, where he died foon after of an illnefs occasioned by the rage and anguish into which these infults had thrown him $\lceil g \rceil$.

[g] See the AEIa inter Bonifacium VIII. Bened. XI. Clement V. et Philippum Pulchrum, published, A. D. 1614, by Peter Puteanus.—Adr. Baillett, Hist. de Demelez du Boniface VIII. avec Philippe de Bel, printed at Paris, in 4to, in 1718.—Jo. Rublus, in Bonifacio, cap. xvi. p. 137.—The other writers on this subject are mentioned by Baillett, in his Preface, p. 9.—See also Boulay, Hist. Acad. Paris. tom. iv. p. 4.

The papal refidence

to Asignon.

CENT. IV. BENEDICT XI. who fucceeded him, and XIV. whose name before his accession to the papal chair PARTIL was NICOLAS BOCEACINI, learned prudence by this fatal example, and purfued more moderate and gentle measures. He repealed, of his own accord, the fentence of excommunication that his predecessor had thundered out against the king of France and his dominions: but never could be prevailed upon to absolve Nogarer of his treason against the ghostly majesty of the pontisicate. NOGARET, on the other hand, fet a small value upon the papal abfolution, and profecuted, with his ufual vigour and intrepidity, in the Roman court, the accusation that he had formerly brought against Boniface; and, in the name of his royal mafter, infifted, that the memory of that pontiff should be branded with a notorious mark of infamy. While this was tranfacting, Benedict died, A. D. 1304; upon which PHILIP, by his artful intrigues in the conclave, obtained the fee of Rome for a French prelate BERTRAND DE GOT, archbishop of Bourdeaux, who was accordingly elected to that high dignity, on the 5th of June 1305. This step was so much the more necessary, in that the breach between the king and the court of Rome was not yet entirely healed, and, as Nogaret was not as yet absolved, might eafily be renewed. Besides, the French monarch, inflamed with the defire of revenge, intifted upon the formal condemnation of Boniface by the court of Rome, the abolition of the order of Templars, and other concessions of great importance, which he could not reasonably expect from an Italian pope. Hence he looked upon a French pontiff, in whose zeal and compliance he could confide, as necessary to the execution of his defigns. Ber-TRAND assumed the name of CLEMENT V. and, at the king's request, remained in France, and removed the papal refidence to Avignon, where it continued during the space of seventy years. This period the

Italians call, by way of derifion, the Babylonish CENT. captivity $\lceil h \rceil$.

V. There is no doubt, but that the continued PART II. residence of the popes in France greatly impaired The dimithe authority of the Roman see. For during the nation of absence of the pontiss from Rome, the faction of the the papel Gibellines, their inveterate enemies, rose to a greater authority. height then ever; infomuch, that they not only invaded and ravaged St. Peter's patrimony, but even attacked the papal authority, by their writings. This caused many cities to revolt from the popes: even Rome itself was the grand fource and fomenter of cabals, tumults, and civil wars; infomuch that laws and decrees fent thither from France were publicly treated with contempt by the common people, as well as by the nobles [i]. The influence of this example was propagated from Italy through most parts of Europe; it being evident, from a vast number of instances, that the Europeans in general did not pay near fo much regard to the decrees and thunders of the Gallic popes, as they did to those of Rome. This gave rife to various feditions against the pontiffs, which they could not entirely crush, even with the aid of the inquisitors, who exerted themfelves with the most barbarous fury.

VI. The French pontiffs, finding they could draw New but small revenues from their Italian dominions, which fehemes invented by

[b] For an account of the French popes, confult chiefly to acquire STEPH. BALUZII Vita Pontif. Avenionensium, published at Paris riches. in two volumes 4to, in the year 1693. The reader may also peruse, but it must be with the utmost caution, Longueval's

History of the Gallican Church, and those who continued that work after his death. See more especially tom. xii. Jesuit, and his successors, have shewn great industry and eloquence in the composition of this history; but they, for the most part, artfully conceal the vices and enormities of the Roman pontiffs.

[i] See Baluzii Pontif. Avenion. tom. ii. p. 290, 291. 301. 309. 323. and many other places. - MURATORII Antiqq. Ital. tom. iii. p. 397. 401. 409, &c .- GIANNONE, Histoire de Naples,

tom. iii. p. 280.

CENT. were now torn in pieces by faction, and ravaged by

fedition, were obliged to contrive new methods of PART II. accumulating wealth. For this purpose they not only fold indulgences to the people, more frequently than they had formerly done, whereby they made themselves extremely odious to several potentates, but also disposed publicly of scandalous licences, of all forts, at an excessive price. John XXII. was remarbably fhrewd and zealous in promoting this abominable traffic; for, though he was not the first inventor of the taxes and rules of the apostolical chancery, yet the Romish writers acknowledge that he enlarged and rendered them more extensively profitable to the holy treasury $\lceil k \rceil$. It is certain, that the origin of the tribute paid to the popes under the name of Annates and which is generally affirmed to have been first imposed by him, is of a much earlier date [1]. Besides the abuses now mentioned, these Gallic popes, having abolished the right of elections, arrogated to themselves a power of conferring all the offices of the church, whether greater or smaller, according to their fancy, by which they foon amassed prodigious wealth. It was also under their government that referves, provisions, expectatives, and other impositions of the like odious nature, that had feldom or never been heard of before, became familiar to the public ear, and filled all Europe with bitter complaints $\lceil m \rceil$. These complaints

[k] Jo. Ciampinus, De vicecancellario ecclesia Rom. p. 39.—Car. Chais, Lettres sur les Jubiles, tom. ii. p. 673. and others.

[/] BERNH. van ESPEN, Jus Ecclef. univerfale, tom. ii. p. 876.—Boulay, Histor. Acad. Parif. tom. iv. p. 911.—Ant. Wood, Antiquit. Oxon. tom. i. p. 213.—Guil. Franc. Berthier, Disf. fur les Annates, tom. xii. Hist. de l'Eglise Callic. p. 1.

[m] STEPH. BALUZII Miscellan. tom. iii. p. 479. 518. Ejus Vit. Pontis. Avenion. tom. ii. p. 60. 63. 65. 74. 154. 156. Gallia Christiana Benedictinor. tom. i. Append. p. 13. Wood, Antiquit. Oxon. tom. i. p. 148. 201, 202. Boulay, Hist. Acad.

Earif. tom. iv. p. 911.

exceeded all bounds, when some of these pontists, cent. particularly John XXII. Clement VI. and XIII. Gregory X. openly declared that they had Part II. reserved to themselves all churches and parishes within their jurisdiction, and were determined, in consequence of that sovereign authority and plenitude of power which Christ had conferred upon them, his vicars, to provide for them, and dispose of them without exception [n]. It was by these and other such mean and selssish contrivances, which had no other end than the acquisition of riches, that these inconsiderate pontists excited a general hatred against the Roman see, and thereby greatly weakened the papal empire, which had been visibly upon the decline from the time of Boniface.

VII. CLEMENT V. was a mere creature of The obse-PHILIP the Fair, and was absolutely directed and quiousness of Clement governed by that prince as long as he lived. WIL-v. to Phi-LIAM DE NOGARET, the implacable enemy of lip. BONIFACE VIII. notwithstanding he was under a fentence of excommunication, had the boldness to profecute his mafter's cause, and his own, against BONIFACE, even in the pope's court; an instance of affurance this, not easy to be paralleled. Philip infifted, that the dead body of Boniface should be dug up, and publicly burnt; but CLEMENT averted this infamy by his advice and intreaties, promifing implicit obedience to the king in every thing else. In order therefore to keep his word, he was obliged to abrogate the laws enacted by Boniface, to grant the king a bounty of five years' tithes, fully to absolve Nogaret of all his crimes, on condition of his fubmiting to a light penance (which, however, henever performed), to restore the citizens of Anagni to their reputation and honour, and to call a general

[[]n] BALUZII Pontif. Avenion. tom. ii. p. 873. tom. i. p. 285. 311.681. f. Ant. Matthal Analeda vet. avi, tom. v. p. 249. f. Gallie Christiana, tom. i. p. 69. 1208. Histoire du droit Eccles. François, tom. ii. p. 129. s.

CENT. council at Vienna in the year 1311, in order to condemn the Templars, on whose destruction PHILIP PART II. was most ardently bent. In this council every thing was determined as the king thought proper. For CLEMENT, terrified by the melancholy fate of BONIFACE durst not venture to oppose this intrepid and obstinate monarch $\lceil o \rceil$.

John XXII.

VIII. Upon CLEMENT's death, which happened Nicolas V. in the year 1314, many fierce contentions arose in the conclave about choosing a successor, the French cardinals infifting upon a French, and those of Italy demanding an Italian pope. After a contest, which continued two years, the French party prevailed, and, in the year 1316, elected James de Euse, a native of Cabors, and cardinal bishop of Porto. He affumed the name of JOHN XXII. and had a tolerable fhare of learning, but was at the fame time crafty and proud, weak, imprudent, and covetous, which is allowed even by those writers who, in other respects, speak well of him. He is deservedly censured on account of his temerity, and the ill fuccess that attended him, through his own imprudence, in many of his enterprises; but he is more especially blamed for that calamitous and unhappy war into which he entered against Lewis of Bavaria. This powerful prince disputed the imperial throne of Germany with Frederic, duke of Austria; and they had been both chosen to that high dignity, in the year 1314, by their respective partisans among the electors and princes of the empire. John took it for granted, that the decision of this contest came under his ghostly jurisdiction. But, in the year 1322, the duke of Bavaria having vanquished his competitor by force of arms, took upon him the

^[0] Besides the common writers already cited, see Guil. FRANC. BERTHIERII, Discours sur le Pontificat de Clement V. tom. iii. Historia Eccles. Gallic. Colonia. Hist. Litter. de Lyon, tom. i. p 340. Gallia Christiana Benedict. tom. i. p. 1189. & tom. ii. p. 829.

administration of the empire without asking the CENT. pope's approbation, and would by no means allow, XIV. that their difpute, already determined by the fword, PART II. should be again decided by the judgment of the pope. John interpreted this refusal as a heinous infult upon his authority, and, by an edict iffued out in the year 1324, pretended to deprive the emperor of his crown. But this impotent refentment was very little regarded; nay, he was even accused of herefy by the emperor, who, at the fame time, appealed to a general council. Highly exasperated by these and other deserved affronts, the pontiff prefumes, in the year 1327, to declare the imperial throne vacant a fecond time, and even to publish a fentence of excommunication against the chief of the empire. This new mark of papal arrogance was feverely refented by LEWIS, who, in the year 1328, published an edict at Rome, by which JOHN was declared unworthy of the pontificate, deposed from that dignity, and succeeded in it by one of his bitterest enemies PETER DE CORBIERI, a Franciscan monk, who assumed the name NICOLAS V. and crowned the emperor at Rome in a folemn and public manner. But in the year 1330, this imperial pope voluntarily abdicated the chair of St. Peter, and furrendered himself to John, who kept him in close confinement at Avignon for the rest of his days. Thus ended the contest between the duke of Bavaria and John XXII. who, notwithstanding their mutual efforts to dethrone each other, continued both in the possession of their respective dignities $\lceil p \rceil$.

[p] The particulars of this violent quarrel may be learnt from the Records published by Steph. Baluz. in his Vita Pontif. Avenion. tom. ii. p. 512. f.—Edm. Martene, Thefaur. Anecdotor. tom. ii. p. 641. f.—Jo. Georg. Herwart, in Ludovico Imperatore defenso contra Bzovium, Monachii 1618, in 4to, et Christ. Gewald. in Apologia pro Ludovico Bavaro, Ingoldstadt 1618, in 4to, against the same Bzovius, who, in the Annals

Jehn XXII. accused of herefy.

CENT.

XIV.

IX. The numerous tribes of the Fratricellist Beghards, and Spiritual Franciscans, adhered to the PART II. party of Lewis. Supported by his patronage, and difperfed throughout the greatest part of Europe; they attacked every where the reigning pontiff, as an enemy to the true religion, and loaded him with the heaviest accusations and the bitterest invectives. both in their writings and in their ordinary converfation. These attacks did not greatly affect the pontiff, as they were made only by private persons, by a fet of obscure monks, who, in many respects, were unworthy of his notice; but, towards the conclusion of his life, he incurred the disapprobation and censures of almost the whole Catholic church. For in the year 1331 and 1332, having afferted, in fome public discourses, that the souls of the faithful, in their intermediate state, were permitted to behold Christ as man, but not the face of God, or the divine nature, before their re-union with the body at the last day, this doctrine highly offended PHILIP VI. king of France, was opposed by the pope's friends as well as by his enemies, and unanimoully condemned by the divines of Paris, in the year 1333. This favourite tenet of the pope was thus feverely treated, because it seemed highly prejudicial to the felicity of happy spirits in their unembodied state; otherwise the point might have

> he had published, basely aspersed the memory of the emperor. See also Luc. Waddingus in Annalib. Minor. tom. vii. p. 77. 106. f. &c. Whoever attentively peruses the history of this war, will perceive that Lewis of Bavaria followed the example of Philip the Fair, king of France. As Philip brought an accufation of herefy against BONIFACE, so did Lewis with respect to John XXII. The French monarch made use of NOGARET and other accusers against the one pontiff. LEWIS employed Occam and the Franciscans in that quality against the other. Each of them infifted upon the affembling a general council, and upon the deposition of the pontists who had incurred their displeasure. I omit other circumstances that might be alleged to render the parallel more (triking.

been yielded to a man of his positive temper, with-CENT. out any material confequence. Alarmed by these xiv. vigorous proceedings, he immediately offered fome-PART II. thing by way of excuse for having espoused this opinion; and afterwards, in the year 1334, when he lay at the point of death, though he did not entirely renounce, he, in some measure, softened it, by faying he believed that the unembodied fouls of the righteous beheld the divine effence as far as their feparate state and condition would permit $\lceil q \rceil$. This declaration did not fatisfy his adversaries; hence his fuccessor, Benedict XII. after many disputes had been held about it, put an end to this controverfy by an unanimous resolution of the Parisian doctors, ordering it to be received as an article of faith, that the fouls of the bleffed, during their intermediate state, did fully and perfectly contemplate the divine nature [r]. Benedict's publishing this resolution could be in no way injurious to the memory of John; for when the latter lay upon his death-bed, he submitted his opinion to the judgment of the church, that he might not be deemed a heretic after his decease [s].

[q] See Steph. Baluzii Vitæ Pontif. Avenion. tom. i. p. 175. 177. 182. 197. 221. 786, &c.—Luc. Dacherii Spicil. Scriptor. Veter. tom. i. p. 760. ed. Vet.—Jo. Launoii Historia Gymnas. Navarreni, part I. cap. vii. p. 319. tom. iv. part I. opp.—Boulay, Histor. Acad. Paris. tom. iv. p. 235. 250—Luc. Waddingi Annal. Minor. tom. vi. p. 371. tom. vii. p. 145.—Jac. Echardi Scriptor. Prædicator. tom. i. p. 599. 608.
[r] Baluzii Vit. Pontif. Avenion. tom. i. p. 197. 216. 221.

[r] BALUZII Vit. Pontif. Avenion. tom. 1. p. 197. 216. 221 224. 236.

Vision were nothing in comparison with a vile and most enormous practical heresy that was found in his coffers after his death, viz. five and twenty millions of florins, of which there were eighteen in specie, and the rest in plate, jewels, crowns, mitres, and other precious baubles, all which he had squeezed out of the people and the inferior clergy during his pontificate. See FLEURY, Hist. Eccles. livr. xciv. § xxxix.

XIV.

Benedict

XII.

CENT.

X. John dying in the year 1334, new contentions arose in the conclave between the French and Italian PART II. cardinals about the election of a pope; but towards the end of the year they chose JAMES FOURNIER, a Frenchman, and cardinal of St. Prisca, who. took the name of BENEDICT XII. The writers of these times represent him as a man of great probity, who was neither chargeable with that avarice, nor that ambition, that dishonoured so many of his predecessors [t]. He put an end to the papal quarrel with the emperor Lewis: and though he did not restore him to the communion of the church, because prevented, as it is faid, by the king of France, yet he did not attempt any thing against him. He carefully attended to the grievances of the church, redressed them as far as was in his power, endeayoured to reform the fundamental laws of the monastic societies, whether of the mendicant, or more opulent orders; and died in the year 1342, while he was laying the most noble schemes for promoting a yet more extensive reformation. In fhort, if we overlook his fuperstition, the prevailing blemish of this barbarous age, it must be allowed that he was a man of integrity and merit.

Clement V1.

XI. He was fucceeded by a man of a quite different disposition, CLEMENT VI. a native of France, whose name was Peter Roger, and who was cardinal of St. Nereus and St. Achilles, before his elevation to the pontificate. Not to infift upon the most unexceptionable parts of this pontisf's conduct, we shall only observe that he trod faithfully in the steps of John XXII. in providing for vacant churches and bishoprics, by reserving to himself the disposal of them, which shewed his fordid and insatiable avarice; that he conferred ecclefiaftical dignities

[[]t] See the Fragmenta Histor. Roman. in MURATORII Antiquit. I'al. ton. iii. p. 275 .- BALUZII Vit. Pont. Avenion. tom. p. 205. 218. 240, &c .- Boulay, Histor. Acad. Parif. tom. iv. p. 253.

and benefices of the highest consequence upon CENT. strangers and Italians, which drew upon him the xiv. warm displeasure of the kings of England and France; PART U. and lastly, that by renewing the dissentions that had formerly subsisted between Lewis of Bavaria and the Roman fee, he displayed to the world his excessive vanity and ambition in the most odious colours. In the year 1343, he affailed the emperor with his thundering edicts; and when he heard that they were treated by that prince with the utmost contempt, his rage augmented, and he not only threw out new maledictions, and published new fentences of excommunication against him, in the year 1346, but also excited the German princes to cled HENRY VII. fon to CHARLES IV. emperor in his place. This violent measure would infallibly have occasioned a civil war in Germany, had it not been prevented by the death of Lewis, in the year 1347. CLEMENT did not long furvive him, for he died in the year 1352, famous for nothing but his excessive zeal for extending the papal authority, and for his having added Avignon, which he purchased of JOAN, queen of Napies, to the patrimony of St. Peter.

XII. His fuccessor Innocent VI. whose name Innocent was Stephen Albert, was much more remarkable VI. Urban V. for integrity and moderation. He was a Frenchman, and before his election had been bishop of Oftia. He died in the year 1362, after having governed the church ten years. His greatest blemish was, that he promoted his relations with an excessive partiality, but in other respects he was a man of merit, and a great encourager of pious and learned men. He kept the monks closely to their duty, carefully abstained from reserving churches, and, by many, good actions, acquired a great and deserved reputation. He was succeeded by William Grimoard, abbot of St. Victor, at Marseilles, who took the name of Urban V. and was entirely free

CENT. from all the groffer vices, if we except those which cannot eafily be separated from the papal dignity. PART II. This pope, being prevailed on by the entreaties of the Romans, returned to Rome in the year 1367, but, in 1370, he came back to Avignon, to reconcile the differences that had arifen between the kings of England and France, and died there the fame year.

Gregory XI

XIII. He was fucceeded by Peter Roger, a French ecclefiaftic of illustrious descent, who assumed the name of GREGORY XI. a man, who, though inferior to his predeceffors in virtue, exceeded them far in courage and affurance. In his time Italy in general, and the city of Rome in particular, was distressed with most outrageous and formidable tumults. The Florentines carried on fuccefsfully a terrible war against the ecclesiastical state $\lceil u \rceil$. Upon which GREGORY, in hopes of quieting the diforders of Italy, and also of recovering the cities and territories which had been taken from St. Peter's patrimony, transferred the papal feat from Avignon to Rome, in the year 1376. To this he was in a great measure determined by the advice of one CATHARINE, a virgin of Sens, who, in this credulous age, was thought to be inspired with the spirit of prophecy, and made a journey to Avignon on purpose to persuade him to take this step $\lceil w \rceil$. was not, however, long before GREGORY repented that he had followed her advice: for by the long absence of the popes from Italy, their authority was reduced to such a low ebb, that the Romans and Florentines made no scruple to insult him with the groffest abuse, which made him resolve to return to

[w] See Longueval, Hift. de l'Eglife Gallicane, tom. xiv.

p. 159, 192,

[[]u] See, chiefly, Coluzii Salutati Epiftola, written in the name of the Florentines, part I. p. 47-100. 148. 162. See also Prafat. ad part II. p. xviii. the new Florentine edition by Laur. Menus.

Avignon; but before he could execute his deter-CENT. mination he was taken off by death, in the year XIV.

XIV. After the death of Gregory XI. the A great cardinals affembled to confult about choosing a fchilm fuccessor, when the people of Rome, fearing lest the arises in the Romish vacant dignity should be conferred on a Frenchman, church. came in a tumultuous manner to the conclave, and with great clamours, accompanied with many outrageous threatenings, infifted that an Italian should be advanced to the popedom. The cardinals, terrified by this uproar, immediately proclaimed BARTHO-LOMEW DE PREGNANO, who was a Neapolitan, and archbishop of Bari, and assumed the name of URBAN VI. This new pontist, by his unpolite behaviour, injudicious feverity, and intolerable arrogance, had made himself many enemies among people of all ranks, and especially among the leading cardinals. These latter therefore, tired of his insolence, withdrew from Rome to Anagni, and from thence to Fondi, a city in the kingdom of Naples, where they elected to the pontificate Robert count of Geneva, who took the name of CLEMENT VII. and declared at the same time, that the election of URBAN was nothing more than a mere ceremony, which they had found themselves obliged to perform, in order to calm the turbulent rage of the populace. Which of these two is to be considered as the true and lawful pope, is, to this day, matter of doubt; nor will the records and writings alleged by the contending parties, enable us to adjust that point with any certainty [x]. URBAN remained at Rome: CLEMENT

[[]N] See the acts and documents in CES. EGASS. DE BOULAY, Hift. Acad. Parif. tom. iv. p. 463. f.—Luc. Wadding. Annal. Minor. tom. ix. p. 12. f.—Steph. Baluzii Vit. Pontif. Avenion. tom. i. p. 442. 998. f.—Ada Sandor. tom. i. April. p. 728. I have also some documents never yet published, which throw great light upon this controversy, though they do not absolutely determine the point in dispute.

CENT. went to Avignon in France. His cause was espoused XIV. by France and Spain, Scotland, Sicily, and Cyprus, PART II. while all the rest of Europe acknowledged URBAN to be the true vicar of Christ.

Its bad con-

XV. Thus the union of the Latin church under fequences, one head was destroyed at the death of Gregory XI. and was succeeded by that deplorable diffension, commonly known by the name of the great western febifin [y]. This diffension was fomented with such dreadful fuccess, and arose to such a shameful height. that, for the space of fifty years, the church had two or three different heads at the same time; each of the contending popes forming plots, and thundering out anathemas against their competitors. The diffress and calamity of these times is beyond all power of description; for, not to insist upon the perpetual contentions and wars between the factions of the feveral popes, by which multitudes loft their fortunes and lives, all fense of religion was extinguished in most places, and prosligacy rose to a most fcandalous excess. The clergy, while they vehemently contended which of the reigning popes was the true fuccessor of Christ, were so excessively corrupt, as to be no longer studious to keep up even an appearance of religion or decency: and in confequence of all this, many plain well-meaning people, who concluded that no one could possibly partake of eternal life, unless united with the vicar of Christ,

[[]y] An account of this diffension may be seen in PIERRE DU Puy, Histoire Generale du Schisme qui a été en l'Eglise depuis l'An. 1378. jufqu'en l'An. 1428, which, as we are informed in the Preface, was compiled from the Royal Records of France, and is entirely worthy of credit. Nor should we wholly reject LEWIS MAIMBOURG'S Histoire du grand Schisme d'Occident, though in general it be deeply tainted with the leaven of party spirit. A great many documents are to be met with in BOULAY, Hift. Acad. Parif. tom. iv. and v. and also in EDM. MARTENE, Thefauri Anecdotor. tom. ii. p. 1074. I always pass over the common writers upon this fubject, fuch as ALEXANDER, RAY-NALD, BZOVIUS, SPONDANUS, and Du PIN.

were overwhelmed with doubt, and plunged into the CENT. deepeft distress of mind [2]. Nevertheless these XIV. abuses were, by their consequences, greatly conducive PART II. both to the civil and religious interests of mankind; for by these dissensions the papal power received an incurable wound; and kings and princes, who had formerly been the slaves of the lordly pontiss, now became their judges and masters. And many of the least stupid among the people had the courage to disregard and despise the popes on account of their odious disputes about dominion, to commit their salvation to God alone, and to admit it as a maxim, that the prosperity of the church might be maintained and the interests of religion secured and promoted without a visible head, crowned with a spiritual supremacy.

XVI. The Italian cardinals attached to the interests Proposals of Urban VI. upon the death of that pope in for abolishment the year 1389, set up for his successor, at Rome, schism. PETER THOMACELLI, a Neapolitan, who took the name of Boniface IX. and CLEMENT VII. dying in the year 1394, the French cardinals raised to the pontificate Peter de Luna, a Spaniard, who assumed the name of Benedict XIII. During these transactions various methods were proposed and attempted for healing this melancholy breach in the church. Kings and princes, bishops and divines, appeared with zeal in this falutary project. It was generally thought that the best course to be taken in this matter was, what they then styled, the Method of cession: but neither of the popes could be prevailed on, either by entreaties or threatenings, to give up the pontificate. The Gallican church, highly incenfed at this obstinacy, renounced folemnly, in a council held at Paris in the year

^[2] Concerning the mischievous consequences of this schism, we have a large account in the Histoire du droit public Eccles. François, tom. ii. p. 166. 193. 202. s.

1397, all fubjection and obedience to both pontiffs: and, upon the publication of this resolution in the PART II. year 1398, BENEDICT XIII. was, by the express orders of CHARLES VI. detained prisoner in his palace at Avignon [a].

The enormities of the monks the Mendicants.

XVII. Some of the popes, and especially BENE-DICT XII. were perfectly acquainted with the prethe monks efpecially of vailing vices and fcandalous conduct of the greatest part of the monks, which they zealously endeavoured to rectify and remove: but the diforder was too inveterate to admit of a cure. The Mendicants, and more especially the Dominicans and Franciscans, were at the head of the monastic orders, and were, indeed, become the heads of the church; fo extenfive was the influence they had acquired, that all matters of importance, both in the court of Rome and in the cabinets of princes, were carried on under their supreme and absolute direction. multitude had fuch a high notion of the fanctity of these sturdy beggars, and of their credit with the Supreme Being, that great numbers of both fexes, fome in health, others in a state of infirmity, others at the point of death, earnestly desired to be admitted into the Mendicant order, which they looked upon as a fure and infallible method of rendering heaven propitious. Many made it an effential part of their last wills, that their carcasses, after death, should be wrapped in old, ragged Dominican or Franciscan habits, and interred among the Mendi-For fuch was the barbarous superstition and wretched ignorance of this age, that people univerfally believed they should readily obtain mercy from CHRIST, at the day of judgment, if they appeared before his tribunal affociated with the Mendicant friars.

[[]a] Besides the common historians, and LONGUEVAL'S Histoire de l'Eglise Gallicane, tom. xiv. see the Alls of this council in Bouldy's Histor. Acad. Paris, tom. iv. p. 829.

XVIII. The high efteem in which the Mendicant CENT. orders were held, and the excessive degree of autho- xiv. rity they had acquired, only ferved to render them PART IL still more odious to such as had hitherto been their enemies, and to draw upon them new marks of under a jealousy and hatred from the higher and lower clergy, general of the such as the the monastic societies, and the public universities. So univerfal was this odium, that there was fearcely a province or university in Europe in which bishops, clergy, and doctors were not warmly engaged in opposition to the Dominicans and Franciscans, who employed the power and authority they had received from the popes, in undermining the ancient discipline of the church, and assuming to themselves a certain fuperintendence in religious matters. In England, the university of Oxford made a resolute stand against the encroachments of the Dominicans [b], while RICHARD, archbishop of Armagh, HENRY CRUMP, Noris, and others, attacked all the Mendicant orders with great vehemence and feverity $\lceil c \rceil$. But RICHARD, whose animosity against them was much keener than that of their other antagonists, went to the court of Innocent VI. in the year 1356, and there vindicated the cause of the church against them with the greatest fervour, both in his writings and discourse, until the year 1360, in which he died $\lceil d \rceil$. They had also many opponents in France, who, together with the university of Paris, were fecretly engaged in contriving means to overturn

[b] See Ant. Wood, Antiquit. Oxon. tom. i. p. 150. 154. 196, &c.

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[[]c] See Wood, Antiquit. Oxon. tom. i. p. 181, 182. tom. ii. p. 61, 62.—BALUZII Vita Pontif. Avenion. tom. i. p. 338. 956.—BOULAY, Histor. Acad. Paris. tom. iv. p. 336.—WADDING! Annal. Minor. tom. viii. p. 126.

[[]d] See Simon, Lettres Choisies, tom. i. p. 164.—I have in my possession a manuscript treatise of Bartholomew de Brisac, entitled, Solutiones opposite Ricardi, Armachani episcopi, propositionibus contra Mendicantes in curia Romana corum Pontifice et cardinalibas factis, Anno 1360.

their exorbitant power: but John de Polliac fet himself openly against them, publicly denying XIV. PART II. the validity of the absolution granted by the Dominicans and Franciscans to those who confessed to them, maintaining, that the popes were disabled from granting them a power of absolution by the authority of the canon, entitled, Omnis utriusque fexus; and proving from these premises, that all those, who would be sure of their falvation, ought to confess their sins to their own parish priests, even though they had been absolved by the monks. They fuffered little or nothing, however, from the efforts of these numerous adversaries, being resolutely protected against all opposition, whether open or fecret, by the popes, who regarded them as their best friends, and most effectual supports. Accord-

John Wickliff.

the year $1321 \lceil e \rceil$.

XIX. But among all the enemies of the Mendicant orders, none has been transmitted to posterity with more exalted encomiums on the one hand, or blacker calumnies on the other, than John Wickliff, an English doctor, professor of divinity at Oxford, and afterwards rector of Lutterworth; who, according to the testimony of the writers of these times, was a man of an enterprising genius and extraordinary learning. In the year 1360, animated by the example of Richard, archbishop of Armagh, he first of all defended the statutes and privileges of the university of Oxford against all the orders of the Mendicants, and had the courage to throw out some slight reproofs against the popes, their principal

ingly, John XXII. by an extraordinary decree, condemned the opinions of John De Polliac, in

[[]e] See Jo. Launoius, De Canone: Omnis utriusque Sexus, tom. i. part I. opp. p. 271. 274. 287, &c.—Babuzii Vit. Pontis. Avenion. tom. ii. p. 10. & Miscellanor. tom i. p. 153.—Dacherii Spicil. Seriptor. Veter. tom i. p. 112. s.—It was published by Edm. Martene, in Thesauro Anecdotor. tom. i. p. 1368. See also Baluzii Vit. Pontis. Avenion. tom. i. p. 132. 182, &c.

patrons, which no true Briton ever imputed to him crnt. as a crime. After this, in the year 1367, he was XIV. deprived of the wardenship of Canterbury-Hall in PART II. the university of Oxford, by Simon Langham, archbishop of Canterbury, who substituted a monk in his place; upon which he appealed to popeURDAN V. who confirmed the fentence of the archbishop against him, on account of the freedom with which he had inveighed against the monastic orders. Highly exasperated at this treatment, he threw off all restraint, and not only attacked all the monks, and their fcandalous irregularities, but even the pontifical power itself, and other ecclesiastical abuses, both in his fermons and writings. From hence Le proceeded to yet greater lengths, and, detefting the wretched superstition of the times, resuted, with great acuteness and spirit, the absurd notions that were generally received in religious matters, and not only exhorted the laity to study the scriptures, but also translated into English these divine books, in order to render the perufal of them more universal. Though neither the doctrine of Wickliff was void of error, nor his life without reproach, yet it must be confessed that the changes he attempted to introduce, both in the faith and discipline of the church, were, in many respects, wife, useful, and

falutary [f].

XX. The monks, whom Wickliff had princi-Hisadverpally exasperated, commenced a violent prosecution saries.

against him at the court of Gregory XI. who, in
the year 1377, ordered Simon Subbury, archbishop of Canterbury, to take cognizance of the
affair in the council held at London. Imminent as
this danger evidently was, Wickliff escaped it by

[[]f] A work of his was published at Leipsic and Francfort, in 4to, in the year 1753, entitled Dialogorum Libri quature, which, though it does not contain all the branches of his doctrines, yet shews sufficiently the spirit of the man, and his way of thinking in general.

CENT. XIV.

the interest of the duke of Lancaster, and some other peers, who had an high regard for him. And foon PART II after the death of GREGORY XI. the fatal schism of the Romish church commenced, during which there was one pope at Rome, and another at Avignon; fo that of course this controversy lay dormant a long time. But no fooner was this embroiled state of affairs tolerably fettled, than the process against him was revived by WILLIAM DE COURTENEY, archbishop of Canterbury, in the year 1385, and was carried on with great vehemence in two councils held at London and Oxford. The event was, that of the twenty-three opinions, for which Wickliff had been profecuted by the monks, ten were condemned as herefies, and thirteen as errors [g]. He himself, however, returned in safety to Lutterworth, where he died peaceably in the year 1387. This latter attack was much more dangerous than the former; but by what means he got fafely through it, whether by the interest of the court, or by denying or abjuring his opinions, is to this day a fecret [b]. He left many followers in England,

[h] We have a full and complete History of the Life and Sufferings of John Wickliff, published in Svo at London in the year year John Lewes, who also published, in the

С [g] In the original Dr. Mosнеім fays, that, of eighteen articles imputed to Wickliff, nine were condemned as herefies, and fifteen as errors. This contradiction, which we have taken the liberty to correct in the text, is perhaps an overfight of the learned author, who may have confounded the eighteen herefies and errors that were enumerated and refuted by WIL-LIAM WODFORD, in a letter to Arundel archbishop of Canterbury, with the twenty-three propositions that had been condemned by his predecessor Courtney at London, of which ten were pronounced heretical, and thirteen erroneous. See the very curious collection of pieces, entitled Fasciculus rerum expetendarum et fugiendarum Orthuini Gratii, published first at Cologn, by the compiler in the year 1535, and afterwards at London in 1690, with an additional volume of ancient pieces and fragments by the learned Mr. EDWARD BROWN. The letter of WODFORD is at full length in the first volume of this collection, p. 191.

and other countries, who were styled Wickliffites and CENT. Lollards, which last was a term of popular reproach XIV. translated from the Flemish tongue into English. PART II. Wherever they could be found, they were terribly persecuted by the inquisitors, and other instruments of papal vengeance, and, in the council of Constance, in the year 1415, the memory and opinions of Wickliff were condemned by a solemn decree: and about thirteen years after, his bones were dug up, and publicly burnt.

XXI. Notwithstanding the Mendicants were thus The imvigorously attacked on all sides, by such a consider-piety of the able number of ingenious and learned adversaries, they could not be perfunded to abate any thing of their excessive pride, to set bounds to their superstition, or to defift from imposing upon the multitude, but were as diligent as ever in propagating opinions highly detrimental to religion in general, and particularly injurious to the majesty of the Supreme Being. The Franciscans, forgetting, in their enthufiastic frenzy, the veneration they owed to the Son of God, and animated with a mad zeal for advancing the glory of their order and its founder, impioufly maintained, that the latter was a fecond Christ, in all respects similar to the first; and that their institution and discipline was the true gospel of Jesus. Yet, shocking as these foolish and impious pretensions were, the popes were not ashamed to patronize and encourage them by their letters and mandates, in which they made no scruple to affert,

year 1731, Wickliff's English translation of the New Testament from the Latin version, called the Vulgate. This translation is enriched with a learned Presace by the editor, in which he enlarges upon the life, actions, and suffering of that eminent reformer. The pieces, relative to the controversies which were set on foot by the doctrines of Wickliff, are to be found in the learned work of Wilkins, entitled Concilia Magna Britannia et Hibern. tom. iii. p. 116. 156.—See also Boulay, Histor. Acad. Paris. tom. iv. p. 450.—Ant. Wood, Antiqq. Oxoniens. tom. i. p. 183. 186, & passim.

The Book of the above-mentioned fictions, and entitled, The Book of the conformities of St. Francis. by Bartholomew Albert was Albert in the specification of Part in the specification of Pisa, St. Francis. by Bartholomew Albizi, a Franciscan of Pisa,

[i] The story of the marks, or sligmas, impressed on Francis, is well known, as are also the letters of the Roman pontiffs, which enjoin the belief of it, and which WADDING has collected with great care, and published in his Annales Minerum, tom. viii. & ix. The Dominicans formerly made a public jest of this ridiculous fable, but, being awed into filence by the papal bulls, they are now obliged to deride it in fecret, while the Franciscans, on the other hand, continue to propagate it with the most fervent That St. FRANCIS had upon his body the marks or impressions of the five great wounds of Christ, is not to be doubted, fince this is a fact proved by a great number of unexceptionable witnesses. But, as he was a most superstitious and fanatical mortal, it is undoubtedly evident, that he imprinted on himself these holy wounds, that he might resemble Christ, and bear about in his body a perpetual memorial of the Redeemer's fufferings. It was customary in these times, for such as were willing to be thought more pious than others, to imprint upon their bodies marks of this kind, that, having thus continually before them a lively representation of the death of Christ, they might preferve a becoming fense of it on their minds. words of St. PAUL, Galat. vi. 17. were fufficient to confirm in this wretched delufion, an ignorant and superstitious age, in which the feriptures were neither studied nor understood. long lift of these stigmatised fanatics might be extracted from the Alla Sandorum, and other records of this and the following century; nor is this ancient piece of superstition entirely abolished, even in our times. Be that as it may, the Franciscan monks, having found these marks upon the dead body of their founder, took this occasion of making him appear to the world as honoured by heaven above the rest of mortals, and invented, for this purpose, the story of Christ's having miraculously transferred his wounds to him.

with the applause of his order. This infamous CENT. tract, in which the Son of God is put upon a level XIV. with a wretched mortal, is an eternal monument of PART II. the outrageous enthusiasm and abominable arrogance of the Franciscan order; and not less so of the excessive imprudence of the popes in extolling and recommending it $\lceil k \rceil$.

XXII. The Franciscans, who adhered to the The enorgenuine and austere rule of their founder, and mities of the Fratricelli. opposed the popes who attempted to mitigate the feverity of its injunctions, were not a whit wifer than those of the order, who acknowledged the jurisdiction and respected the decisions of the Roman pontiffs. By these antipapal Franciscans, I mean the Fratricelli or Minorites, and the Tertiaries of that order, otherwise called Beghards, together with the Spirituals, who refided principally in France, and embraced the opinions of Pierre de Olive. These monastic factions were turbulent and seditious beyond expression; they gave incredible vexation to the popes, and for a long time disturbed, wherever they went, the tranquillity both of church and state. About the beginning of this century [1], the less austere

[k] Concerning Albizi in his book, fee Wadding. Annal. Minor. tom. ix. p. 158.—J. A. Fabricit Biblioth. Lat. medii evi, tom. i. p. 131.—Schelhornii Aman. Litter. tom. iii. p. 160.

—Bayle's Didionary, at the article Francis, and the Nouveau Didionnaire Hifl. Crit. tom. i. at the article Albizi, p. 217.

Erasmus Albert made feveral extracts from this book, and published them under the title of the Alcoran of the Franciscans, which was frequently printed in Latin, German, and French; and, in the year 1734, was published at Amsterdam in two volumes 8vo, in French and Latin, with elegant cuts.

The Conformities between Christ and St. Francis are carried to forty in the book of Albizi, but they are multiplied to 4000 by a Spanish monk of the order of Observants, in a book published at Madrid in the year 1651, under the following title, Prodigiosum Natura et Gratia Portentum. The Conformities mentioned by Pedro de Alva Astorga, the austere author of this most ridiculous book, are whimsical beyond expression. See the Bibliotheque des Sciences et des Beaux Arts, tom. iv. p. 318.

[1] In the year 1306 and 1307.

CENT. Franciscans were outrageous in their resentment against the Fratricelli, who had deferted their XIV. PART II. communion $\lceil m \rceil$; upon which, fuch of the latter, as had the good fortune to escape the fury of their persecutors, retired into France in the year 1307, and affociated themselves with the Spirituals or followers of Pierre D'Olive in Provence, who had also formerly abandoned the society. Soon after this, the whole Franciscan order, in France, Italy, and other countries, was divided into two parties. The one, which embraced the fevere discipline and absolute poverty of St. Francis, were called Spirituals; the other, which infifted upon mitigating the austere injunctions of their founder, were styled the Brethren of the community. The latter, being by far the most numerous and powerful, exerted themfelves to the utmost to oppress the former, whose faction as yet was but weak, and, as it were, in its infancy; but, notwithstanding this, they cheerfully submitted to these hardships, rather than return to the fociety of those who had deferted the rules of their mafter. Pope CLEMENT V. having drawn the leaders of these two parties to his court, took great pains to compose their dissensions; nevertheless his pacific scheme advanced but slowly, on account of the inflexible obstinacy of each sect, and the great number of their mutual accufations. the mean while, the Spirituals of Tuscany, instead of waiting for the decision of his holiness, chose themselves a president, and inferior officers; while

those of France, being in the neighbourhood of Avignon, patiently expected the papal determination

 $\lceil n \rceil$.

[[]m] Waddingi Annales Minor. tom. vi. ad A. 1307, p. 91. [n] Waddingi Annal. tom. iv. 1310, p. 172.—Eccardi Corpus Histor. medii avi, tom. i. p. 1480.—Boulay. Hist. Acad. Paris. tom. iv. p. 129.—Echardi Scriptor. Pradicator. tom. i. p. 508, 509.

XXIII. After many deliberations, CLEMENT V. CENT. in a general council held at Vienne, in Dauphine, XIV. where he issued out the famous bull, Enivi de para-Part II. diso [o], proposed an expedient for healing the Delibera-breach between the jarring parties, by wise con-tions about cessions on both sides. He gave up many points to composing the Spirituals, or rigid Franciscans, enjoining upon the differences the whole order the profession of absolute powerty, among the according to their primitive rule, and the solemn Franciscans renunciation of all property, whether common or personal, confining them to what was necessary for their immediate subsistence, and allowing them, even for that, a very feanty pittance. He however, on the other hand, permitted the Franciscans, who lived in places where it was extremely difficult to procure by begging the necessaries of life, to erect granaries and storehouses, where they might deposit a part of their alms as a stock in case of want; and ordered that all fuch granaries and storehouses should be under the inspection and management of overseers and store-keepers, who were to determine what quantity of provisions should be laid up in them. And finally, in order to fatisfy the Brethren of the community, he condemned some opinions of PIERRE D'OLIVE []. These proceedings silenced the monastic commotions in France; but the Tuscan and Italian Spirituals were so exceedingly perverse and obstinate, that they could not be brought to consent to any method of reconciliation. At length, in the year 1313, many of them, not thinking themselves any longer fafe in Italy, went into Sicily, where they met with a very friendly reception from king FREDERIC, the nobility, and bishops $\lceil q \rceil$.

[[]o] This bull is inferted in the Jus Canonicum inter Clementinas, tit. xi. De verbor. signif. tom. ii. p. 1095. edit. Bohmeri.

[[]p] Waddingi Annal. tom. vi. p. 194. 197. 199.
[q] Waddingi Annal. tom. vi. p. 213, 214.—Boulay,

[[]q] Waddings Annal. tom. vi. p. 213, 214.—Boulay, Hist. Acad. Paris. tom. iv. p. 152. 165.—Argentre, Collectio judicior. de novis error. tom. i. p. 392. s.

XXIV. Upon the death of CLEMENT V. the XIV. tumult, which had been appealed by his authority, PART II. was revived in *France* with as much fury as ever.

PART II. was revived in France with as much fury as ever. For, in the year 1314, an hundred and twenty of the Spirituals made a violent attack upon the Brethren of the community, drove them out of the convents of Narbonne and Beziers by force of arms, and inflamed the quarrel in a yet higher degree by laying afide their ancient habits, and affuming fuch as were fhort, strait, and coarse. They were soon joined by a confiderable number from other provinces, and the citizens of Narbonne, where OLIVE was interred, enlifted themselves in the party. JOHN XXII. who was raised to the pontificate in the year 1317, took great pains to heal this new disorder. The first thing he did for this purpose was to publish a special bull, by which he ordered the abolition of the Fratricelli, or Minorites, and their Tertiaries, whether Beguines or Beghards, who were a body diffinct from the Spirituals $\lceil r \rceil$. the next place, he admonished the king of Sicily to expel all the Spirituals who had taken refuge in his dominions [s]: and then ordered the French Spirituals to appear at Avignon; where he exhorted them to return to their duty; and, as the first step to it, to lay afide their short, strait habits with the small boods. The greatest part of them obeyed; but Fr. BERNARD DELITIOSI, who was the head of the faction, and twenty-four of the Brethren, boldly refused to submit to the injunction. vindication of their conduct, they alleged that the rules prescribed by St. Francis were the same with the gospel of Jesus Christ; that the popes therefore had no authority to alter them; that

[[]r] This law is called Sancia Romana, &c. and is to be found among the Extravagantes Johannis XXII. tit. vii. De religiosis domibus, tom. ii. Jur. Canon. p. 1112.

[[]s] WADDINGI Annal. Minor. tom. vi. p. 265. f.

the popes had acted finfully in permitting the Fran-CENT. ciscans to have granaries and store-houses; and that XIV. they added to their guilt in not allowing those habits PART IL to be worn that were enjoined by St. Francis. Joнn, highly exasperated by this opposition, gave orders that these obstinate Brethren should be proceeded against as heretics. And furely nothing could make them appear viler heretics in the papal eye, than their daring thus audaciously to oppose the authority and majesty of the Roman see. As for F. Delitiosi, who was at the head of this feet, and who is fometimes called Delli Consi, he was imprisoned, and died in his confinement. Four of his adherents were condemned to the flames, in the year 1318, at Marseilles [t], which odious sentence was accordingly executed without mercy.

XXV. Thus these unhappy friars, and many more The ridicuof their fraternity, who were afterwards cut off by lous disthis cruel persecution, suffered merely for their the Francontempt of the decisions of the pontists, and for ciscans.

maintaining that the institute of St. Francis, their
founder, which they imagined he had established
under the direction of an immediate inspiration, was
the very Gospel of Christ, and therefore not to be
altered by the pope's authority. The controversy,
considered in itself, was rather ridiculous than important, since it did not affect religion in the least, but
turned wholly on these two points, the form of the
habits to be worn by the Franciscan order, and their
granaries and store-houses. The Breibren of the
community, or the less rigid Franciscans, wore long,

[[]t] BALUZII Vitæ Pontif. Avenion. tom. i. p. 116. tom. ii. p. 341. et Miscellan. tom. i. p. 195. 272. WADDINGUS, Annal. Minor. tom. vi. p. 267. s. 316. s. MARTENE Thesaur. Anecdotor. tom. v. p. 175. MARTINUS Fuldensis, in Eccardi Corpore Histor. medii ævi, tom. i. p. 1725. et HERM. CORNERUS, ibid. tom. ii. p. 981. Histoire generale de Languedoc, tom. iv. p. 179. s. Argentre Collectio Judicior. de nobis errorib. tom. i. p. 294. s.

CENT. loose, and good habits, with ample hoods; but the XIV. Spirituals went in strait, short, and very coarse PART II. ones, which they afferted to be precisely the dress enjoined by the institute of St. Francis, and what therefore no power upon earth had a right to alter. And whereas the Brethren of the community, immediately after the harvest and vintage, were accustomed to lay up a stock of corn and wine in their granaries and cellars, the Spiritual Franciscans resolutely opposed this practice, as entirely repugnant to the profession of absolute poverty, that had been embraced by the Fratricelli or Minorites. In order to put an end to these broils, pope John, this very year, published a long mandatory letter, in which he ordered the contending parties to submit their disputes, upon the two points above mentioned, to

Excite grievous commo-tions.

the decision of their superiors $\lceil u \rceil$. XXVI. The effects of this letter, and of other decrees, were prevented by the unseasonable and impious feverity of John XXII. whose cruelty was condemned and detested even by his adherents. For the Spiritual Franciscans and their votaries, being highly exasperated at the cruel death of their brethren, maintained, that John XXII. by procuring the destruction of these holy men, had rendered himself utterly unworthy of the papal dignity, and was the true Antichrist. They moreover revered their four brethren, who were burnt at Marseilles, as fo many martyrs, paying religious veneration to their bones and ashes; and inveighed yet more vehemently than ever against long habits, large hoods, granaries, and store-houses. The inquisitors on the other hand, having, by the pope's order, apprehended as many of these people as they could find, condemned them to the flames, and facrificed them without mercy to papal refentment and fury.

[[]u] It may be seen in the Jus Canon. inter Extravag. communes de verbor. fignif. cap. i. See also WADDING! Annal. Minor. tem. vi. p. 273.

that from this time a vast number of those zealous CENT. defenders of the institute of St. Francis, viz. the XIII. Minorites, Beghards, and Spirituals, were most Part II. barbarously put to death, not only in France, but also in Italy, Spain, and Germany [w].

XXVII. This dreadful flame continued to spread, A New distill it invaded the whole Franciscan order, which, pute arises in the year 1321, had revived the old contentions the poverty concerning the poverty of Christ and his apostles. of Christ. A certain Beguin, or monk of the third order of St. Francis, who was apprehended this year at Norhame taught, among other things. That neither

St. Francis, who was apprehended this year at Norbonne, taught, among other things, That neither Christ, nor his apostles, ever possessed any thing, whether in common or personally, by right of property or dominion. JOHN DE BELNA, an inquisitor of the Dominican order, pronounced this opinion erroneous; but Berengarius Taloni, a Francifcan, maintained it to be orthodox, and perfectly consonant to the bull, Exiit qui seminet, of Nicholas III. The judgment of the former was approved by the Dominicans; the determination of the latter was adhered to by the Franciscans. At length the matter was brought before the pope, who prudently endeavoured to put an end to the dispute. With this view he called into his council UBERTINUS DE CASALIS, the patron of the Spiritual, and a person of great weight and reputation. This eminent monk gave captious, fubtile, and equivocal answers to the

[w] Besides many other pieces that serve to illustrate the intricate history of this persecution, I have in my possession a treatise, entitled, Martyrologium Spiritualium et Fratricellorum, which was delivered to the tribunal of the inquisition at Carcasfone, A. D. 1454. It contains the names of an hundred and thirteen persons of both sexes, who, from the year 1318, to the time of Innocent VI. were burnt in France and Italy, for their inflexible attachment to the poverty of St. Francis. I reckon that, from these and other records, published and unpublished, we may make out a list of two thousand martyrs of this kind. Compare Codex Inquis. Tholosana, à Limborchio editus, p. 298. 302. 319. 327, &c.

The pontiff, XIV. however, and the cardinals, perfuaded that his PART II decisions, equivocal as they were, might contribute to terminate the quarrel, acquiesced in them, seconded them with their authority, and enjoined, at the same time, silence and moderation on the contending parties [x].

XXVIII. But the Dominicans and Franciscans were fo exceedingly exasperated against each other, that they could by no means be brought to conform themselves to this order. John XXII. perceiving this, permitted them to renew the controversy in the year 1322; nay, he himself proposed to some of the most celebrated divines of the age, and especially to those of Paris, the determination of this point, viz. Whether or no those were to be deemed heretics who maintained that Jesus Christ, and his apostles, had no common or personal property in any thing they possessed? The Franciscans, who held an affembly this year at *Perugia*, having got notice of this proceeding, unanimously decreed, that those who held this tenet were not heretics, but maintained an opinion that was holy and orthodox, and perfectly agreeable to the decifions and mandates of the popes. They also sent a deputy to Avignon, to defend this unanimous determination of their whole order against all opponents whatever. person they commissioned for this purpose was F. BONAGRATIA, of Bergamo, who also went by the name of Boncortese [y], one of their fraternity, and a man famous for his extensive learning. JOHN XXII. being highly incenfed at this step, issued out a decree in the month of November,

[[]x] Waddingi Annal. Minor. tom. vi. p. 361. Steph. Baluzii Miscellan. tom. i. p. 307. Gerh. du Bois, Histor. Eccles. Paris. p. 611. s.

[[]y] I infert this caution, because I have observed that some eminent writers, by not attending to this circumstance, have taken these two names for two different persons.

wherein he espoused an opinion diametrically opposite c E N T. to that of the Franciscans, and pronounced them xiv. heretics, for obstinately maintaining that Christ, PART II. and his apostles, had no common or personal property in what they possessed, nor a power of selling, or alienating, any part of it. Soon after he proceeded yet farther, and in another constitution, published in December following, exposed the weakness and inefficacy of those arguments, commonly deduced from a bull of NICHOLAS III. concerning the property of the Franciscan possessions being transferred to the church of Rome, whereby the monks were supposed to be deprived of what we call right, and were only allowed the simple use of what was necesfary for their immediate support. In order to confute this plea, he shewed that it was absolutely impossible to separate right and property from the lawful use of fuch things as were immediately confumed by that use. He also solemnly renounced all property in the Franciscan effects, which had been reserved to the church of Rome by former popes, their churches and fome other things excepted. And whereas the revenues of the order had been hitherto received and administered by procurators on the part of the Roman church, he dismissed these officers, and abolished all the decrees of his predecessors, and all the ancient constitutions relating to this affair [z].

XXIX. By this method of proceeding, the The quardexterous pontiff entirely destroyed that boasted rel between expropriation, which was the main bulwark of the ciscans and Franciscan order, and which its founder had esteemed John XXII the distinguishing glory of the society. It was

^[2] These constitutions are recorded in the Corpus Juris Canon. and also among the Extravagantes, tit. xiv. de verbor. signific. cap. ii, iii. p. 1121. Concerning the transaction itself, the reader should chiefly consult that impartial writer ALVARUS PELAGIUS, De planetu ecclesia, lib. ii. c. 60. s. 145. as also Luc. Waddingus, Annal. Minor. tom. vi. p. 394. s. Each of them blames John Boulay, Histor. Acad. Paris. tom. iv. p. 191. s.

XIV.

CENT. therefore natural that these measures should determine the Franciscans to an obstinate resistance. And PART II. fuch indeed was the effect they produced: for, in the year 1323, they fent their brother Bona-GRATIA in quality of legate to the papal court, where he vigorously and openly opposed the latter conflitution of John, boldly affirming, that it was contrary to all law both human and divine [a]. The pope, on the other hand, highly exasperated against this audacious defender of the Franciscan poverty, threw him into prison; and, by a new edict, which he published about the end of the year, enacted, that all who maintained that CHRIST, and his apostles, had no common nor special property in any of their possessions, should be deemed heretics, and corrupters of the true religion $\lceil b \rceil$. Finding, however, that the Franciscans were not terrified in the least by this decree, he published another yet more flaming constitution about the end of the year 1324, in which heconfirmed his former edicts, and pronounced that tenet concerning the expropriation of Christ and his apostles, a pestilential, erroneous, damnable, and blaffhemous doctrine, subversive of the catholic faith, and declared all fuch as adhered to it, obstinate heretics and rebels against the church [c]. In consequence of this merciless decree, great numbers of those who persisted in afferting that Christ and

[[]a] WADDINGUS, Annal. Minor. tom. vii. p. 2. 22.—AVAR. PELAGIUS, De plandu ecclesia, lib. ii. s. 167 .- TRITHEMIUS, Annal. Hirfaug. tom. ii. p. 157.—THEOD. DE NIEN, in ECCARDI Corpore Histor. med. avi, tom. vii. p. 1491.

[[]b] WADDINGI, tom. vii. p. 36.—Contin. de NANGIS, in DACHERII Spicilegio, tom. iii. p. 83.—BOULAY, Hifl. Acade Parif. tom. iv. p. 205 .- Benearchinor. Gallia Christiana, tom. ii. p. 1515.

[[]c] This constitution as well as the two former already mentioned, is published among the Extravagantes, tit. xiv. De verbor. fignif. WADDINGUS, tom. vii. p. 36. vigorously opposes this last, which is pretty extraordinary in a man so immoderately attached to the cause of the popes as he was.

his apostles were exactly such Mendicants as France in the cis would have his brethren to be, were apprehended XIV. by the Dominican inquisitors, who were implacable Part II. enemies of the Franciscans, and committed to the slames. The history of France and Spain, Italy and Germany, during this and the following century, abounds with instances of this deplorable cruelty.

XXX. The zealous pontiff purfued this affair The atwith great warmth for feveral years fuccessively; tempts of and as this contest seemed to have taken its rife cans against from the books of Pierre D'Olive, he branded the pope. with infamy, in the year 1325, the Postilla, and the other writings of that author, as pernicious and heretical [d]. The next step he took was to summon to Avignon some of the more learned and eminent brethren of the Franciscan order, of whose writings and eloquence he was the most apprehensive, and to detain them at his court: and then, to arm himself against the refertment and indignation of this exafperated fociety, and to prevent their attempting any thing to his prejudice, he kept a strict guard over them in all places, by means of his friends the Dominicans. MICHAEL DE CÆSENAS, who refided in Italy, and was the head of the order, could but ill diffemble the hatred he had conceived against the pope, who therefore ordered him to repair to Avignon, in the year 1327, and there deprived him of his office. [e]. But, prudent as this violent measure might appear at first fight, it served only to inflame the enraged Franciscans more than ever, and to confirm them in their attachment to the fcheme of absolute poverty. For no sooner did the bitter and well-known contest between John XXII. and the emperor Lewis of Bavaria, break out, than the principal champions of the Franciscan

[[]d] WADDINGI Annal. tom. vii. p. 47.—Jo. GEORG. ECCARDI Corpus Histor. medii ævi, tom. i. p. 592, and 1491. [e] WADDINGI Annal. tom. vii. p. 69. 74.

CENT. cause, such as MARSILIUS of Padua, and Jo. DE JANDUNO, OF GENOA, fled to the emperor, and PART II under his protection published the most virulent pieces imaginable, in which they not only attacked JOHN personally, but also levelled their satires at the power and authority of the popes in general [f]. This example was foon followed by others, particularly by Mich. Cæsenas, and William Occam, who excelled most men of his time in subtilty and acuteness of genius, and also by F. Bonagratia of Bergamo. They made their escape by sea from Avignon, in the year 1327, went first to the emperor, who was, at that time, in *Italy*, and from thence proceeded to *Munich*. They were foon joined by many others, fuch as BERENGARIUS, FRANCIS DE Esculo, and HENRY DE HALEM, who were highly and defervedly effeemed on account of their eminent parts and extensive learning [g]. All these learned sugitives defended the institute of their founder in long and laboured treatifes, in which they reduced the papal dignity and authority within a very narrow compass, and loaded the pontiffs with reproaches and invectives. Occam furpassed them

[f] Luc. Dacherii Spicilegium, tom. iii. p. 85. f. Bullar. Roman. tom. vi. p. 167. Edm. Martene, Thefaur. Anecdotor. tom. ii. p. 695. 704. Boulay, Histor. Acad. Parif. tom. iv. p. 216. There is a very noted piece on this subject written by Marsilius of Padua, who was professor at Vienna, which was published in 8vo, at Francfort, by Franc. Gomarus, 1592, and is entitled, Defensor pro Ludovico Bavaro adversus usurpatam Romani Pontificis jurisiliciionem.

all in the keenness and spirit of his satire; and hence his *Dialogues*, together with his other productions, which were perused with avidity, and transmitted

[g] Waddings annal. tom. vii. p. 81.—Martene, The-four. Incedetor. tom. iii. p. 749. 757. f. 781.—Trithemis Annal. Hirfang. tom. ii. p. 167.—Boulay, Hist. Acad. Paris. tom. iv. p. 217.—Eccardi Corpus Histor. medii avi, tom. ii. p. 1034.—Baluzii Miscellan. tom. i. p. 293. 315.—The reader may also consult those writers who have compiled Indexes and Collections of Ecclesissical Historians.

down to fucceeding generations, gave, as it were, CENT. a mortal blow to the ambition and majetty of the XIV. Roman pontiffs.

XXXI. On the other hand, the emperor, Lewis of Bavaria, to express his gratitude to these his Bavaria bedefenders, not only made the cause of the Fran-comes the cifcans his own, but also adopted their favourite the Franfentiment concerning the poverty of Christ and cifcans. his apostles. For among the heresies and errors of which he publicly accused John XXII. and for which he deprived him of the pontificate, the principal and most pernicious one, in the opinion of the emperor, was his maintaining that the poverty of CHRIST did not exclude all right and property in what he used as a subsittence $\lceil b \rceil$. The Fratricelli, Beghards, Beguines, and Spirituals, then at variance with the pope, were effectually protected by the emperor, in Germany, against the attempts of the inquisitors; so that, during his reign, that country was over-run with shoals of Mendicant friars. There was fcarce a province or city in the empire that did not abound with Begbards and Beguines; that is, monks professing the third rule of St. FRANcis, and who placed the chief excellence of the Christian life in a voluntary and absolute poverty [i]. The Dominicans, on the other hand, as enemies to the Franciscans, and friends to the pope, were treated with great feverity by his Imperial majesty, who banished them with ignominy out of feveral cities $\lceil k \rceil$.

[[]b] See Processus Ludovici contra Johannem A. 1328, d. 12 Dec. datus, in Baluzii Miscellaneis, tom. ii. p. 522. and also his Appellatio, p. 494.

[[]i] I have many pieces upon this subject that were never published.

[[]k] MART. DIEFENBACH. De mortis genere, quo Henricus VII. obiit, p. 145. and others.—Eccardi Corpus Histor. medii avi, tom. i. p. 2103.—Boulay, Hist. Acad. Paris. tom. iv. p. 220.

XIV. Peace is made between the Franciscans and the pope.

CENT.

XXXII. The rage of the contending parties fublided greatly from the year 1329. The pope PARTH caused a diet of the Franciscans to be held that year at Paris, where, by means of cardinal BERTRAND, who was prefident of the affembly, and the Parifian doctors, who were attached to his interests, he so far foftened the refentment of the greatest part of the brethren, that they ceased to defend the conduct of Michael Cæsenas and his affociates, and permitted another prefident, GERARD ODDO, to be fubstituted in his room. They also acknowledged JOHN to be a true and lawful pope; and then terminated the dispute concerning the poverty of CHRIST in fuch an ambiguous manner, that the conflitutions and edicts of NICHOLAS III. and JOHN XXII. however contradictory, maintained their authority [/]. But, notwithstanding these pacific and mutual concessions, there were great numbers of the Francifcans in Germany, Spain, and Italy, who would by no means confent to this reconciliation. After the death of John, BENEDICT XII. and CLEMENT VI. took great pains to close the breach, and shewed great clemency and tenderness towards such of the order as thought the institute of their founder more facred than the papal bulls. This lenity had fome good effects. Many who had withdrawn themselves from the society were hereby induced to return to it, in which number were FRANCIS DE Esculo, and others, who had been fome of John's most inveterate enemies $\lceil m \rceil$. Even those, who would not be prevailed on to return to their order, ceased to insult the popes, observed the rules of their founder in a quiet and inoffensive manner, and would have no fort of connection with those Fratricelli

^[1] WADDINGI Annales, tom. vii. p. 94.—DACHERII Spicilegium, tom. iii. p. 91.

[[]m] ARGENTRE, Collectio judicior. de novis erroribus, tom. i. p. 343.—Boular, Hift. Acad. Parif. tom. iv. p. 281.—WADpingi Annal. tom. vii. p. 313.

and Tertiaries in Italy, Spain, and Germany, who CENT. contemned the papal authority [n].

XXXIII. The German Franciscans, who were PART II. protected by the emperor Lewis, held out their The difopposition much longer than any of the rest. But The difin the year 1347, their imperial patron being dead, Spirituals, the halcyon days of the Franciscan Spirituals, as also Beghards, &c. in Gerof their affociates the Beghards, or Tertiaries, were many. at an end in Germany. For in the year 1345, his fuccesfor Charles IV. having been raised to the imperial throne by the interest of the pope, was ready, in his turn, to gratify the defires of the court of Rome, and accordingly supported, both by his edicts and by his arms, the inquifitors who were fent by the Roman pontiff against his enemies, and fuffered them to apprehend and put to death all of these enemies that came within their reach. These ministers of papal vengeance exerted their power chiefly in the districts of Magdeburg and Bremen, Thuringia, Saxony, and Hesse, where they extirpated all the Beghards, as well as the Beguines, or Tertiaries, the affociates of those Franciscans, who held that Christ and his apostles had no property in any thing. These severe measures were approved by CHARLES IV. who then resided in Italy, at Lucca, from whence, in the year 1369, he issued out severe edicts, commanding all the German princes to extirpate out of their dominions the Beghards and Beguines, or, as he himself interpreted the name, the voluntary beggars [o], as enemies of the church and of the Roman empire, and to affift the inquisitors in their proceedings against them. By another edict, published not long after, he gave the houses of the Beghards to the tribunal of the inquisition, ordering them to be converted into prisons for heretics: and, at the fame time, ordered all the effects of the

[[]n] WADDING! Annal. tom. vii. p. 116. 126.—ARGENTRE, l. c. tom. i. p. 343, &c.

[[]o] In high Dutch, Die wilgen Armen.

CENT. Beguines to be fold publicly, and the profits arifing from thence to be equally divided between the XIV. PART II. inquisitors, the magistrates, and the poor of those towns and cities where fuch fale shall be made [p]. The Beghards, being reduced to great straits by this and other mandates of the emperor, and by the constitutions of the popes, fought a refuge in those provinces of Switzerland that border upon the Rhine, and also in Holland, Brahant, and Pomerania $\lceil q \rceil$. But the edicts and mandates of the emperor, together with the papal bulls and inquisitors, followed them wherever they went, and distressed them in their most distant retreats; fo that, during the reign of Charles IV. the greatest part of Germany (Switzerland, and those provinces that are contiguous to it, excepted) was thoroughly purged of the Bezbards, or rebellious Franciscans, both perfect and imperfect.

Their diviproceedings,

that the Franciscan parties.

XXXIV. But neither edicts, bulls, or inquisitors, fions fo far could entirely pluck up the roots of this inveterate from being extinguish- discord. For so ardently were many of the brethren ed by these bent upon observing, in the most perfect and rigorous

[p] I have in my possession this edict, with other laws of orderissplit Charles IV. enacted on this occasion, as also many of the papal constitutions, and other records which illustrate this affair, confiderable and which undoubtedly deferve to fee the light. It is certain, that CHARLES IV. himself, in his edicts and mandates, clearly characterizes those people, whom he there styles Beggards and Beguines, as Franciscan Tertiaries, belonging to that party of the order then at variance with the pope. They are (to use the emperor's own words, in his edict issued out at Lucca, and bearing date the 16th of June, 1369) a pernicious sect, who pretend to a facrilegious and heretical poverty, and who are under a vow that they neither ought to have, nor will have any property, whether special or common, in the goods they use (this is the poverty of the Franciscan institute, which JOHN XXII. so strenuously opposed), which they extend even to their wretched habits.—For so the Spirituals and their affociates used to do.

[q] See Odor. Raynaldus, Annal. Ecclef. ad A. 1372. xxxiv. p. 513. See also the books of Felix Malleolus, written in the following century against the Beggards in Switzer-

land.

manner, the institute of St. FRANCIS, that numbers CENT. were to be found in all places who either withstood XIV. the president of the society, or, at least, obeyed him PART II. with reluctance. At once therefore to fatisfy both the laxer and more rigid party, after various methods had been tried to no purpose, a division of the order was agreed to. Accordingly, in the year 1368, the president consented that PAULUTIUS FULGINAS, who was the chief of the more rigid Franciscans in Italy, together with his affociates, who were pretty numerous, should live separately from the rest of the brethren, according to the rules and customs they had adopted, and follow the institute of their founder in the strictest and most rigorous manner. The Spirituals, and the followers of OLIVE, whose fcattered remains were yet observable in several places, joined themselves gradually and imperceptibly to this party. And as the number of those who were fond of the feverer discipline continually encreased in many provinces, the popes thought proper to approve that institute, and to give it the solemn fanction of their authority. In confequence of this, the Franciscan order was divided into two large bodies, which subsist to this day, viz. the Conventual Brethren, and the Brethren of the observation. Those who gave up the strict sense of the expressions in which the institute of their founder was conceived, and adopted the modifications that were given of them by the pontiffs, were called by the former name; and the council of Constance conferred the latter upon those who chose to be determined by the words of the institute itself, rather than by any explications of it [r]. But the *Fratricelli*, together with the *Beghards*, whom we have frequently had occasion to mention, absolutely rejected this reconciliation, and persisted in disturbing the peace of

[[]r] See WADDINGI Annal. Minor. tom. viii. p. 209. 298. 326. 336. tom. ix. p. 59. 65. 78. &c.

CENT. the church, during this and the following century, xIV. in the marquifate of Ancona, and in other places.

PART H.

XXXV. This century gave rife to other religious focieties, some of which were but of short duration, gious orders and the rest never became famous. John Colomare sounded BINI, a nobleman of Sienna, founded, in the year 1368, the order of the Apostolic Clercs, who, because they frequently pronounced the name of Jesus, were afterwards called Jesuates. This institution was confirmed by URBAN V. the following year, and substifted till the last century, when it was abolished by CLEMENT IX. [s]. The brethren belonging to it professed poverty, and adhered to the institute of St. Augustin. They were not, however, admitted to holy orders, but affifted the poor by their prayers, and other pious offices, and prepared medicines for them, which they distributed gratis [t]. But these statutes were in a manner abrogated when CLEMENT diffolved the order.

The fest of The Lollards.

XXXVI. Soon after the commencement of this the Cellite century, the famous feet of the Cellite brethren and brethren and fifters arose at Aniwerp: they were also styled the Alexian brethren and fisters, because St. ALEXIUS was their patron; and they were named Cellites, from the cells in which they were used to live. As the clergy of this age took little care of the fick and dying, and deferted fuch as were infected with those pestilential disorders which were then very frequent, some compassionate and pious persons at Antwerp formed themselves into a society for the performance of those religious offices which the Sacerdotal orders fo shamefully neglected. Pursuant to this agreement, they visited and comforted the fick, affisted the dying with their prayers and exhortations, took care of the interment of those who were cut off by

[s] In the year 1668.

[[]t] HIPP. HELYOT, Hift. des Ordres, tom. iii. p. 411. f.—FRANC. PAGI Breviar. Pontif. tom. iv. p. 189. f.—Bonanni, and others who have compiled hiltories of the religious orders.

the plague, and on that account forfaken by the CENT. affrighted clergy, and committed them to the grave XIV. with a folemn funeral dirge. It was with reference PART II. to this last office, that the common people gave them the name of Lollards [u]. The example of these

[u] Many writers have given us large accounts concerning the sect and name of the Lollards, yet none of them are to be commended for their fidelity, diligence, or accuracy on this head. This I can confidently affert, because I have carefully and expressly inquired into whatever relates to the Lollards; and from the most authentic records concerning them, both published and unpublished, have collected copious materials from whence their true history may be compiled. Most of the German writers, as well as those of other countries, affirm, that the Lollards were a particular feet, who differed from the church of Rome in many religious points; and that WALTER LOLLHARD, who was burnt in this century at Cologn, was their founder. How so many learned men came to adopt this opinion is beyond my comprehension. They indeed refer to Jo. TRITHEMIUS as the author of this opinion; yet it is certain, that no fuch account of thefe people is to be found in his writings. I shall therefore endeayour, with all possible brevity, to throw all the light I can upon this matter, that they who are fond of ecclefiallical history may have a just notion of it.

The term Lollhard, or Lullhard, or, as the ancient Germans write it, Lollert, Lullert, is compounded of the old German word Lullen, Lollen, Lallen, and the well-known termination hard, with which many of the old High Dutch words end. Lollen, or Lullen, fignifies to fing with a low voice. It is yet used in the fame fense among the English, who say, lull a-fleep, which fignifies to fing any one into a flumber with a fweet indiffinct voice. See FRANC. JUNII Etymologicum Anglicanum, ab ED-VARDO LYE, Oxon. 1743, fol. under the word Lollard. The word is also used in the same sense among the Flemings, Swedes, and other nations, as appears by their respective Dictionaries. Among the Germans, both the fense and pronunciation of it have undergone some alteration: for they fav, Lallen, which fignifies to pronounce indistinctly, or stammer. Lolhard therefore is a singer or one who frequently sings. For as the word Beggen, which universally signifies to request any thing fervently, is applied to devotional requests, or prayers, and in the stricter sense in which it is used by the High Dutch, denotes praying fervently to God; in the same manner, the word Lollen, or Lullen, is transferred from a common to a facred fong, and fignifies, in its most limited fense, to fing a hymn. Lollhard therefore, in the vulgar

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NIV. a little time focieties of the same fort of Lollards,

tongue of the ancient Germans, denotes a person who is continually praifing God with a fong, or finging hymns to his honour. Hoscemius, a canon of Liege, has well apprehended and expressed the force of this word in his Gesta Pontificum Leodiensum, lib. i. cap. XXXI. in Jo. CHAPEAVILLI Geffis Pontificum Tungrensium et Leodienfium, tom. ii. p. 350. f. In the fame year (1309), fays he, certain strolling hypocrites, who were called LOLLARDS or praisers of God, deceived some women of quality in Hainault and Brabant. Because those who praised God, generally did it in verse, therefore, in the Latin style of the middle age, to praife God, meant to fing to him, and such as were frequently employed in acts of adoration were called religious singers. And as prayers and hymns are regarded as a certain external fign of piety towards God, therefore those who aspired after a more than ordinary degree of piety and religion, and for that purpose were more frequently occupied in finging hymns of praise to God than others, were, in the common popular language, called Lollhards. Hereupon this word acquired the same meaning with that of the term Begliard, which denoted a person remarkable for piety; for in all the old records, from the eleventh century, these two words are fynonimous: fo that all who are styled Beghards are also called Lollards, which may be proved to a demonstration from many authors, and particularly from many passages in the writings of Felix Mallechus against the Beggards: so that there are precifely as many forts of Beggards as of Lollards. whom the monks now eall Lay Brothers, were formerly named Lollard Brethren, as is well observed by BARTHOL. SCHOBIN-GER, Ad Jeach. Vadianum de collegiis monasteriisque Germania Veter. lib. i. p. 24. in Goldasti Scriptor. rerum Alemannicarum, tom. iii.

The Brethren of the free spirit, of whom we have already given a large account, are by some styled Beghards, by others Lollards. The followers of Gerhard Groote, or Priests of the community, are frequently called Lollard Brethren. The good man Walter, who was burnt at Cologn, and whom so many learned men have unadvisedly represented as the sounder of the sect of the Lollards, is by some called a Beggard, by others a Lollard, and by others a Minorite. The Franciscan Tertiaries, who were remarkable for their prayers and other pious exercises, often go by the name of Lollards. The Cellite Brethren, or Alexians, whose piety was very exemplary, did no sooner appear in Flanders about the beginning of this century, than the people gave them the title of Lollards, a term much in use at that time. A particular reason indeed for their being diftinguished by this name was, that they

confisting both of men and women, were formed in CENT. most parts of Germany and Flanders, and were XIV.

were public fingers, who made it their bufiness to inter the bodies of those who died of the plague, and sang a dirge over them in a mournful and indistinct tone as they carried them to the grave. Among the many testimonies that might be alleged to prove this, we shall confine ourselves to the words of Jo. BAPT. GRAMAY, a man eminently skilled in the history of his country, in his Work, entitled, Antwerpia, lib. ii. cap. vi. p. 16. The Alexians, fays he, who constantly employed themselves about funerals, had their rife at Antwerp; at which place, about the year 1300, some honest pious laymen formed a fociety. On account of their extraordinary temperance and modesty, they were styled Matemanni, (or Moderatifts) and also Lollards, from their attendance on FUNERAL OBSEQUIES .- From their cells they were named Cellite brethren. To the fame purpose is the following passage in his work, entitled, Lovanium, p. 18. which is inferted in the splendid folio edition of the Beigic Antiquities, published at Louvain in 1708: The Alexians who were wholly engaged in taking care of funerals, now began to appear. They were laymen, who having wholly devoted themselves to works of mercy were named Lollards and Matemanni (or Moderatists). They made it their sole business to take care of all such as were sick or out of their senses. These they attended both privately and publicly, and buried the dead. The fame learned author tells us, that he transcribed some of these particulars from an old diary written in Flemillo rhyme. Hence we find in the Annals of Holland and Utrecht, in Ant. Mat-THEI Analed. vet. avi, tom. i. p. 431. the following words: Die Lollardijes die brochten, de dooden by een, i. e. the Lollards who collected the dead bodies; which passage is thus paraphrased by MATTHÆUS, The managers of funerals, and carriers of the dead, of whom there was a fixed company, were a fet of mean, worthless creatures, who usually spoke in a canting mournful tone, as if bewailing the dead; and hence it came to pass, that a street in Utrecht, in which most of these people lived, was called the Loller ffreet. The same reason that changed the word Beggard from its primitive meaning, contributed also to give, in process of time, a different fignification to that of Lollard, even its being assumed by perfons that dishonoured it. For among those Lollards, who made fuch extraordinary pretences to piety and religion, and fpent the greatest part of their time in meditation, prayer, and fuch-like acts of piety, there were many abominable hypocrites, who entertained the most ridiculous opinions, and concealed the most enormous vices, under the specious mask of this extraordinary profession. But it was chiefly after the rife of the Alexians, or Cellites, that the name Lollard became infamous. For the

CENT. fupported partly by their manual labours, and partly XIV. by the charitable donations of pious persons. The PART II. magistrates and inhabitants of the towns, where these brethren and sisters resided, gave them peculiar

these brethren and sisters resided, gave them peculiar marks of favour and protection on account of their great usefulness to the sick and needy. clergy, whose reputation was not a little hurt by them, and the Mendicant friars, who found their profits diminished by the growing credit of these new-comers, perfecuted them vehemently, and accused them to the popes of many vices and intolerable Hence it was, that the word Lollard, which originally carried a good meaning, became a term of reproach to denote a person, who, under the mask of extraordinary piety, concealed either enormous vices, or pernicious fentiments. But the magistrates, by their recommendations and testimonials, supported the Lollards against their malignant rivals, and obtained many papal constitutions, by which their institute was confirmed, their persons exempted from the cognizance of the inquisitors, and subjected entirely to the jurisdiction of the bishops. But as these measures were insufficient to secure them from molestation, CHARLES, duke of Burgundy, in the year 1472, obtained a folemn bull from pope SIXTUS IV. ordering that the Cellites, or Lollards, should be ranked among the religious orders, and delivered from the jurisdiction of the bishops; and

pricsts and monks, being inveterately exasperated against these good men, propagated injurious suspicions of them, and endeavoured to persuade the people, that, innocent and beneficent as the Lollards seemed to be, they were in reality the contrary, being tainted with the most pernicious sentiments of a religious kind, and secretly addicted to all forts of vices. Thus by degrees it came to pass, that any person, who covered herefies, or crimes, under the appearance of piety, was called a Lollard. So that it is certain this was not a name to denote any one particular sect, but was formerly common to all persons and all sects, who were supposed to be guilty of impiety towards God and the church, ander an external profession of extraordinary piety?

pope Julius II. granted them yet greater privileges CENT. in the year 1506. Many focieties of this kind are XIV. yet fubfifting at Cologn, and in the cities of Flanders, PART II. though they have evidently departed from their ancient rules [w].

XXXVII. Among the Greek writers of this Greek wri-

century the following were the most eminent.

NICEPHORUS CALLISTUS, whose Ecclesiastical History we have already mentioned;

MATTHÆUS BLASTARES, who illustrated and

explained the canon laws of the Greeks;

BARLAAM, who was a very zealous champion in behalf of the Grecian cause against the Latins;

GREGORIUS ACINDYNUS, an inveterate enemy of the *Palamites*, of which feet we shall give some account in its proper place;

JOHANNES CANTACUZENUS, famous for his history of his own time, and his confutation of the

Mahometan law;

NICEPHORUS GREGORAS, who compiled the Byzantine history, and left some other monuments of his genius to posterity;

Theophanes, bishop of Nice, a laborious defender of the truth of Christianity against the Jews, and

the rest of its enemies;

NILUS CABASILAS, NILUS RHODIUS, and NILUS DAMYLA, who most warmly maintained the cause of their nation against all the Latin writers;

Philotheus, feveral of whose tracts are yet extant, and seem well adapted to excite devotional temper and spirit;

[20] Besides many others, whom it is not proper to mention here, see ÆGID. Gellenius, De admiranda sacra et civili magnitudine urbis Colonia, lib. iii. Syntagm. li. p. 534. 598. 603.—

Jo. Bapt. Gramaye, in Antiquit. Belgicis.—Anton. Sanderus, in Brabantia et Flandria illustratis.—Aub. Miræus, in operibus Diplomatico Historicis, and many other writers of this period in many places of their works. I may add, that those who are styled Lollards, are by many called die Nollbruder, from Nollen, an ancient German word.

GREGORY PALAMAS; of whom more here-CENT. after. XIV.

Latin wri-

PART II. XXXVIII. From the prodigious number of the Latin writers of this century, we shall only select the most famous. Among the scholastic doctors, who blended philosophy with divinity, John Duns Scotus, a Franciscan, and the great antagonist of Thomas held the first rank, and, though not entitled to any praise for his candour and ingenuity, was by no means inferior to any of his contemporaries in acuteness and subtilty of genius [x].

After him the most celebrated writers of this class were Durandus of St. Portian, who combated the commonly received doctrine of the divine co-operation with the human will [y], Antonius Andræas, Hervæus Natalis, Francis Mayronius, Thomas Bradwardine, an acute ingenious man [z], Peter Aureolus, JOHN BACON, WILLIAM OCCAM, WALTER BUR-LÆUS, PETER DE ALLIACO, THOMAS of Strasburg, and GREGORY DE RIMINI [a].

Among the mystic divines, Jo. TAULERUS and Jo. RUYSBROCKIUS, though not entirely free from errors, were eminent for their wisdom and integrity;

[x] The very laborious and learned Luc. WADDINGUS favoured the public with an accurate edition of the works of Scotus, which was printed at Lyons, 1639, in twelve volumes folio.—Compare Wood, Antiqq. Oxon. tom. i. p. 86. s. but especially Waddingus, Annal. Minor. fratr. tom. vi. p. 40. 107.—BOULAY, Hift. Acad. Parif. tom. iv. p. 70, &c.

[y] See Jo. LAUNOIUS, in a small treatise, entitled, Syllabus rationum, quibus Durandi caussa defenditur, tom. i. opp.—Gallia

Christ. tom. ii. p. 723.

[2] RICH. SIMON, I ettres Choisies, tom. iv. p. 232. & Critique de la Bivliotheque des Ecclesiast. par. M. Du Pin, tom. i. p. 360.-STEPH. Soucietus, in Observationibus ad h. l. p. 703.—Nouv. Dia. Hift. Crit. tom. ii. p. 500. f. He was archbishop of Canterbury.

[a] For a full account of all these persons, see Histoire de

PFglise Gallicane, tom. xiv. p. 11, 12. s.

NICHOLAS LYRANUS acquired great reputation CENT. by his Compendious Exposition of the whole Bible; XIV.
RAYNERIUS PISANUS is celebrated for his PARTIL.
Summary of Theology, and ASTESANUS for his
Summary of Cases of Conscience.

CHAPTER III.

Concerning the doctrine of the Christian church during this century.

- I. ALL those who are well acquainted with The corthe history of these times must acknowledge, that ruption of religion, whether as taught in the schools, or inculcated upon the people as the rule of their conduct, was fo extremely adulterated and deformed, that there was not a fingle branch of the Christian doctrine, which retained the least trace of its primitive lustre and beauty. Hence it may easily be imagined, that the Waldenses and others, who longed for a reformation of the church, and had separated themselves from the jurisdiction of the bishop of Rome, though every where exposed to the fury of the inquifitors and monks, yet increased from day to day, and baffled all the attempts that were made to extirpate them. Many of these poor people having observed, that great numbers of their party perished by the flames and other punishments, fled out of Italy, France, and Germany, into Bohemia and the adjacent countries, where they afterwards affociated with the Huslites and other Separatists from the church of Rome.
- II. NICHOLAS LYRANUS defervedly holds the first rank among the commentators on the Holy

Scriptures, having explained the Books both of the CENT. Old and New Testament in a manner far superior to XIV. PART II the prevailing tafte and spirit of his age. He was

exegetical tory theology.

The state of a perfect master of the Hebrew language, but not well verted in the Greek, and was therefore much or explana-happier in his exposition of the Old Testament, than in that of the New $\lceil b \rceil$. All the other divines, who applied themselves to this kind of writing, were fervile imitators of their predecessors. They either culled choice fentences from the writings of the more ancient doctors; or elfe, departing from the obvious meaning of the words, they tortured the facred writers to accommodate them to fenses that were mysterious and abstruse. They who are desirous of being acquainted with this art, may have recourse to VITALIS A FURNO, his Moral Mirrour of the Scriptures [c], or to Ludolphus of Saxony, in his Pfulter Spiritualized $\lceil d \rceil$. The philosophers, who commented upon the facred writings, fometimes proposed subtile questions drawn from what was called, in this century, Internal Science, and folved them in a dexterous and artful manner.

The didactic divines.

III. The greatest part of the doctors of this century, both Greek and Latin, followed the rules of the peripatetic philosophy, in expounding and teaching the doctrines of religion; and the Greeks, from their commerce with the Latins, seemed to have acquired fome knowledge of those methods of instruction used in the western schools. Even to this day the Greeks read, in their own tongue, the works of Thomas, and other capital writers of the scholastic class, which in this age were translated and introduced into the Greek church by DEMETRIUS

[[]b] Rich. Simon, Histoire des principaux Commentateurs du Nos, p. 447. & Critique de la Biblioth. des Auteurs Ecclef. par M. Du Pin, tom. i. p. 352.—Waddingi Annal. Minor. tom. v. p. 264. J.

[[]c] Speculum Morale totius Scriptura. [d] Pfalterium junta Spiritualem fenfum.

CYDONIUS, and others [e]. Prodigious numbers CENT. among the Latins were fond of this fubtile method, XIV. in which John Scotus, Durandus a S. Portian, Part II. and William Occam, peculiarly excelled. Some few had recourse to the decisions of Scripture and Tradition in explaining divine truths, but they were overborne by the immense tribe of logicians, who carried all before them.

IV. This superiority of the schoolmen did not, The adverhowever, prevent some wise and pious men among faries of the school dithe Mystics, and elsewhere, from severely censuring vines. this prefumptuous method of bringing before the The Biblical divines. tribunal of philosophy matters of pure revelation. Many, on the contrary, were bold enough to oppose the reigning passion, and to recal the youth designed for the ministry, to the study of the scriptures and the writings of the ancient fathers. This proceeding kindled the flame of discord almost every where; but this flame raged with peculiar violence in some of the more famous univerlities, especially in those of Paris and Oxford, where many sharp disputes were continually carried on against the philosophical divines by those of the biblical party, who, though greatly inferior to their antagonists in point of number, were fometimes victorious. For the philofophical legions, headed by Mendicants, Dominicans, and Franciscans, were often extremely rash in their manner of disputing; they defined and explained the principal doctrines of revealed religion in fuch a way as really overturned them, and fell often into opinions that were evidently abfurd and impious. Hence it came to pass, that some of them were compelled to abjure their errors, others to feek their fafety by flight; some had their writings publicly

[[]e] RICH. SIMON, Creance de l'Eglise Orientale sur la Transubstantiation, p. 166.

CENT. burnt, and others were thrown into prison [f]. However, when these commotions were quelled. PART II most of them returned, though with prudence and caution, to their former way of thinking, perplexed their adversaries by various contrivances, and deprived them of their reputation, their profits, and many of their followers.

Contentions among the fchoolmen. mists.

V. It is remarkable, that these scholastic doctors, or philosophical theologists, far from agreeing among The Scotists themselves, were furiously engaged in disputations with each other concerning many points. The flame of their controversy was, in this century, supplied with plentiful accessions of fuel, by John Duns. Scotus, an Englishman, of the Franciscan order, who was extremely eminent for the fubtilty of his genius, and who, animated against the Dominicans by a warm spirit of jealousy; had attacked and attempted to disprove several doctrines of Thomas AQUINAS. Upon this, the Dominicans, taking the alarm, united from all quarters to defend their favourite doctor, whom they justly considered as the common leader of the scholastics; while the Francifcans, on the other hand, espoused with ardour the cause of Scorus, whom they looked upon as a divine fage fent down from heaven to enlighten bewildered and erring mortals. Thus these powerful and flourishing orders were again divided; and hence

[[]f] See Boulay, Piffor. Acad. Parif. tom. iv. passim .-In the year 1940, several opinions of the schoolmen, concerning the Trinity and other doctrines, were condemned, p 266 -In the year 1347, M. Jo. D. MERCURIA and NICH. DE UL-TRICURIA were obliged to abjure their errors, p. 298. 308 -In 1348, one Simon was convicted of some horrible errors, p. 322 — The fame fate, A. 1. 54. befel Guino of the Augustine order, p. 329. A. 1362, the like happened to one L. wis, p. 374. to Jo. DE CALORE, p. 377. A. 1365, to Dion. Soullechar, p. 382. Onford also had its share in transactions of this nature. See ANT. Wood, Antiquit. Oxon. tom. i. p. 153. 183. f.

the origin of the two famous fects, the Scotists and CENT. Thomists, which, to this day, dispute the field XIV. of controversy in the Latin schools. The chief part II. points about which they disagree are, the Nature of the divine co-operation with the human will, the Measure of divine grace that is necessary to salvation, the Unity of form in man, or personal identity, and other abstruct and minute questions, the enumeration of which is foreign to our purpose. We shall only observe, that what contributed most to exalt the reputation of Scorus, and to cover him with glory, was his demonstration and defence of, what was called, the Immaculate conception of the Virgin Mary, against the Dominicans, who entertained different notions of that matter [g].

VI, A prodigious number of the people, deno-The Mysminated Mystics, resided and propagated their tenets ties. in almost every part of Europe. There were, undoubtedly, among them many persons of eminent piety, who endeavoured to wean men from an exceffive attachment to the external part of religion, and to form them to the love of God, and the practice of genuine virtue. Such, among others, were TAULERUS, RUYSBROCIUS, SUSO, and GERARD of Zutphen [h], who, it must be confessed, have left many writings that are exceedingly well calculated to excite pious dispositions in the minds of their readers; though want of judgment, and a propenfity to indulge enthusiastic visions, is a defect common to them all. But there were also some senseless fanatics belonging to this party, who ran about, from place to place, recommending a most unaccountable extinction of all the rational faculties, whereby they

[[]g] See Waddingus, Annal. Minor. tom. vi. p. 52.
[b] Concerning these authors, see Petr. Poirer. Biblioth.
Myslicorum; and Godofr. Arnold, Histor. et descriptio Theol.
Myslica. Concerning Taulerus and Suso, Echardus treats
expressly in his Scriptor. Pradicat. tom. i. p. 653. 677. See also
Ada Sandor. Januar. tom. ii. p. 652.

CENT. idly imagined the human mind would be transfused XIV. into the divine effence; and thus led their proselytes PART II into a foolish kind of piety, that in too many cases

bordered nearly upon licentiousness. The religious frenzy of these enthusiasts rose to such a height, as rendered them detestable to the soberer fort of Mystics, who charged their followers to have no connexions with them [i].

Moral writers.

VII. It is needlefs to fay much concerning those who applied themselves to the study of morality, feeing their merit is much of the fame kind with that of the authors whom we have already mentioned; though it may be proper to mention two circumstances, by which the reader may ascertain the true state of this science. The first is, that, about this time, more writers than in any former century made it their business to collect and solve, what they stiled, Cases of conscience; by which ASTESANUS, an Italian, Monaldus, and Bar-THOLOMEW of St. CONCORDIA, acquired a reputation superior to any of their contemporaries. This kind of writing was of a piece with the education then received in the schools, since it taught people to quibble and wrangle, instead of forming them to a found faith and a fuitable practice. A fecond thing worthy of notice is, that moral duties were explained, and their practice enforced, by allegories and comparisons of a new and whimsical kind, even by examples drawn from the natures, properties, and actions of the brute creation. These writers began, for instance, by explaining the nature and qualities of some particular animal, and then applied their description to human life and manners, to characterize the virtues and vices of moral agents. most remarkable productions of this fort

[[]i] Joh. Ruysbrocius inveighed bitterly against them, as appears from his Work published by Laur. Surius, p. 56. 378. as also from his treatise De vera contemplatione, cap. xviii. p. 608.

NIEDER'S Formicarius, a treatise concerning Bees by CENT. THOMAS BRABANTINUS, HUGO DE St. VICTOR'S XIV. dissertation upon Beasts, and a tract of Thomas PART II. Walley's, intitled, The Nature of Brute Animals moralized.

VIII. The defenders of Christianity in this age Controverwere, generally speaking, unequal to the glorious fialifies. cause they undertook to support; nor do their writings discover any striking marks of genius, dexterity, perspicuity, or candour. Some produc-tions, indeed, appeared from time to time, that were not altogether unworthy of notice. The learned BRADWARDINE, an English divine, advanced many pertinent and ingenious things towards the confirmation of the truth of Christianity in general, in a Book upon Providence. The book, intitled, Collyrium Fidei contra Hæreticos, or, Eye-salve of Faith against the Heretics, shews that its author ALVARUS PELA-GIUS was a well meaning and judicious man, though he has by no means exhausted the subject in this performance. NICHOLAS LYRA wrote against the Jews, as did also Porchetus Salvaticus, whose treatise, intitled, The Triumph of Faith, is chiefly borrowed from the writings of RAYMOND MARTIN. Both these writers are much inferior to Theo-PHANES, whose Book against the Jews, and his Harmony between the Old and New Testament, contain many observations that are by no means contemptible.

IX. During this century, there were some pro-State of the missing appearances of a reconciliation between the controversy Greeks and Latins. For the former, apprehending Greeks and they should want the affishance of the Latins to set Latins. bounds to the power of the Turks, which about this time was continually increasing, often pretended a willingness to submit to the Latin canons. Accordingly, A. D. 1339, Andronicus, the Younger, sent Barlaam as his ambassador into the west, to desire a reconciliation in his name. In the year 1349,

CENT. another Grecian embassy was fent to CLEMENT VI. for the same purpose, and, in 1356, a third was PART II dispatched upon a like errand to INNOCENT VI. who refided at Avignon. Nor was this all; for, in the year 1367, the Grecian patriarch arrived at Rome in order to negociate this important matter, and was followed, in the year 1369, by the emperor himself, JOHN PALÆOLOGUS, who undertook a journey into Italy, and, in order to conciliate the friendship and good-will of the Latins, published a confession of his faith, which was agreeable to the fentiments of the Roman pontiff. But, notwithstanding these prudent and pacific measures, the major part of the Greeks could not be perfuaded by any means to drop the controversy, or to be reconciled to the church of Rome, though feveral of them from views of interest or ambition, expressed a readiness to submit to its demands; fo that this whole century was fpent partly in furious debates, and partly in fruitless negotiations $\lceil k \rceil$. X. In the year 1384, a furious controversy arose

The contention between the univerfity of Paris and the Dominicans.

Dominican Order. The author of it was JOHN DE Montesono, a native of Arragon, a Dominican friar and professor of divinity, who, pursuant to the decisions and doctrine of his Order, publicly denied that the bleffed Virgin MARY was conceived without any stain of original fin; and moreover afferted, that all who believed the immaculate conception were Gecasioned enemies of the true faith. The quarrel occasioned by Monte- by this proceeding would certainly have been foon compromised, had not John, in a public discourse, delivered fome time in the year 1387, revived this

at Paris, between the University there and the

fonus.

[[]k] See HENR. CANISII Lectiones Antique, tom. iv. p. 369. -LEO. ALLATIUS, De perpetua consensione eccles. Orient et Occident. lib. ii. cap. xvi. xvii. p. 782.—Luc. Waddingus, ."nnal, Minor. tom. viii. p. 29. 40. 107. 201. 289. 303. 312.-STEPH. BALUZII Vila Pontif. Avenion. tom. i, p. 348. 380. 388. 403. 407. 410. 772.

opinion with more violence than ever. For this CENT. reason the college of divines, and afterwards the xIII. whole university, condemned this, and some other PART II. tenets of Montesonus. For it may be proper to inform the reader, that the university of Paris, principally induced thereto by the discourses of John Duns Scotus, had from the beginning almost of this century, publicly adopted the doctrine of the finless conception of the holy Virgin [1]. Upon this, the Dominicans, together with their champion Montesonus, appealed from the sentence of the university to pope CLEMENT VII. at Avignon, and raised an outcry, that St. Thomas himself was condemned by the judgment passed upon their brother. But, before the pope could decide the affair, the accused friar fled from the court of Avignon, went over to the party of URBAN VI. who resided at Rome, and thus, during his abfence, was excommunicated. Whether or no the pope approved the fentence of the university of Paris we cannot fay. The Dominicans, however, deny that he did, and affirm, that Montesonus was condemned purely on account of his flight $\lceil m \rceil$; though there are many others, who affert that his opinion was also condemned. And as the Dominicans would not acknowledge the fentence of the univerfity to be valid, they were expelled in the year 1389, and were not restored to their ancient honours in that learned body till the year 1404 $\lceil n \rceil$.

^[1] See Waddingi Annal. Minor. tom. vi. p. 52. f.
[m] See Jac. Echardi Scriptor. Prædicator. tom. i. p. 691.
[n] Cæs. Egass. De Boulay, Hist. Acad. Paris. tom. iv.
p. 599. 618. 638.—Steph. Baluzii Vitæ Pontif. Avenion. tom.
i. p. 521. tom. ii. p. 992.—Argentre, Collectio judicior. de novis errorib. tom. i. p. 61.—Jac. de Longueval, Hist. de l'Eglise Gallicane, tom. xiv. p. 347.

CHAPTER IV.

Concerning the rites and ceremonies used in the church during this century.

I. WE must confine ourselves to a general and superficial view of the alterations that were PART II. introduced into the ritual of the church during this century, fince it cannot reasonably be expected we The alter- should insist largely upon this subject, within the narrow limits of fuch a work as this. One of the jubilee. principal circumstances that strikes us here, is the change that was made in the time of celebrating the In the year 1350, CLEMENT VI. in compliance with the requests of the people of Rome, enacted, that the jubilee, which Boniface VIII. had ordered to be held every hundredth year, should be celebrated twice in every century [o]. In favour of this alteration, he might have affigned a very plaufible pretext; fince it is well known that the Jews, whom the Roman pontiffs were always ready to imitate in whatever related to pomp and majesty, celebrated this facred folemnity every fiftieth year. But UABAN VI. SIXTUS VI. and other popes, who ordered a more frequent celebration of this falutary and profitable inflitution, would have had more difficulty in attempting to fatisfy those who might have demanded fufficient reasons to justify this inconstancy.

Festivals.

II. INNOCENT V. instituted festivals facred to the memory of the lance with which our Saviour's side was pierced, the nails that fastened him to the cross,

^[0] BALUZII Vita Pontif. Avenion. tom. i. p. 247. 287: 312. 887.—MURATORII Antiquit. Ital. tom. iii. p. 344. 481.

This, though evidently abfurd, was nevertheless XIV. pardonable upon the whole, considering the gross PARTILI ignorance and stupidity of the times. But nothing can excuse the impious fanaticism and superstition of BENEDICT XII. who, by appointing a festival in honour of the marks of Christ's wounds, which, the Franciscans tell us, were imprinted upon the body of their chief and sounder by a miraculous interposition of the divine power, gave credit to that grossly ridiculous and blasphemous sable. Pope Prayers. John XXII. besides the sanction he gave to many other superstitions, ordered Christians to add to their prayers those words with which the angel Gabriel saluted the Virgin Mary.

CHAPTER V.

Concerning the divisions and heresies that troubled the church during this century.

I. DURING some part of this century the Controver-Hesychasts, or, as the Latins call them, the Quietists, see excited by the Quietists as a flight the true source of it we must observe, that Barlaam, a native of Calabria, who was a monk of St. Basil, and afterwards bishop of Gieraci, in Calabria, made a progress through Grecce to inspect the behaviour of the monks, among whom he found many things highly reprehensible. He was more especially offended at the Hesychasts of mount Athos,

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[[]p] See Jo. Henr. A Seelen, Diff. de festo Lanceæ et clavorum Christi.—Baluzii Vit. Pontif. Avenion. tom. i. p. 328. Miscellan. tom. i. p. 417.

CENT. in Thessalv, who were the same with the Mystics, or more perfect monks, and who, by a long course of PART IL intense contemplation, endeavoured to arrive at a tranquillity of mind entirely free from every degree of tumult and perturbation. These Quietists, in compliance with an ancient opinion of their principal doctors (who imagined that there was a celestial light concealed in the deepest retirements of the mind), used to fit every day, during a certain space of time, in a folitary corner, with their eyes eagerly and immoveably fixed upon the middle region of the belly, or navel; and boasted, that, while they remained in this posture, they found in effect, a divine light beaming forth from the foul, which diffused through their hearts inexpressible sensations of pleasure and delight [q]. To such as inquired

> [q] We have no reason to be surprised at, and much less to disbelieve, this account. For it is a fundamental rule with all those people in the eattern world, whether Christians, Mahometans, or Pagans (who maintain the necessity of abstracting the mind from the body, in order to hold communion with God, which is exactly the fame thing with the contemplative and muffic life among the Latins), that the eyes must be sleadily fixed every way for some hours upon some particular object; and that he who complies with this precept will be thrown into an extafy, in which, being united to God, he will fee wonderful things, and be entertained with inestable delights. See what is faid concerning the Shamefe monks and Myfiks by ENGELB KEMPFER, in his Hiftery of Japan, tom i. p. 30. and also concerning those of India, in the Foyages of Bunier, tom. ii. p. 127. Indeed, I can eafily admit, that they who continue long in the abovementioned posture, will imagine they behald many things which no man in his senses ever beheld or thought of. For certainly the combinations they form of the unconnected notions that arife to their fine. while here middenic in this odd and unnutural state, must Le most fingular and whimhed; and that to much the more, as the rule it. if which protection the contemplation of a certain object as the means of arriving at a refer of the Delty, absolutely forbids all use at the faculty of realing during that extatic and fablime interval. This total fuperfion of recion and reflection, during the period of concemplation, was not, however, peculiar to the cartain Quietills; the Latin Mostice observed the same rule, and inculented it upon their disciples. And from hence

what kind of light this was, they replied, by way CENT. of illustration, that it was the glory of God, the same xIV. celestial radiance that surrounded Christ during PART IL his transfiguration on the mount. BARLAAM, entirely unacquainted with the customs and manners of the Mystics, looked upon all this as highly abfurd and fanatical, and therefore styled the monks, who adhered to this institution, Massalians, and Euchites $\lceil r \rceil$, and also gave them the new name of *Umbilicani* [s]. On the other hand, GREGORY PALAMAS, archbishop of Thessalonica, defended the cause of these monks against BARLAAM [t].

II. In order to put an end to this diffention, a The flate of council was held at Confantinople in the year 13.11, the controin which the emperor himself Andronicus the tween the younger, and the patriarch, prefided. Here PALA- Helychists and Bar-MAS and the monks triumphed over BARLAAM, who lamites. was condemned by the council; whereupon he left Greece, and returned to Italy. Not long after this, another monk, named GREGORY ACINDYNUS, renewed the controversy, and, in opposition to the opinion maintained by PALAMAS, denied that God dwelt in an eternal light distinct from his essence, as also that such a light was beheld by the disciples on mount Tabor. The dispute was now no longer concerning the monks, but turned upon the light feen at mount Tabor, and also upon the nature and

we may fafely conclude, that the many furprifing visions, of which these fanatics boast, are fables utterly destitute of reason and probability. But this is not the proper place for enlarging upon prodigies of this nature.

[[]r] The Massalians (so called from a Hebrew word which fignifics prayer, as Euchites from a Greek word of the fame fignification) formed themselves into a sect, during the fourth century, under the reign of CONSTANTIUS. Their tenets resembled those of the Quietists in feveral respects.

[[]s] Ouparofuxor.

^[1] For an account of these two samous men, BARLAAM and GREGORY PALAMAS, fee, in preference to all other writers, Jo. ALB. FABRICIUS, Biblioth. Graca, tom. K. p. 427. and 454.

CENT. residence of the Deity. Nevertheless, he was condemned as a follower of BARLAAM, in another PART II. council held at Constantinople. Many affemblies were convened about this affair; but the most remarkable of them all, was that held in the year 1351, in which the Barlaamites and their adherents received such a fatal wound, in consequence of the fevere decrees enacted against them, that they were forced to yield, and leave the victory to PALAMAS. This prelate maintained, that God was incircled, as it were, with an eternal light, which might be flyled his energy or operation, and was distinct from his nature and effence; and that he favoured the three disciples with a view of this light upon mount Tabor. Hence he concluded, that this divine operation was really different from the substance of the Deity; and further, that no Being could possibly partake of the divine fubstance or essence, but that finite natures might possess a share of his divine light, or operation. The Barlaamites, on the contrary, denied these positions, affirming, that the properties and operations of the Deity were not different from his effence, and that there was really no difference between the attributes and effence of

God, confidered in themselves, but only in our conceptions of them, and reasonings upon them $\lceil u \rceil$.

[[]u] See Jo. Cantacuzenus, Historia, lib. ii. cap. xxxix. p. 263. and Gregor. Pontanus. Nicephorus Gregoras, Historia Byzantina, lib. xi. cap. x. p. 277. and in many other places. But these two writers disagree in many circumstances. Many materials relative to this controversy are yet unpublished (see Montfaucon, Biblioth. Coissiniana, p. 150. 174. 404.) Nor have we ever been savoured with an accurate and well-digested history of it. In the mean time, the reader may consult Leo Allatius, De perpetua consensione Orient. et Occid. ecclesia, lib. ii. cap. xxii. p. 824.—Henr. Canisii Lessiones Antiqua, tom. iv. p. 361.—Dion. Petavius, Dogmat. Theol. tom. i. lib. i. cap. xii. p. 76.—Steph. de Altimura, Panoplia contra Schisma Gracor. p. 381, &c.

III. In the Latin church the inquisitors, those CENT. active ministers and executioners of papal justice, XIV. extended their vigilance to every quarter, and most PART II. industriously hunted out the remains of those sects who opposed the religion of Rome, even the Walty of the denses, the Catharists, the Apostolists, and others; inquisition so that the history of these times abounds with the western world. numberless instances of persons who were burnt, or otherwise barbarously destroyed, by these unrelenting instruments of superstitious vengeance. But none of these enemies of the church gave the inquifitors and bishops so much employment of this bloody kind, as the Brethren and Sisters of the free spirit, who went under the common name of Begbards and Beguines in Germany and Fianders, and were differently denominated in other provinces. For as this fort of people professed an uncommon and sublime fort of devotion, endeavouring to call off men's minds from the external and fensible parts of religion, and to win them over to the inward and spiritual worship of God, they were greatly esteemed by many plain, well-meaning persons, whose piety and simplicity were deceived by a profession so seducing, and thus made many converts to their opinions. was on this account that fuch numbers of this turn and disposition perished in the slames of persecution during this century in Italy, France, and Germany.

IV. This fect was most numerous in those cities Severe

of Germany that lay upon the Rhine, especially at edicts against the Cologn, which circumstance induced Henry I. Catharists, archbishop of that diocese, to publish a severe edict Beggards, Beguines, against them, A. D. 1306 [w]; an example that &c. was soon followed by the bishops of Mentz, Triers, Worms, and Strafburg [x]. And as there were some subtile acute men belonging to this party, that

[[]w] See Statuta Coloniensia, published in 4to. at Cologn, A. D. 1554, p. 58.
[N] JOHANNIS Scriptor. rerum Moguntinar. tom. iii. p. 298.

⁻MARTENE, Thefaur. Anecdotor. tom. iv. p. 250.

XIV.

CENT. eminently keen logician, John Duns Scotus [y], was fent to Cologn, in the year 1308, to dispute PART II against them, and to vanquish them by dint of fyllogism. In the year 1310, the famous MARGA-RET PORETTA, who made fuch a shining figure in this fect, was burnt at Paris with one of the brethren. She had undertaken to demonstrate in an elaborate treatise, That the foul, when absorbed in the love of God, is free from the restraint of every law, and may freely gratify all its natural appetites, without contracting any guilt [z]. Pope CLEMENT V. exasperated by this and other inflances of the pernicious fanaticism that had got among this sect, published in a general council held at Vienne, A. D. 1311, a special constitution against the Beggards and Beguines of Germany. And though the edict only mentions imperfectly the opinions of this fect, yet, by the enumeration of them, we may eafily perceive that the Mystic brethren and sisters of the free spirit are the persons principally intended [a]. CLEMENT, in the fame council, iffued another constitution, by which he suppressed another and a very different fort of Beguines [b], who had hitherto been considered as a lawful and regular fociety, and lived every where in fixed habitations appropriated to their order, but were now corrupted by the fanatics above mentioned. For the Brethren and Sifters of the free spirit had infinuated themselves into the greatest part of the convents of the Beguines, where they inculcated with great fuccess their mysterious and fublime system of religion to these simple women.

And these simple women were no sooner initiated

[[]y] WADDING! Annal. Minor. tom. vi. p. 108.

[[]z] Luc. Dacherii Spicil. veter. Scriptor. tom. iii. p. 63-Jo. Baleus, De Scriptor. Britann. Centur. iv. n. 88. p. 367. published in solio at Basil, A. D. 1557.

[[]a] It is extant in the Gorpus Juris Canon, inter Clementinas,

lib. v. tit. iii. De Hareticis, cap. iii. p. 1088.

[[]b] In Jure Canonico inter Clementinas, lib. iii. tit. xi. De religiosis domibus, cap. i. p. 1075. edit. Bohmer.

into this brilliant and chimerical fystem, than they CENT. were captivated with its delusive charms, and xiv. babbled, in the most absurd and impious manner, PART II. concerning the true worship of the Deity $\lceil c \rceil$.

V. The Brethren of the free spirit, oppressed by Neverthefo many severe edicts and constitutions, formed the lefs, the Brethren defign of removing from Upper Germany into the and Sifters lower parts of the empire; and this emigration was of the free spirit could fo far put in execution, as that Westphalia was the not be exonly province which refused admission to these dis-tirpated. perfed fanatics, and was free from their disturbances. This was owing to the provident measures of HENRY, archbishop of Cologn, who, having called a council, A. D. 1322, feriously admonished the bishops of his province of the approaching danger, and thus excited them to exert their utmost vigilance to prevent any of these people from coming into Westphalia. About the same time the Beggards $\lceil d \rceil$ upon the Rhine lost their chief leader and champion, WALTER, a Dutchman, of remarkable eloquence, and famous for his writings, who came from Mentz to Cologn, where he was apprehended and burnt [e].

[c] For this reason, in the German records of this century, we often find a distinction of the Beguines into those of the right and approved class, and those of the sublime and free spirit; the former of whom adhered to the public religion, while the latter were corrupted by the opinions of the Myflics.

[d] By Beggards here Dr. Mosherm means particularly the Brethren of the free spirit, who frequently passed under this

denomination.

[e] Jo. Trithemii Annal. Hirfaug. tom. ii. p. 155.— SCHATEN, Annal. Paderborn. tom. ii. p. 250.—This is that famous Walter, whom so many ecclesiastical historians have represented as the founder of the sect of the Lollards, and as an eminent martyr to their cause. Learned men conclude all this and more from the following words of TRITHEMIUS. But that fame WALTER Lohareus (so it stands in my copy, though I fancy it ought to have been Lollhardus; especially as TRITHEMIUS, according to the custom of his time, frequently uses this word when treating of the fects that differted from the church) a native of Holland, was not well versed in the Latin tongue. I say, from

The death of this person was highly detrimental to the affairs of the Brethren of the free spirit, but did XIV. PART II. not, however, ruin their cause nor extirpate their fect. For it appears from innumerable testimonies, that these people, for a long time afterwards, not only held their private affemblies at Cologn, and in many other provinces of Germany, but also that they had feveral men among them of high rank and great learning, of which number HENRY AYEAR-Dus, or Eccard, a Saxon, was the most famous. He was a Dominican, and also the superior of that order in Saxony; a man of a fubtile genius, and one who had acquitted himself with reputation as professor of divinity at Paris [f]. In the year 1330, pope John XXII. endeavoured to suppress this obstinate sect by a new and severe constitution, in which the errors of the fect of the free spirit are marked out in a more diffinct and accurate manner than in the Clementina [g]. But his attempt was

this fhort passage, learned men have concluded that Walter's surname was Lollhard; from whence, as from its sounder and master, they supposed his sect derived the name of Lollards. But it is very evident, not only from this, but from many other passages of Trithemius, that Lollhard was no surname, but merely a term of reproach applied to all heretics whatever, who concealed the poison of error under the appearance of piety. Trithemius, speaking of the very same man, in a passage which occurs a little before that we have just quoted, calls him the head of the Fratricelli, or Minorites: but the term Minorites was a very extensive one, including people of various sects. This Walter embraced the opinions of the Myslics, and was the principal doctor among those Brethren of the free spirit, who lived on the banks of the Rhine.

[f] See Echardi Scriptor. Predicator. tom. i. p. 507.—Odor. Raynaldus, Annal. tom. xv. ad A. 1329. § lxx.

p. 389.

[g] This new conflitution of John XXII. was never published entire. It began with the following words: In agro-Dominico, and was inscribed thus, contra singularia dubia, suspetta, et temeraria, qua Beghardi et Beghina pradicant et observant. We are favoured with a summary of it by Herm. Cornerus, in Chronico, in Eccardi Corpore Histor. medii avi, tom. ii. p.

fruitless, the disorder continued, and was combated CENT. both by the inquisitors and bishops in most parts of xiv.

Europe to the end of this century.

VI. The Clementina, or constitution of the council The persection of Vienne against the Beguines, or those female cution of societies, who lived together in fixed habitations, the Begu-under a common rule of pious discipline and virtuous tragical industry, gave rise to a persecution of these people, conclusion. which lasted till the reformation by LUTHER, and ruined the cause both of the Beguines and Beggards in many places. For though the pope, in his last constitution, had permitted pious women to live as nuns in a state of celibacy, with or without taking the vow, and refused a toleration only to such of them as were corrupted with the opinions of the Brethren of the free spirit; yet the vast number of enemies which the Beguines and Beggards had, partly among the mechanics, especially the weavers, and partly among the priests and monks, took a handle from the Clementina to molest the Beguines in their houses, to seize and destroy their goods, to offer them many other infults, and to involve the Beggards in the like perfecution. The Roman pontiff, John XXII. afforded the Beguines fome relief under these oppressions, in the year 1324, by means of a special constitution, in which he gave a favourable explication of the Clementina, and ordered that the goods, chattels, habitations, and focieties of the innocent Beguines should be preserved from every kind of violence and infult; which example of clemency and moderation was afterwards followed by other popes. On the other hand, the Beguines in hopes of disappointing more effectually the malicious attempts of their enemies, and avoiding their fnares, embraced in many places the third rule of St. FRANCIS, and

^{1035, 1036.} It is also mentioned by PAUL LANGIUS, in Chronico Citizensi, in Jo. PISTORII Scriptor. rerum German. tom. i. p. 1206.

of the Augustines. Yet all these measures in their favour could not prevent the loss both of their PART II. reputation and substance; for from this time they were oppressed in several provinces by the magistrates, the clergy, and the monks, who had cast a greedy eye upon their treasures, and were extremely eager to divide the spoil $\lceil h \rceil$.

The feet of the Flagellants ap-

VII. Some years before the middle of this century. while Germany and many other parts of Europe were pears again distressed with various calamities, the Flagellants, a fect forgotten almost every where, and especially in Germany, made their appearance anew, and, rambling through many provinces, occasioned great disturbances. These new Flagellants, whose enthufiasm infected every rank, sex, and age, were much worse than the old ones. They not only supposed that God might be prevailed upon to shew mercy to those who underwent voluntary punishments, but propagated other tenets highly injurious to religion. They held, among other things, "That flagellation " was of equal virtue with baptism, and the other " facraments: that the forgiveness of all sins was to " be obtained by it from God without the merits of " JESUS CHRIST; that the old law of CHRIST was 66 foon to be abolished, and that a new law, enjoining "the baptism of blood, to be administered by " whipping, was to be substituted in its place," with other tenets more or less enormous than these; whereupon CLEMENT VII. thundered out anathemas against the Flagellants, who were burnt by the

[[]b] I have collected a great number of particulars relating to this long perfecution of the Beguines. But the most copious of all the writers who have published any thing upon this subject, (especially if we consider his account of his persecution at Basil, and Mulbergius, the most inveterate enemy of the Beguines) is Christianus Wurstisen, or Urstisius, in his Chronicum Bafiliense, written in German, lib. iv. cap. ix. p. 201. published in folio at Bossil, 1580. There are now in my hands, and also in many I braries, MSS. tracks of this celebrated Mulbergius, written against the Legaines in the following century.

inquisitors in several places. It was, however, found CENT. as difficult to extirpate them, as it had been to XIV. suppress the other sects of wandering fanatics PART II. [i].

VIII. Directly the reverse of this melancholy sect The seet of was the merry one of the *Dancers*, which, in the the Dancers year 1373, arose at *Aix-la-Chapelle*, from whence it fpread through the district of Liege, Hainault, and other parts of Flanders. It was customary among these fanatics for persons of both sexes, publicly, as well as in private, to fall a dancing all of a fudden, and, holding each others hands, to continue their motions with extraordinary violence, till, being almost suffocated, they fell down breathless together; and they affirmed, that, during these intervals of vehement agitation, they were favoured with won-derful visions. Like the *Flagellants*, they wandered about from place to place, had recourse to begging for their subfishence, treated with the utmost contempt both the priesthood and the public rites and worship of the church, and held secret assemblies. Such was the nature, and fuch the circumstances of this new frenzy, which the ignorant clergy of this age looked upon as the work of evil demons, who possessed, as they thought, this dancing tribe. Accordingly the priests of *Liege* endeavoured to cast out the devils, which rendered these fanatics so merry, by singing hymns and applying sumigations of incense: and they gravely tell us, that the evil spirit was entirely vanquished by these powerful charms $\lceil k \rceil$.

[[]i] See Baluzii Vit. Pontif. Avenion. tom. i. p. 160. 316. 319. & Miscellan. tom. i. p. 50.—Matthæi Analesta vet. ævi, tom. i. p. 50. tom. iii. p. 241. tom. iv. p. 145.—Herm. Gygis, Flores tempor. p. 139.

[[]k] See BALUZII Pontif. Avenion. tom. i. p. 485.—ANT. MATTHÆI Analetta vet. ævi, tom. i. p. 51. where we find the following passage in the Belgic chronicle, which gives but an obscure account of the set in question: A. 137; Gingen DE

IX. The most heinous and abominable tribe of

XIV. The Knights Templars extirpated.

CENT.

heretics that infected this century (if the enormities, PART II with which they stand charged, be true), were the Knights Templars, who had been established in Palestine about two hundred years before this period, and who are represented as enemies and deriders of all religion. Their principal accuser indeed was a person whose testimony ought not to be admitted without caution. This accuser was Philip the Fair, who addressed his complaints of the Templars to CLEMENT V. who was himself an avaricious, vindictive, and turbulent prince. The pope, though at first unwilling to proceed against them, was under a necessity of complying with the king's defire; fo that, in the year 1307, upon an appointed day, and for some time afterwards, all the knights, who were dispersed throughout Europe, and not in the least apprehensive of any impending evil, were seized and imprisoned. Such of them as refused to confess the enormities of which they were accused, were put to death; and those who, by tortures and promifes, were induced to acknowledge the truth of what was laid to their charge, obtained their liberty. In the year 1311, the whole order was extinguished by the council of Vienne. A part of the rich revenues they possessed was bestowed upon other orders, especially on the knights of St. John, now of Malia, and the rest confiscated to the respective treasuries of the sovereign princes in whose dominions their possessions lay.

X. The Knights Templars, if their judges be I he intopiety of the worthy of credit, were a fet of men who infulted the majesty of God, turned into derision the gospel Templars is of CHRIST, and trampled upon the obligation of all the cause of laws human and divine. For it is affirmed, that this feverity.

> Dansers, and then in Latin, Gens, impacata cadit, cruciata falvat. The French convulfionifls (or prophets), who in our age were remarkable for the vehemence and variety of their agitations, greatly resembled these brethren and sister Dancers.

candidates, upon their admission to this order, were CENT. commanded to spit, as a mark of contempt, upon an image of CHRIST; and that, after admission, they PART H. were bound to worship either a cat, or wooden head A reflection covered with gold. It is farther affirmed, that concerning among them, the odious and unnatural act of fodomy the crimes was a matter of obligation; that they committed to charge. the flames the unhappy fruit of their lawless amours; and added to these, other crimes too horrible to be mentioned, or even imagined. It will indeed be readily allowed that in this order, as in all the other religious focieties of this age, there were shocking examples of impiety and wickedness; but that the whole order of the Templars was thus enormously corrupt, is fo far from being proved, that the contrary may be concluded even from the acts and records, yet extant, of the tribunals before which they were tried and examined. If to this we add, that many of the accufations advanced against them flatly contradict each other, and that many members of this unfortunate order folemnly avowed their innocence, while languishing under the severest tortures, and even with their dying breath; it would feem probable that king PHILIP fet on foot this bloody tragedy, with a view to gratify his avarice, and glut his refentment against the Templars [1],

^[1] See the Ads annexed to Putean's Histoire de la Condemnation des Templiers, and other writings of his, relating to the history of France, published in 4to, at Paris, 1654. Another edition of this book was printed in 8vo. at Paris, 1685: another at Brussels, 1713, two volumes in 8vo. The fourth, and most valuable of all, was published in 4to, at Brussels, 1751, enlarged by the addition of a great number of proofs, by which every diligent and impartial reader will be convinced that the Templars were greatly injured. See also Nicolai Gurtleri Historia Templariorum, Amslelod. 1703, in 8vo. If the reader has opportunity, he would do well to consult Steph. Baluzius Vit. Pontif. Avenion. tom. i. p. 8. 11, 12, &c. Germ. du Bois, Histor. Eccles. Paris. tom. ii. p. 540. The principal cause of king Philip's indelible hatred against the Templars, was, that,

CENT. and especially against their grand master, who had xIV. highly offended him.

PART II.

in his quarrel with Boniface VIII. the knights espoused the cause of the pope, and surnished him with money to carry on the war; an offence this, which Philip could never pardon.

FIFTEENTH CENTURY

PART I.

The External HISTORY of the CHURCH.

CHAPTER I.

Concerning the profperous events that happened to the Church during this century.

I. HE new subjects, that were added to CENT. the kingdom of CHRIST in this century, are XV. altogether unworthy of that sublime title, unless we PART I. prostitute it by applying it to those who made an external, though insincere, profession of Christianity. The Moors and Jews FERDINAND, surnamed the Catholic, by the conquest converted of Granada in the year 1492, entirely overturned in Spain by the dominion of the Moors, or Saracens, in Spain.

Some time after this happy revolution, he issued out a sentence of banishment against a prodigious multitude of Jews, who, to avoid the execution of this severe decree, dissembled their sentiments, and feigned an assent to the Gospel of Christ [a]: and it is well known that, to this very day, there are both in Spain and Portugal a great number of that dispersed and wretched people, who wear the outward mask of Christianity, to secure them against

[[]a] Jo. de Ferreras, Hist. Generale d'Espagne, tom, viii. p. 123. 132, &c.

the rage of persecution, and to advance their worldly interests. The myriads of Saracens, that remained XV. PART I. in Spain after the diffolution of their government, were at first solicited by exhortations and entreaties to embrace the Gospel. When these gentle methods proved ineffectual to bring about their conversion, the famous XIMENES, archbishop of Toledo, and prime-minister of the kingdom, judged it expedient to try the force of the fecular arm, in order to accomplish that falutary purpose. But even this rigorous measure was without the desired effect: the greatest part of the Mahometans persisted, with aftonishing obstinacy, in their fervent attachment to their voluptuous prophet $\lceil b \rceil$.

The Samoverted.

II. The light of the Gospel was also carried in getæ and Indianscon- this century among the Samogetæ and the neighbouring nations, but with lefs fruit than was expected $\lceil c \rceil$. Towards the conclusion of this age, the Portuguese, who cultivated with ardor and fuccess the art of navigation, had penetrated as far as Æthiopia and the Indies. In the year 1492, CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS, by discovering the islands of Hispaniola, Cuba, and Jamaica, opened a paffage into America [d], and after him AMERICUS VESPUTIUS, a citizen of Florence, landed on the continent of that vast region [e]. The new Argonauts, who discovered these nations that had been hitherto unknown to the inhabitants of Europe, judged it their duty to enlighten them with the knowledge of the truth. The first attempt of this pious nature was made by

[[]b] ESPRIT FLECHIER. Histoire du Cardinal Ximenes, p. 89. -GEDDES, History of the Expulsion of the Moriscoes, in his Miscellaneous Trads, tom. i. p. 8.

[[]c] Jo. HENRY HOTTINGER. Hift. Ecclefiaft. Sac.

[[]d] See CHARLEVOIX, Histoire de l'Isle de St. Doiningo, tom. i. p. 64.

[[]e] See the Life of Americus Vesputius, written in Italian by the learned ANGELI MARIA BANDINI.

the Portuguese among those Africans, who inhabit CENT. the kingdom of Congo, and who, together with their monarch, were converted all of a sudden to the PART I. Roman faith in the year 1491 [f]. But what must we think of a conversion brought about with fuch aftonishing rapidity, and of a people which all at once, without hesitation, abandon their ancient and inveterate prejudices? Has not fuch a converfion a ridiculous, or rather an afflicting, aspect? After this religious revolution in Africa, ALEXAN-DER VI. gave a rare specimen of papal presumption, in dividing America between the Portuguese and Spaniards; but shewed at the same time his zeal for the propagation of the Gospel, by the ardor with which he recommended to these two nations the instruction and conversion of the Americans, both in the isles and on the continent of that immense region [g]. In consequence of this exhortation of the pontiff, a great number of Franciscans and Dominicans were fent into these countries to enlighten their darkness, and the success of their missions is abundantly known $\lceil h \rceil$.

[[]f] LABAT, Relation de l'Ethiope Occidentale, tom. ii. p. 366.

—Jos. Franc. Lafitau. Histoire des decouvertes des Portugais dans le nouveau Monde, tom. i. p. 72.

[[]g] See the Bull itself, in the Bullarium Romanum, tom. i.

p. 466.

[[]b] See Thom. Maria Mamachius, Orig. et Antiquitat. Christianar. tom. ii. p. 326. where we have an account of the gradual introduction of the Christian religion into America.—See also Wadding. Annal. Minor. tom. xv. p. 10.

CHAPTER II.

Concerning the calamitous events that happened to the Church during this century.

I, IN the vast regions of the eastern world, CENT. XV. Christianity lost ground from day to day, and the PART I. Mahometans, whether Turks or Tartars, united their barbarous efforts to extinguish its bright and The decline of Christi- falutary lustre. Asiatic Tartary, Mogul, Tangut anity in the and the adjacent provinces, where the religion of Jesus had long flourished, were now become the dismal seats of superstition, which reigned among them under the vilest forms. Nor in these immense tracts of land were there at this time any traces of Christianity visible, except in China, where the Nestorians still preserved some scattered remains of their former-glory, and appeared like a faint and dying taper in the midst of a dark and gloomy firmament. That some Nestorian churches were still subsisting in these regions of darkness is undoubtedly certain; for in this century the Nestorian pontisf, in Chaldea, fent missionaries into Cathay and China, who were empowered to exercise the authority of bishops over the Christian assemblies, which lay concealed in the remoter provinces of these great empires [i]. It is at the fame time almost equally certain, that even these assemblies did not survive this century.

Configntinople taken by the Turks. II. The ruin of the Grecian empire was a new fource of calamities to the Christian church in the greatest part of *Europe* and *Asia*. When the Turks, headed by Mahomet II. an accomplished prince

[[]i] This circumstance was communicated to the author in a letter from the learned Mr. Theophilus Sigifred Bayer, one of the greatest adepts in Eastern History and Antiquities, that this or any other age has produced.

and a formidable warrior, had made themselves CENT. masters of Constantinople, in the year 1453; the xv. cause of Christianity received a blow from which it PART I. has never, as yet, recovered. Its adherents in these parts had no refources left, which could enable them to maintain it against the perpetual insults of their fierce and incenfed victors; nor could they stem that torrent of barbarism and ignorance that rushed in with the triumphant arms of MAHOMET, and overspread Greece with a fatal rapidity. The Turks took one part of the city of Constantinople by force of arms; the other furrendered upon terms $\lceil k \rceil$. Hence it was, that in the former the public profession of the Gospel was prohibited, and every vestige of Christianity essaced; while the inhabitants of the latter were permitted to retain their churches and monasteries during the whole course of this century, and to worship God according to the precepts of the Gospel and the dictates of their consciences. This precious liberty was, indeed, confiderably diminished under the reign of Selim I. and the Christian worship was loaded with severe and despotic restrictions [1]. The outward form of the Christian church was not, indeed, either changed or destroyed by the Turks; but its lustre was eclipfed, its strength was undermined, and it was gradually extenuated to a mere shadow under their tyrannic empire. The Roman pontiff Pius II. wrote a warm and urgent letter to MAHOMET II. to

[[]k] In this account Dr. Mosheim has followed the Turkish writers. And indeed their account is much more probable than that of the Latin and Greek historians, who suppose, that the whole city was taken by force, and not by capitulation. The Turkish relation diminishes the glory of their conquest, and therefore probably would not have been adopted, had it not been true.

^[1] DEMET. CANTEMIR, Histoire de l'Empire Ottoman, tom. i. p. 11. 46. 54, 55.

CENT. perfuade that prince to profess the Gospel; but XV. this letter is equally destitute of piety and prudence Part I. [m].

[m] BAYLE'S Didionary, at the article MAHOMET II.

PART II.

The Internal History of the Church.

CHAPTER I.

Concerning the slate of letters and philosophy during this century.

I. THE Grecian and Oriental Muses lan-cent. guished under the despotic yoke of the Mahometans, xv. their voices were mute, and their harps unstrung. Part II. The republic of letters had a quite different aspect in the Latin world, where the liberal arts and sciences flourishes were cultivated with zeal and spirit under the most among the auspicious encouragements, and recovered their ancient lustre and glory. Several of the popes became their zealous patrons and protectors, among whom Nicholas V. deserves an eminent and distinguished rank; the munificence and authority of kings and princes were also nobly exerted in this excellent cause, and animated men of learning and genius to display their talents. The illustrious family of the Medicis in Italy [n], Alphonsus VI. king of Naples, and the other Neapolitan monarchs of the

[n] We have a full account of the obligations which the republic of letters has to the family of Medicis, in a valuable work of Joseph Bianchini de Prato, Del gran Duchi di Toscana della neale Casa de Medici, Protettori della Lettere et delle Belle Arti, Ragionamenti Historici, published in solio at Venice, in 1741.

CENT. house of Arragon [o], acquired immortal renown by their love of letters, their liberality to the learned, PART II. and their ardent zeal for the advancement of science. Hence the academies that were founded in Germany, France, and Italy, the libraries that were collected

at a prodigious expence, and the honours and rewards that were proposed to the studious youth, to animate their industry by the views of interest and the defire of glory. To all these happy circumstances, in favour of the sciences, was now added an admirable discovery, which contributed as much as any thing else to their propagation, I mean the art of printing, first with wooden, and afterwards with metal types, which was invented about the year 1440, at Mentz, by John Guttemburg. By the fuccours of this incomparable art, the productions of the most eminent Greek and Latin writers, which had lain concealed, before this interesting period, in the libraries of the monks, were now spread abroad with facility, and perused by many, who could never have had access to them under their primitive form $\lceil p \rceil$. The perufal of these noble

[0] See GIANNONE, Histoire Civile du Royaume de Naples, tom. iii. p. 500. 628.—Anton. Panormitani Dieta et Faela memorabilia Alphonsi I. denuo Edita à Jo. GERH. MEUSCHENIO

Vit. Erud. Viror. tom. ii. p. 1.

([p] Dr. Mosheim decides here, that Guttemburg of Mentz was the first inventor of the art of printing; but this notion is opposed with zeal by several men of learning. Among the many treatifes that have been published upon this subject, there is none composed with more erudition and judgment than that of professor Schoepflin of Strasbourg, in which the learned author undertakes to prove, that the art of printing, by the means of letters engraven on plates of wood, was invented at Haerlem by COSTER; that the method of printing, by moveable types, was the discovery of John Guttemburg, a discovery made during his refidence at Strasbourg; and that the still more perfect manner of printing with types of metal cast in a mould, was the contrivance of John Schoeffer, and was first practifed at Mentz. This learned work, in which the author examines the opinions of MARCHAND, FOURNIER, and other writers, was published

compositions purified the taste, excited the emulation CENT. of men of genius, and animated them with a noble XV. ambition of excelling in the same way [q].

II. The downfal of the Grecian empire contri-buted greatly to the propagation and advancement mities of of learning in the west. For, after the reduction the Greeke of Constantinople, the most eminent of the Greek conduce to the ad-Literati passed into Italy, and were from thence vancement dispersed into the other countries of Europe, where, of learning the to gain subfishence, these venerable exiles instructed Lating. every where the youth in Grecian erudition, and propagated throughout the western world the love of learning, and a true and elegant taste for the feiences. Hence it was, that every noted city and university possessed one or more of these learned Greeks, who formed the studious youth to literary pursuits [r]. But they received no where such encouraging marks of protection and esteem as in Italy, where they were honoured in a fingular manner in various cities, and were more especially

in the year 1760 at Strasbourg under the following title: Jo. Daniells Schoepflini Confil. Reg. ac Franciæ Historiogr. VINDICIÆ TYPOGRAPHICÆ, &c. *

[q] MICH. MATTAIRE, Annales Typographici.—PROSP.

MARCHAND, Histoire de l'Imprimerie, Haye, 1740.

[r] Jo. HENR. MAII Vita Reuchlini, p. 11. 13. 19. 28. 152, 153. 165.—Casp. Barthius ad Statium, tom. ii. p. 1008.
—Boulay, Hist. Acad. tom. v. p. 692.

Since that time, the very learned and ingenious Mr. Gerard Medraman, pensionary of Rotterdam, has published his laborious and interesting account of the origin and invention of the art of printing, under the following title: Origines Typographica, which sets this matter in its true light, by making certain distinctions unknown to the writers who have treated this subject before him. According to the hypothesis of this learned writer (an hypothesis supported by irresistible proofs), Laurent. Coster, of Haerlen, invented the moveable wooden types.—Genfleish and Guttemberg sarved metallic types at Mentz, which, though superior to the former, were still impersed, because often unequal.—Schoeffer net-fected the invention at Strasbourg, by casting the types in an iron model, or matrix, engraved with a puncheon. Thus the question is decide—Laurent. Coster is evidently the inventor of printing; the others only rendered the art more persect.

CENT. distinguished by the family of MEDICIS, whose liberality to the learned had no bounds. It was xv. PART II. confequently in Italy that these ingenious fugitives were most numerous; and hence that country became, in some measure, the centre of the arts and fciences, and the general rendezvous of all who were ambitious of literary glory [s].

Philology, languages cultivated.

III. The greatest part of the learned men, who poetry, and adorned at this time the various provinces of Italy, were principally employed in publishing accurate and elegant editions of the most eminent Greek and Latin authors, illustrating these authors with useful commentaries, in studying them as their models both in poetry and profe, and in casting light upon the precious remains of antiquity, that were discovered from day to day. In all these branches of literature, many arrived at fuch degrees of excellence, as it is almost impossible to surpass, and extremely difficult to equal. Nor were the other languages and sciences neglected. In the university of Paris, there was now a public professor, not only of the Greek, but also of the Hebrew tongue [t]; and in Spain and Italy the study of that language, and of Oriental learning, and antiquities in general, was purfued with the greatest success [u]. John Reuchlinus, otherwise called CAPNION, and TRITHEMIUS, who had made a vast progress both in the study of the languages and of the sciences, were the restorers

[[]s] For a farther account of this interesting period of the History of Learning, the reader may consult the learned Work of HUMPHR. HODY, De Gracis illustribus literarum Gracarum in Italia inflauratoribus, published in 8vo at Leipsic, in the year To which may be added, SAM. BATTIERII Oratio de instauratoribus Gracarum literarum, published in the Museum Helveticum, tom. iv. p. 163.

[[]t] R. Simon. Critique de la Bibl. Ecclef. par Du Pin, tom. î. p. 502. 512.—Boulay, Histor. Paris. tom. v. p. 852.

[[]u] PAULI COLUMESII Italia Orientalis, p. 4. et Hispania Orientalis, p. 212.

of folid learning among the Germans [70]; Latin CENT. poetry was revived by Antonius Panormita- MV. Nus, who excited a spirit of emulation among Part II. the favourites of the Muses, and had many followers in that sublime art [x]; while Cyriac of Ancona, by his own example, introduced a taste for coins, medals, inscriptions, gems, and other precious monuments of antiquity, of which he himself made a large collection in Italy [y].

IV. It is not necessary to give here a peculiar and The state of minute account of the other branches of literature the Aristotellan and that flourished in this century; nevertheless, the Platonic state of philosophy deserves a moment's attention. Philosophy.

Before the arrival of the Greeks in Italy, ARISTOTLE reigned unrivalled there, and captivated, as it were by a fort of enchantment, all without exception, whose genius led them to philosophical enquiries. The veneration that was shewn him degenerated into a foolish and extravagant enthusiasm; the encomiums with which he was loaded furpaffed the bounds of decency; and many carried matters fo far as to compare him with the respectable precursor of the Messiah [z]. This violent passion for the Stagirite was however abated, or rather was rendered less universal, by the influence which the Grecian sages, and particularly Gemestius Pletho, acquired among the Latins, many of whom they perfuaded to abandon the contentious and fubtile doctrine of the Peripatetics, and to substitute in its place the mild

[[]w] R. Simon, Lettres Choisies, tom. i. p. 262. tom. iv. p. 131. 140.

[[]x] BAYLE'S Didionary, at the article PANORMIT.

[[]y] See the *Itinerarium* of Cyriac of *Ancona*, published at *Florence* in the year 1742, in 8vo, by Mr. Lawrence Mehus, from the original manuscript, together with a Presace, Annotations, and several letters of this learned man, who may be considered as the first antiquarian that appeared in *Europe*.—See also Leon. Aretini *Episola*, tom. ii. lib. ix. p. 149.

[[]z] See Christ. Aug. Heumanni Ada Philosophorum, tom. iii. p. 345.

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CENT. and divine wisdom of Plato. It was in the year 1439, about the time of the famous council of PART II. Fiorence, that this revolution happened in the empire of philosophy. Several illustrious personages among the Latins, charmed with the fublime fentiments and doctrines of Plato, had them propagated among the studious youth, and particularly among those of a certain rank and figure. The most eminent patron of this divine philosophy, as it was termed by its votaries, was Cosmo DE MEDICIS, who had no fooner heard the lectures of PLETHO, than he formed the defign of founding a Platonic academy at Florence. For this purpose he ordered MARSILIUS FICINUS, the fon of his first physician, to be carefully instructed in the doctrines of the Athenian fage, and, in general, in the language and philology of the Greeks, that he might translate into Latin the productions of the most renowned Platonists. Ficinus answered well the expectations, and executed the intentions of his illustrious patron, by translating successively into the Latin language the celebrated works of HERMES TRISMEGISTUS, PLOTINUS, and PLATO. The fame excellent prince encouraged by his munificence, and animated by his protection, many learned men, fuch as Ambrose of Camaldoli, LEONARDO BRUNO, POGGE, and others, to undertake works of a like nature, even to enrich the Latin literature with translations of the best Greek writers. The confequence of all this was, that two philosophical feets arose in Italy, who debated for a long time (with the warmest animosity in a multitude of learned and contentious productions) this important question, which of the two was the greatest philosopher, Aristotle of Plato

 $\lceil a \rceil$?

[[]a] Botvin, dans L'Histoire de l'Academie des Inscriptions et des Lelles Lettres, tom. iv. p. 381.—Launoius, De varia fortuna Aristotelis, p. 225.—Leo Allatius, De Georgius, p. 391.—LA CROZE, Entretiens sur divers Sujets, p. 384.—Joseph

V. Between these .two opposite factions, certain CENT. eminent men, among both Greeks and Latins, xv. thought proper to steer a middle course. To this FART II. class belonged Johannes Picus de Mirandola, The Plato-Bessarion, Hermolaus Barbarus, and others nic Syncreof less renown, who indeed considered Plato as thetiss. fupreme oracle of philosophy, but would by no means fuffer Aristotle to be treated with indifference or contempt, and who proposed to reconcile the jarring doctrines of these two famous Grecian fages, and to combine them into one fystem. These moderate philosophers, both in their manner of teaching, and in the opinions they adopted, followed the modern Platonic school, of which Ammonius was the original founder $\lceil b \rceil$. Their feet was, for a long time, held in the utmost veneration, particularly among the Mystics; while the scholastic doctors, and all fuch as were infected with the itch of disputing, favoured the Peripatetics. But, after all, these reconciling Platonists were chargeable with many errors and follies; they fell into the most childish superstitions, and followed, without either reflection or restraint, the extravagant dictates of their wanton imaginations.

VI. Their fystem of philosophy was, however, The follow-much less pernicious than that of the Aristotelians, ers of Aristotelians, total maintenance their adversaries, who still maintained their superiority tain their superiority.

Bianchini, in his account of the protection granted to the learned by the house of Medicis, which we have mentioned note [n].

—Bruckeri Historia Critica Philosophia, tom iv. p. 62.

It was not only the respective merit of these two philosophers, considered in that point of light, that was debated in this controversy: The principal question was, which of their systems was most conformable to the doctrines of Christianity? And here the Platonic most certainly deserved the presence, as was abundantly proved by Pletho and others. It is well known, that many of the opinions of Aristople lead directly to atheim.

[b] See Bessarion's Letter in the Histoire de l'Academie des Inscriptions et des Belles Lettres, tom. v. p. 456.—Thomasius, De Syncretismo Peripatetico, in Orationibus eius, p. 340.

ENT. in *Italy*, and instructed the youth in all the public XV. schools of learning. For these subtile doctors, and PART II. more especially the followers of AVERROES (who

maintained that all the human race were animated by one common foul) fapped imperceptibly the foundations of both natural and revealed religion, and entertained fentiments very little, if at all, different from that impious pantheistical fystem, which confounds the Deity with the universe, and acknowledges but one felf-existent being, composed of infinite matter and infinite intelligence. The most eminent among this class of fophists was Peter Pomponace, a native of Mantua, a man of a crafty turn, and an arrogant, enterprifing spirit, who, notwithstanding the pernicious tendency of his writings (many of which are yet extant) to undermine the principles, and to corrupt the doctrines of religion $\lceil c \rceil$, was almost universally followed by all the professors of philosophy in the Italian academies. These intricate doctors did not, however, escape the notice of the inquisitors, who, alarmed both by the rapid progress and dangerous tendency of their metaphysical notions, took cognizance of them, and called the Aristotelians to give an account of their principles. The latter, tempering their courage with craft, had recourse to a mean and perfidious flratagem to extricate themselves out of this embarraffing trial. They pretended to establish a wide distinction between philosophical and theological truth; and maintaining that their fentiments were philosophically true, and conformable to right reason, they allowed them to be esteemed theologically false, and contrary to the declarations of the Gospel. This miserable and impudent subterfuge was condemned and prohibited in the following century by LEO X. in a council held at the Lateran.

[[]c] See the very learned BRUCKER's Historia Critica Philosophia, tom. iv. p. 153.

VII. The Realists and Nominalists continued CENT. their disputes in France and Germany with more xv. vigour and animofity than ever, and finding reason PART II. and argument but feeble weapons, they had recourfe Thecontroto mutual invectives and accufations, penal laws, and verfy beeven to the force of arms; a strange method surely, tween the of deciding a metaphysical question. The contest Realists and Nominalists was not only warm, but also universal in its extent; continued. for it infected, almost without exception, all the French and German academies. In most places, however, the Realists maintained a manifest superiority over the No ainalists, to whom they also gave the appellation of Terminists $\lceil d \rceil$. While the famous GERSON and the most eminent of his disciples were living, the No vina ists were in high esteem and credit in the university of Paris. But, upon the death of these powerful and respectable pations, the face of things was entirely changed, and that much to their disadvantage. In the year 1473, Lewis XI. by the instigation of his consellor the bishop of Avranches, issued out a severe edict against the doctrines of the Nominalifts, and ordered all their writings to be feized, and fecured in a fort of imprisonment, that they might not be perused by the people [e]. But the fame monarch mitigated this edict the year following, and permitted fome of the books of that fect to be delivered from their confinement [f]. the year 1481, he went much farther; and not only granted a full liberty to the Nominalifts and their

[[]d] See Brucker's Historia Critica Philosophia, tom. iii. p. 904.—Jo. Salaberti Philosophia Nominalium Vindicata, cap. i.—Baluzii Miscellan. tom. iv. p. 531.—Aegentre, Collectio documentor de novis erroribus, tom. i. p. 220.

[[]e] NAUDE'S Additions à l'Hissoire de Louis XI. p. 203.—Du Boulay, Hist. Acad. Paris. tom. v. p. 678. 705. 708.—Launoy's Hissor. Gymnas. Navarr. tom. iv. opp. part I. p. 201. 378.

[[]f] Boulay, loc. cit. tom. v. p. 710.

XV. its former authority and lustre in the university [g].

CHAPTER II.

oncerning the doctors and ministers of the church, and its form of government, during this century.

I. A HE most eminent writers of this century chanimously lament the miserable condition to which and challan church was reduced by the corruption of its ministers, and which feemed to portend nothing les than it lotal ruin, if Providence did not interpole, by extraordinary means, for its deliverance and prefervation. The vices that reigned among the Roman pontifs, and indeed among all the Rollical orders, were fo flagrant, that the complaints of these good men did not appear at all suggerated, or their apprehensions ill-founded; had any of the corrupt advocates of the clergy courage to call them to an account for the reports of their censures and of their complaints. y, the more eminent rulers of the church, who ed in a luxurious indolence, and the infamous ractice of all kinds of vice, were obliged to hear ith a placid countenance, and even to commend, these bold cenfors, who declaimed against degeneracy of the church, declared that there was almost nothing found either in its visible head, or in its members, and demanded the aid of the fecular arm, and the destroying sword, to lop off the parts

[[]g] The proofs of this we find in SALABERT'S Philosophia Normal. Vindicata cap. i. p. 104.—See also Boulay, loc. cit. tom. v. p. 739. 747.

that were infected with this grievous and deplorable CENT. contagion. Things, in short, were brought to such a XV. pass, that they were deemed the best Christians, and PART II. the most useful members of society, who, braving the terrors of persecution, and triumphing over the fear of man, inveighed with the greatest freedom and fervor against the court of Rome, its lordly pontif, and the whole tribe of his followers and votaries.

II. At the commencement of this century, the The great Latin church was divided into two great factions, western and was governed by two contending pontiffs, mented and BONIFACE IX. who remained at Rome, and BENE-continued. DICT XIII. who refided at Avignon. Upon the death of the former, the Cardinals of his party raised to the pontificate, in the year 1404, Cosbar DE MELIORATI, who assumed the name of Inno-CENT VII. [h], and held that high dignity during the short space of two years only. After his decease, Angeli Corrario, a Venetian cardinal, was chosen in his room, and ruled the Roman faction under the title of GREGORY XII. A plan of reconciliation was however formed, and the contending pontiffs bound themselves, each by an oath, to make a voluntary renunciation of the papal chair, if that step were necessary to promote the peace and welfare of the church; but they both violated this folema obligation in a scandalous manner. Benedict XIII. befieged in Avignon by the king of France, in the year 1408, faved himself by slight, retiring first into Catalonia, his native country, and afterwards to Perpignan. Hence eight or nine of the cardinals,

[b] Besides the ordinary writers, who have given us an account of the transactions that happened under the pontificate of Innocent VII. see Leon. Aretin. Epistol. lib. i. ep. iv. v. p. 6. 19. 21. lib. ii. p. 30. et Colluc. Salutat. Epistol. lib. ii. ep. i. p. 1. 18. edit. Florent.—We have also an account of the pontificate of Gregory, in the Epistles of the same Aretin, lib. ii. iii. p. 32. ep. vii. p. 30. 41. 51. lib. ii. ep. xvii. p. 54. 56. 59.—Jo. Lami Deliciæ Eruditorum, tom. x. p. 494.

CENT. who adhered to his cause, seeing themselves deserted by their pope, went over to the other fide, and, PART II. joining publicly with the cardinals of GREGORY XII. they agreed together to affemble a council at Pifa on the 25th of March, 1409, in order to heal the divisions and factions that had so long rent the papal empire. This council, however, which was designed to close the wounds of the church, had an effect quite contrary to that which was univerfally expected, and only ferved to open a new breach, and to excite new divisions. Its proceedings, indeed, were vigorous, and its measures were accompanied with a just feverity. A heavy fentence of condemnation was pronounced the 5th day of June, against the contending pontiffs, who were both declared guilty of herefy, perjury, and contumacy, unworthy of the smallest tokens of honour or respect, and separated ipso facto from the communion of the church. step was followed by the election of one pontiff in their place. The election was made on the 25th of June, and fell upon Peter of Candia, known in the papal list by the name of ALEXANDER V. [i]; but all the decrees and proceedings of this famous council were treated with contempt by the condenined pontiffs, who continued to enjoy the privileges and to perform the functions of the papacy, as if no attempts had been made to remove them

from that dignity. BENEDICT affembled a council at Perpignan; and GREGORY, another at Austria near Aquileia, in the district of Friuli. The latter, however, apprehending the refentment of the Venetians $\lceil k \rceil$, made his escape in a clandestine manner

[k] He had offended the Venetians by deposing their patriarch Antony Panciarini, and putting Antony Du Pont, the bishop of Concordia, in his place.

[[]i] See Lenfant's Histoire du Concile de Pise, published in 4to at Amsterdam, in the year 1724 .- Franc. Pagi Breviar. Pontif. Romanor. tom. iv. p. 350.—Bossuer, Defensio Decreti Gallicani de Potestate Ecclesiastica, tom. ii. p. 17, &c.

from the territory of Aquileia, arrived at Caieta, CENT. where he threw himself upon the protection of XV. LADISLAUS, king of Naples, and, in the year 1412, PART II. fled from thence to Rimini.

III. Thus was the Christian church divided into The council three great factions, and its government violently of Conflance carried on by three contending chiefs, who loaded by the emeach other with reciprocal maledictions, calumnies, peror Sigifand excommunications. ALEXANDER V. who had been elected pontiff at the council of Pifa, died at Bologna in the year 1410; and the fixteen cardinals, who attended him in that city, immediately filled up the vacancy, by chusing as his successor BALTHASAR Cossa, a Neapolitan, who was deflitute of all principles both of religion and probity, and who assumed the title of JOHN XXIII. The duration of this fchism in the papacy was a source of many calamities, and became daily more detrimental both to the civil and religious interests of those nations where the flame raged. Hence it was, that the emperor SIGISMUND, the king of France, and feveral other European princes, employed all their zeal and activity, and spared neither labour nor expence, in restoring the tranquillity of the church, and uniting it again under one spiritual head. On the other hand, the pontiffs could not be perfuaded by any means to prefer the peace of the church to the gratification of their ambition; fo that no other possible method of accommodating this weighty matter remained, than the affembling of a general council, in which the controverly might be examined, and terminated by the judgment and decision of the universal church. This council was accordingly fummoned to meet at Constance, in the year 1414, by John XXIII. who was engaged in this measure by the entreaties of SIGISMUND, and also from an expectation, that the decrees of this grand affembly would be favourable to his interests. He appeared in person, attended with a great number of cardinals and bishops, at this Vol. III.

CENT. famous council, which was also honoured with the presence of the emperor Sigismund, and of a great PART II number of German princes, and with that of the ambassadors of all the European states, whose monarchs or regents could not be perfonally prefent at the decision of this important controversy $\lceil l \rceil$.

The defign this grand council.

IV. The great purpose that was aimed at in the and iffue of convocation of this grand affembly, was the healing of the schism that had so long rent the papacy; and this purpose was happily accomplished. It was solemnly declared in the fourth and fifth fessions of this council, by two decrees, that the Roman pontiff was inferior and subject to a general affembly of the universal church; and the authority of councils was vindicated and maintained, by the fame decrees, in the most effectual manner [m]. This vigorous proceeding prepared the way for the degradation of John XXIII. who, during the twelfth fession, was unanimoully deposed from the pontificate $\lceil n \rceil$, on account of feveral flagitious crimes that were laid to his charge,

> [1] The Alls of this famous council were published in fix volumes in folio, at Francfort, in the year 1700, by HERMAN van der HARDT. This collection, however, is imperfect, notwithstanding the pains that it cost the laborious editor. Many of the Ads are omitted, and a great number of pieces stuffed in among the Ads, which by no means deferve a place there. The history of this council by LENFANT is composed with great accuracy and elegance. It appeared in a fecond edition at Amsterdam, in the year 1728, in two volumes, quarto; the first was published in 1714. The Supplement, that was given to this hiltory by Bourgeois de Chastenet, a French lawyer, is but an indifferent performance. It is entitled, Nouvelle Histoire du Concile de Constance, où l'on fait voir combien la France a contribué à l'extinction du Schifme.

> [m] For an account of these two samous decrees, which set fuch wife limits to the supremacy of the pontiffs, See NATALIS Alexand. Hist. Eccles. Sec. xv. Diff. iv.—Bossuet, Defens... Sententiæ Cleri Gallican. de Poiest. Ecclesiust. tom. ii. p. 2. 23.— LENFART, Differt. Historique et Apologetique pour Jean Gerson, et le Concile de Conflance, which is subjoined to his history of that

council.

[n] On the 20th of May, 1415.

and more especially on account of the scandalous CENT. violation of a solemn engagement he had taken about the beginning of the council, to refign the papal chair, PARTIL if that meafure should appear necessary to the peace of the church; which engagement he broke some weeks after by a clandestine flight. In this same year (1415), GREGORY XII. fent to the council of CHARLES DE MALATESTA to make, in his name, and as his proxy, a folemn and voluntary refignation of the pontificate. About two years after this, BENEDICT XIII. was deposed by a solemn resolution of the council [0], and OTTA DE COLONNA raised, by the unanimous fuffrages of the cardinals, to the high dignity of head of the church, which he ruled under the title of MARTIN V. BENEDICT, who refided still at Perpignan, was far from being disposed to submit either to the decree of the council, which deposed him, or to the determination of the cardinals with respect to his successor. On the contrary, he perfifted until the day of his death, which happened in the year 1423, in affuming the title, the prerogatives, and the authority of the papacy. And when this obstinate man was dead, a certain Spaniard, named GILES MUNIOS, was chosen pope in his place by two cardinals, under the auspicious patronage of Alphonsus, king of Sicily, and adopted the title of CLEMENT VIII.; but this forry pontiff, in the year 1429, was persuaded to resign his pretentions to the papacy, and to leave the government of the church to MARTIN V.

V. If, from the measures that were taken in this John Huss. council to check the lordly arrogance of the Roman pontists, we turn our eyes to the proceedings that were carried on against those that were called *beretics*, we shall observe in this new scene nothing worthy of applause, but several things, on the contrary, that are proper to excite our indignation

^[0] On the 26th of July, 1417.

RV. excusable. Before the meeting of this council there excused and more especially in Bohemia, concerning religious matters. One of the persons that gave occasion to these disputes was John Huss, who lived at Prague in the highest reputation, both on account of the fanctity of his manners and the purity of his doctrine, who was distinguished by his uncommon erudition and eloquence, and personmed, at the same time, the functions of professor of divinity in the university, and of ordinary pastor in the church of that samous city [p]. This eminent ecclesiastic

declaimed with vehemence against the vices that had corrupted all the different ranks and orders of the clergy; nor was he singular in this respect; such remonstrances were become very common, and they were generally approved of by the wise and good. Huss, however, went still farther; and, from the year 1408, used his most earnest and assiduous endeavours to withdraw the university of Prague from the jurisdiction of Gregory XII. whom the kingdom of Bohemia had hitherto acknowledged as the true and lawful head of the church. The archbishop of Prague, and the clergy in general, who were warmly attached to the interests of Gregory, were greatly exasperated at these proceedings. Hence arose a violent quarrel between the incensed

prelate and the zealous reformer, which the latter inflamed and augmented, from day to day, by his pathetic exclamations against the court of Rome, and to John Huss, and who had the best opportunity of being acquainted with his real character, describes him thus: He was more subtile than eloquent; but the gravity and austerity of his manners, his frugal and exemplary life, his pale and meagre countenance, his sweetness of temper, and his uncommon assability towards fersons of all ranks and conditions, from the highest to the lowest, were much more persuasive than any eloquence could be. See Bohus, Balbinus, Epitom, Rev. Bohem, lib.iv, cap. v. p. 431.

the corruptions that prevailed among the Sacerdotal CENT. order.

VI. Such were the circumstances that first excited PART II. the refentment of the clergy against John Huss. Thereasons This refentment, however, might have been easily that excited calmed, and perhaps totally extinguished, if new the resentincidents of a more important kind had not arisen to clergy keep up the slame, and increase its fury. In the against first place, he adopted the philosophical opinions of John Huss. the Realists, and shewed his warm attachment to their cause, in the manner that was usual in this barbarous age, even by perfecuting to the utmost of his power their adversaries the Nominalists, whose number was great, and whose influence was considerable in the university of Prague [q]. He also multiplied the number of his enemies in the year 1408, by procuring, through his great credit, a fentence in favour of the Bohemians, who disputed with the Germans concerning the number of fuffrages, that their respective nations were entitled to in all matters that were carried by election in the university of Prague. That the nature of this contest may be better understood, it will be proper to observe, that this famous university was divided, by its founder CHARLES IV. into four nations, to wit, the Bohemians, Bavarians, Poles, and Saxons, of which, according to the original laws of the university, the first had three fuffrages; and the other three, who were comprehended under the title of the German nation, only one. This arrangement, however, had not only been altered by custom, but was entirely inverted

[[]q] See the Litera Nominalium ad Regem Francia Ludovicum VI. in Baluzii Miscellan. tom. iv. p. 534, where we read the following passage: Legimus Nominales expulses de Bohemia eo tempore, quo haresici volucrunt Bohemicum Regnum suis haresibus inscere.—Quum dicti heretici non tossent disputando superare impetraverunt ab Abbissessa (Wencessa) Principe Bohemia, ut gubernarentur studia Pragensia ritu Parisiensium. Quo edicto coacti sunt supradicti Nominales Pragam civitatem relinquere, et se translulerum ad Lipzicam civitatem, et ividem erexerunt universitatem solemnissimam.

CENT. in favour of the Germans, who were vastly superior

to the Bohemians in number, and affumed to them-PART II. felves the three fuffrages, which, according to the original institution of the university, belonged, undoubtedly, to the latter. Huss, therefore, whether animated by a principle of patriotism, or by an aversion to the Nominalists, who were peculiarly favoured by the Germans, raised his voice against this abuse, and employed, with success, the extraordinary credit he had obtained at court, by his flowing and masculine eloquence, in depriving the Germans of the privilege they had usurped, and in reducing their three fuffrages to one. The iffue of this long and tedious contest [r] was so offensive to the Germans, that a prodigious number of them, with John Hoffman the rector of the university at their head [s], retired from Prague, and repaired to Leipsic, where FREDERICK, surnamed the Wise, elector of Saxony, erected for them in the year 1409, the famous academy which still subsists in a flourishing state. This event contributed greatly to render Huss odious to many, and, by the confequences that followed it, was certainly inftrumental in bringing on his ruin. For no fooner had the Germans retired from Prague, than he began, not only to inveigh with greater freedom than he had formerly done against the vices and corruptions of the clergy, but even went fo far as to recommend, in an open and public manner, the

[s] Hiltorians differ much in their accounts of the number of Germans that retired from the university of Prague upon this occasion. Eneas Sylvius reckons 5000, Trithemius and others 2000, Dubravius 24,000, Lupatius 44,000, Landa, a contem-

porary writer, 36,000.

⁽r] WENCESLAUS, king of Bohemia, who was bribed by both of the contending parties, protracted instead of abridging this dispute, and used to say with a smile, that he found a good goofe, which laid every day a confiderable number of gold and filver eggs. This was playing upon the word Huss, which, in the German language, signifies a goose.

writings and opinions of the famous Wickliff, cent. whose new doctrines had already made such a noise xv. in England. Hence an accusation was brought Part II. against him, in the year 1410, before the tribunal of John XXIII. by whom he was solemnly expelled from the communion of the church. He treated, indeed, this excommunication with the utmost contempt, and, both in his conversation, and in his writings, laid open the disorders that preyed upon the vitals of the church, and the vices that dishonoured the conduct of its ministers [t]; and the fortitude and zeal he discovered in this matter were almost universally applauded.

VII. This eminent man, whose piety was truly fervent and fincere, though his zeal perhaps was John Huis rather too violent, and his prudence not always is burned equally circumfpect, was fummoned to appear before the council of Constance. Obedient to this order, and thinking himfelf fecured from the rage of his enemies, by the fafe-conduct which had been granted him by the emperor Sigismund, both for his journey to Constance, his residence in that place, and his return to his own country, John Huss appeared before the council, to demonstrate his innocence, and to prove that the charge of his having deferted the church of Rome was entirely groundless. And it may be affirmed with truth, that his religious opinions, at least in matters of moment and importance, were conformable to the established doctrine of the church in this age [u]. He declaimed,

[t] See LAUR. BYZINII Diarium Belli Hussici, in Ludwig's Reliquiæ Manuscriptorum, tom. vi. p. 127.

HUSS adopted with zeal, and recommended in an open and public manner the writings and opinions of Wickliff; but this must be understood of the writings and opinions of that great man in relation to the papal hierarchy, the despotism of the court of Rome, and the corruption of the clergy; for, in other respects, it is certain that he adhered to the most superstitious doctrines of the church, as appears by two sermons he had prepared for the council of Constance.

CENT. indeed, with extraordinary vehemence against the Roman pontiffs, the bishops and monks; but this PART II. freedom was looked upon as lawful in these times, and it was used every day in the council of Constance, where the tyranny of the court of Rome, and the corruption of the facerdotal and monastic orders, were cenfured with the utmost severity. enemies, however, of this good man who were very numerous both in the kingdom of Bohemia, and also in the council of Constance, coloured the accusation that was brought against him with such artifice and fuccess, that by the most scandalous breach of public faith, he was cast into prison, declared a heretic, because he refused to obey the order of the council, which commanded him to plead guilty against the dictates of his conscience, and was burnt alive the 6th of July, 1415; which dreadful punishment he endured with unparalleled magnanimity and refignation, expressing in his last moments the noblest feelings of love to God, and the most triumphant hope of the accomplishment of those transporting promifes with which the gospel arms the true Christian at the approach of eternity. The same unhappy fate was borne with the same pious fortitude and constancy of mind by JEROME of Prague, the intimate companion of John Huss, who came to this council with the generous defign of supporting and feconding his perfecuted friend. Terrified by the prospect of a cruel death, Jerome at first appeared willing to submit to the orders of the council, and to abandon the tenets and opinions which it had condemned in his writings. This fubmission, however, was not attended with the advantages he expected from it, nor did it deliver him from the close and severe confinement in which he was kept. He therefore refumed his fortitude, professed anew, with an heroic constancy, the opinions which he had deferted for a while from a principle

of fear, and maintained them in the flames, in

which he expired on the 30th of May 1416CENT.

Many learned men have endeavoured to investigate PART II. the reasons that occasioned the pronouncing such a The true cruel sentence against Huss and his affociate; and cause of as no adequate reasons for such a severe proceeding these violent can be found, either in the life or opinions of that against good man, they conclude, that he fell a victim to the John Hufs rage and injustice of his unrelenting enemies. And and Jerome indeed this conclusion is both natural and wellgrounded; nor will it be difficult to shew how it came to pass, that the reverend fathers of the council of Constance were so eagerly bent upon burning, as a heretic, a man who neither deferved fuch an injurious title, nor fuch a dreadful fate. In the first place, John Huss had excited, both by his discourse and by his writings, great commotions in Bohemia, and had rendered the clergy of all ranks and orders extremely odious in the eyes of the people. The bishops, therefore, together with the facerdotal and monastic orders, were very sensible, that their honours and advantages, their credit and authority, were in the greatest danger of being reduced to nothing, if this reformer should return again to his country, and continue to write and declaim against the clergy with the fame freedom that he had formerly done. Hence they left no means unemployed to accomplish his ruin; they laboured night and day, they formed plots, they bribed men in power, they used, in short, every method that could have any tendency to rid them of fuch a formidable adversary $\lceil N \rceil$. It may

The translator has here inferted into the text the large note [a] of the original, which relates to the circumstances that precipitated the ruin of these two eminent resormers: and he has thrown the citations therein contained into several notes.

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[[]x] The bribery and corruption that was employed in bringing about the ruin of John Huss, are manifell from the following remarkable passages of the Diarium Hussian of Laur. Byzinius, p. 135. (see Ludewigi Reliquia, tom. vi.) Clerus perversus pracipus in regno Bohemiz et Marchionatu Moravia, condemnationem

CENT. be observed. secondly, that, in the council of Constance, there were many men of great influence and weight, PART II who looked upon themselves as personally offended by John Huss, and who demanded his life as the only facrifice that could fatisfy their vengeance. Huss, as has been already mentioned, was not only attached to the party of the Realists, but was peculiarly fevere in his opposition to their adversaries. And now he was so unhappy as to be brought before a tribunal which was principally composed of the Nominalifts, with the famous John Gerson at their head, who was the zealous patron of that faction, and the mortal enemy of Huss. Nothing could equal the vindictive pleasure the Nominalists felt from an event that put this unfortunate prisoner in their power, and gave them an opportunity of fatisfying their vengeance to the full; and accordingly, in their Letter to Lewis, king of France [y], they do not pretend to deny that Huss fell a victim to the refentment of their feet, which is also confirmed by the history of the council of Constance. The animofities that always reigned among the Realists and Naminalists were at this time carried to the greatest excess imaginable. Upon every occasion that offered, they accused each other of herely and impiety, and had constantly recourse to corporal punishments to

iffius (Husti) Contributione prountarum, et modis aliis diversis procuravit et ad ipsius confensit interitum. And again, p. 150. Clerus perversus regni Bohemiæ et Marchionatus Moravia, et pracique Episcopi, Abiates, Canonici, plebani, et religiosi ipsius sideles ac salutiferas admonitiones, adhortationes, ipsorum pompam, symoniam, avaritiam, fornicationem, vitaque detestanda abominationem detegentes, ferre non valendo, procuntarum contributione ad ipsius extinctionem faciendo procurarunt.

decide the matter. The Nominalists procured the

[v] See Baluzii Miscell. tom. iv. p. 534, in which we find the following pullage: Substant Deus Doctores catholicos, Petrum de Aliyaco, Johannem de Gersono, et alios quam plures doctifimos homines Momineles, ui convocati ad Concilium Constantiense, ad quad citati sucretici, et nominatim Hieronymus et Johannes—dictos hareticis per quadraginta dies disputando superaverant.

death of Huss, who was a Realist: and the Realists, CENT. on the other hand, obtained, in the year 1479, the XV. condemnation of JOHN DE WESALIA, who was PARTH. attached to the party of the Nominalists [z]. These contending fects carried their blind fury fo far as to charge each other with the fin against the Holy Ghost $\lceil a \rceil$, and exhibited the most miserable spectacle of inhuman bigotry to the Christian world. The aversion which John Huss and Jerome, his companion, had against the Germans, was a third circumstance that contributed to determine their unhappy fate. This aversion they declared publicly at Prague, upon all occasions, both by their words and actions; nor were they at any pains to conceal it even in the council of Confiance, where they accused them of prefumption and despotism in the strongest terms $\lceil b \rceil$. The Germans, on the other hand, remembering the affront they had received in the

[2] See the Examen Magifficult, et Thinkgicale Mag. Joh. de Wefalia, in ORTUINI GRATII Fafeloulo verum expotendi et

fugiendar. Colon. 1535, Fol. 163.

[a] In the Examen mentioned in the preceding note, we find the following striking passage, which may them us the extravagant length to which the disputes between the Nominalists and Realists were now carried: Quis nift it a Dial thus seminavit illam sizaniam inter Philosophus et inter Theriogor, at tanta sit dissense, etiam animorum inter diversa opinantes? Adea at si universalia quisquam Realia negaverit, existimetur in spiration sanctum peccavises, immo summo et maximo peccato planas creditur contra Deam, contra Christianam religionem, contra ja sidiam, contra omnem bolitiam graviter deliquisse. Unde hac cacitas mentis nis a Diabolo, qui phantasias unsiras illudit? We see by this passage that the Realists charged their adversaries (whose only crime was the absording of calling universal ideas mere denominations) with she against the Holy Ghost, with transgression against God, and against the Christian religion, and with a violation of all the laws of justice and civil polity.

[b] See Theod. de Niem, Investives in Jeh. XXIII. in Harden Adis Concilii Confiant. tom. ii. p. 450. Improperabat etiam in publico Alamannis, disende, quad effent pr. fumbruofi a vellent ubique per ordem dominari... Siegue fullum fulle fupe in Enherica, ubi volentes etiam dominari Alamanni vide extructioni describeration.

d MALE TRACTATI for Ton.

CENT. university of Prague by the means of John Huss, burned with refentment and rage both against him PART II and his unfortunate friend; and as their influence and authority were very great in the council, there is no doubt that they employed them, with the utmost zeal, against these two formidable adversaries. fides, John Hoffman, the famous rector of the university of Prague, whom Huss had been the occasion of expelling from that city together with the Germans, and who was in consequence thereof become his most virulent enemy, was consecrated bishop of Misnia in the year 1413, and held in this council the most illustrious rank among the delegates of the German church. This circumstance was also most unfavourable to Huss, and was, no doubt, in the event detrimental to his cause.

The circumftances now mentioned, as contributing to the unhappy fate of this good man, are, as we fee, all drawn from the refentment and prejudices of his enemies, and have not the least colour of equity. It must, however, be confessed, that there appeared one mark of herefy in the conduct of this reformer, which, according to the notions that prevailed in this century, might expose him condemnation with fome shadow of reason and justice; I mean, his inflexible obstinacy, which the church of Rome always confidered as a grievous berefy, even in those whose errors were of little moment. We must consider this man, as called before a council, which was supposed to represent the universal church, to confess his faults and to abiture his errors. This he obstinately refused to do, unless he was previously convicted of error; here, therefore, he refifted the authority of the catholic church, demanded a rational proof of the justice of the sentence it had pronounced against him, and intimated with sufficient plainness, that he looked upon the church as fallible. All this certainly was most enormously criminal and intolerably

heretical, according to the general opinion of the CENT. times. For it became a dutiful fon of the church XV. to renounce his eye-fight, and to submit both his PART III judgment and his will, without any exception or reservation, to the judgment and will of that holy mother, under a firm belief and entire persuasion of the infallibility of all her decisions. This ghostly mother had, for many ages past, followed, whenever her unerring persection and authority were called in question, the rule which PLINY observed in his conduct towards the Christians. "When they persevered, says he in his letter to TRAJAN [c], I put my threats into execution, from a persuasion that whatever their consession might be, their audacious and invincible obstinacy deserved an exemplary punishment."

VIII. Before sentence had been pronounced The council against John Huss and Jerome of Prague, the iffue out a decree famous Wickliff, whose opinions they were against the supposed to adopt, and who was long since dead, writings and affect was called from his rest before this ghostly tribunal, wickliss. and his memory was folemaly branded with infamy by a decree of the council. On the 4th day of May, in the year 1415, a long list of propositions, invidiously culled out of his writings, was examined and condemned, and an order was iffued out to commit all his works, together with his bones, to the flames. On the 14th of June following, the affembled fathers paffed the famous decree, which took the cup from the laity in the celebration of the eucharist, ordered that the Lord's supper should be received by them only in one kind, i. e. the bread, and rigorously prohibited the communion in both kinds. This decree was occasioned by complaints that had been made of the conduct of Jacobellius DE Misa, curate of the parish of St. Michael at Prague,

[[]c] Plin. Epift. lib. x. ep. 97. Perseverantes duci jussi. Neque enim dubitabam, qualecumque esset, quod fraterentur, per vicaciam certe et instexibilem obstinationem debere puniri.

CENT. who, about a year before this, had been perfuaded by Peter of Dresden, to administer the Lord's PART II. Supper in both kinds, and was followed in this by feveral churches $\lceil d \rceil$. The council, being informed of this matter by a certain Bohemian bishop, thought proper to oppose with vigour the progress of this herely; and therefore they enacted the statute, which ordered the communion to be administered to the laity but in one kind, and which obtained the force and authority of a law in the church of Rome.

The fenagainst John Petit.

IX. In the same year, the opinion of John Petit, tence of the a doctor of divinity at Paris [e], who maintained, that every individual had an undoubted right to take away the life of a tyrant, was brought before the council, and was condemned as an odious and detestable herefy; but both the name and person of the author were spared, on account of the powerful patrons, under whose protection he had defended that pernicious doctrine. John, duke of Burgundy, had, in the year 1407, employed a band of ruffians to affaffinate Lewis, duke of Orleans, only brother of CHARLES VI. king of France. While the whole city of Paris was in an uproar in confequence of this horrible deed, Petit justified it in a public oration, in presence of the Dauphin and the princes of the blood, affirming, that the duke had done a laudable action, and that it was lawful to put a tyrant to death, in any way, either by violence or fraud, and without any form of law or justice; nay, even in opposition to the most solemn contracts and oaths of fidelity and allegiance. It is however to be observed, that by tyrants this doctor did not mean the supreme rulers of nations, but those more powerful and infolent fubjects, who abused their wealth and credit to bring about measures that tended to the dishonour

[[]d] Byzini Diarium Hussicum, p. 124.

[[]e] Some hiftorians have erroneously represented Petit as a lawyer. See Dr. Smollen's Hiftery of England, vol. ii. p. 462. in 4to.

of their fovereign and the ruin of their country [f]. CENT. The university of Paris pronounced a severe and xv. rigorous sentence against the author of this perni-Part II. cious opinion; and the council of Constance, after much deliberation and debate, condemned the opinion without mentioning the author. This determination of the council, though modified with the utmost elemency and mildness, was not ratisfied by the new pontiss Martin V. who dreaded too much the formidable power of the duke of Burgundy, to confirm a sentence which he knew would be displeasing to that ambitious prince [g].

X. After these and other transactions of a like The hopes nature, it was now time to take into confideration a of a reforpoint of more importance than had yet been proposed, the church even the reformation of the church in its head and frustrated. in its members, by fetting bounds to the defpotifm and corruption of the Roman pontiffs, and to the luxury and immorality of a licentious clergy. It was particularly with a view to this important object, that the eyes of all Europe were fixed upon the council of Constance, from an universal persuasion of the necessity of this reformation, and an ardent defire of feeing it happily brought into execution. Nor did the affembled fathers deny, that this reformation was the principal end of their meeting. Yet this falutary work had fo many obstacles in the paffions and interests of those very persons by whom it was to be effected, that little could be expected,

[[]f] This appears manifeltly from the very discourse of Petit. which the reader may see in Lenfant's History of the Council of Pisa, tom. ii. p. 303 *. See also August. Letseri Diss. quâ memoriam Joh. Burgundi et doctrinam Joh. Parvi de cæde per duillium vindicat. Witteberg. 1735, in 4to.

duillium vindicat. Witteberg. 1735, in 4to.

[g] Boulay, Histor. Acad. Paris. tom v. p. 113. et passim.

—Argentre, Collectio Judicior. de novis erroribus, tom. i. part II. p. 184.—Gersonis Opera à Du Pinio edita, tom. v.—Bayle, Diction. tom. iii. p. 2268.

 $[\]mbox{3.5}$ 'See also the same author's History of the Council of Constance book iii. § xix.

CENT. and still less was done. The cardinals and dignified clergy, whose interest it was that the church should PART II. remain in its corrupt and disordered state, employed all their eloquence and art to prevent its reformation; and observed, among other artful pretexts, that a work of fuch high moment and importance could not be undertaken with any prospect of success, until a new pontiff was elected. And, what was still more shocking, the new pontiff MARTIN V. was no fooner raifed to that high dignity, than he employed his authority to elude and frustrate every effort that was made to fet this falutary work on foot; and made it appear most evidently, by the laws he enacted, that nothing was more foreign from his intention than the reformation of the clergy, and the restoration of the church to its primitive purity. Thus this famous council, after fitting three years and fix months, was diffolved on the 22d day of April, 1418, without having effected what was the chief delign of their affembling, and put off to a future affembly of the same kind, which was to be fummoned five years after this period, that pious design of purifying a corrupt church, which had been so long the object of the expectations and desires of all good Christians.

A council assembled at Bafil, where the of the church is again attempted in yain.

XI. Five years and more elapsed without a council's being called. The remonstrances, however, of those whose zeal for the reformation of reformation the church interested them in this event, prevailed, at length, over the pretexts and stratagems that were employed to put it off from time to time; and MARTIN V. fummoned a council to meet at Pavia, from whence it was removed to Sienna, and from thence to Basil. The pontist did-not live to be a witness of the proceedings of this assembly, being carried off by a sudden death on the 21st day of February, in the year 1431, just about the time when the council was to meet. He was immediately fucceeded by GABRIEL CONDOLMERUS, a

native of *Venice*, and bishop of *Sienna*, who is CENT. known in the papal list by the title of EUGENIUS XV. IV. This pontist approved of all the measures PART II that had been entered into by his predecessor in relation to the assembling of the council of *Basil*, which was accordingly opened the 23d of July, 1431, under the superintendence of cardinal Julian Cesarini, who performed the functions of president, in the place of Eugenius.

The two grand points that were proposed to the deliberation of this famous council, were, the union of the Greek and Latin churches, and the reformation of the church universal, both in its head and in its members, according to the resolution that had been taken in the council of Constance. For that the Roman pontiffs, who were confidered as the head of the church, and the bishops, priests, and monks, who were looked upon as its members, were become excessively corrupt; and that, to use the expression of the prophet in a similar case, the whole head was fick, and the whole heart faint, was a matter of fact too striking to escape the knowledge of the obscurest individual. On the other hand, as it appeared by the very form of the council [b], by its method of proceeding, and by the first decrees that were enacted by its authority, that the affembled fathers were in earnest, and firmly resolved to answer the end and purpose of their meeting. Eugenius IV. was much alarmed at the prospect of a reformation, which he seared above all things, and beholding with terror the

[[]b] By the form of the council, Dr. Mosherm undoubtedly means the division of the cardinals, archbithops, bishops, abbots, &c. into four equal classes, without any regard to the nation or province by which they were fent. This prudent arrangement prevented the cabals and intrigues of the Italians, whose bishops were much more numerous than those of other nations, and who, by their number, might have had it in their power to retard or defeat the laudable purpose the council had in view, had things been otherwise ordered.

zeal and defigns of these spiritual physicians, he attempted twice the diffolying of the council. PART II. These repeated attempts were vigorously fuccessfully opposed by the affembled fathers, who proved by the decrees of the council of Constance, and by other arguments equally conclusive, that the council was superior, in point of authority, to the Roman pontiss. This controversy, which was the first that had arisen between the council and the pope, was terminated, in the month of November 1433, by the filence and concessions of the latter, who, the month following, wrote a letter from Rome, containing his approbation of the council, and his acknowledgment of its authority $\lceil i \rceil$.

of Bail.

The decrees XII. These preliminary measures being finished, and acts of the council proceeded with zeal and activity to the accomplishment of the important purposes for which it was affembled. The pope's legates were admitted

> [i] The history of this grand and memorable council is yet wanting. The learned STEPHEN BALUZIUS (as we find in the Histoire de l'Academie des Inscriptions et des Belles Lettres, tom. vi. p. 544.), and after him Mr. LENTANT, promifed the world a history of this council; but neither of these valuable writers performed their promise *. The acts of this famous assembly have been collected with incredible industry, in a great number of volumes, from various archives and libraries, at the expence of Rodolphus Augustus, duke of Brunfwick, by the very learned and laborious Herman van der Hardt. preferred, as we are informed, in the library at Hanover, and they certainly deferve to be drawn from their retreat, and published to the world. In the mean time, the curious may confult the Abridgment of the Acts of this council, which were published in 8vo at Paris, in the year 1512, and which I have made use of in this History, as also the following authors: PENER SYLVII Lib. duo de Concilio Bafilienfi.—Edmun. RICHERIUS, Hiftor. Concilior. General. lib. iii. cap. 1.—HENR. Canish Lectiones Antique, tom. iv. p. 447.

> # Dr Mosneim has here been guilty of an overfight; for Lenrant did in reality perform his promite, and composed the History of the Council of Basis, which he blended with his History of the War of the Hustites, on account of the connexion that there was between these two subjects; and also because his advanced age prevented his indulging himself in the hope of being able to give a full and complete History of the council of Bafil apart.

as members of the council, but not before they CENT. had declared, upon oath, that they would fubmit xv. to the decrées that should be enacted in it, and PART H. more particularly that they would adhere to the laws that had been made in the council of Constance, in relation to the supremacy of general councils, and the subordination of the pontiffs to their authority and jurisdiction. Nay, these very laws, which the popes beheld which such aversion and horror, were folemnly renewed by the council the 26th of June, in the year 1434, and, on the 9th of the same month in the following year, the Annats, as they were called, were publicly abolished, notwithstanding the opposition that was made to this measure by the legates of the Roman see. On the 25th of March 1436, a confession of faith was read, which every pontiff was to subscribe on the day of his election, the number of cardinals was reduced to twenty-four, and the papal impositions, called Expectatives, Reservations, and Provisions, were entirely annulled. These measures, with others of a like nature, provoked Eugenius to the highest degree, and made him form a defign, either for removing this troublesome and enterprizing council into Italy, or of fetting up a new council in opposition to it, which might fix bounds to its zeal for the reformation of the church. Accordingly, on the 7th of May, in the year 1437, the affembled fathers having, on account of the Greeks, come to a resolution of holding the council at Basil, Avignon, or some city in the duchy of Savoy, the intractable pontiff opposed this motion, and maintained that it should be transferred into Italy. Each of the contending parties persevered with the utmost obstinacy, in the resolution they had taken, and this occasioned a warm and violent contest between the pope and the council. The latter fummoned Eugenius to appear before them at Bafil the 26th day of July 1437, in order to give an account of

CENT. his conduct; but the pontiff, instead of complying with this fummons, iffued out a decree, by which PART II. he pretended to dissolve the council, and to affemble another at Ferrara. This decree, indeed, was treated with the utmost contempt by the council, which, with the confent of the emperor, the king of France, and feveral other princes, continued its deliberations at Bafil, and on the 28th of September. in this fame year, pronounced a fentence of contumacy against the rebellious pontist, for having refused to obey their order.

Thecouncil genius.

XIII. In the year 1438, Eugenius in person of Ferrara opened the council, which he had summoned to meet at Ferrara, and at the fecond fession thundered out an excommunication against the fathers assembled at Basil. The principal business that was now to be transacted in the pontiff's council, was the proposed reconciliation between the Greek and Latin churches; and, in order to bring this falutary and important defign to a happy iffue, the emperor JOHN PALÆOLOGUS, the Grecian patriarch Jose-PHUS, with the most eminent bishops and doctors among the Greeks, arrived in Italy, and appeared in person at Ferrara. What animated, in a particular manner, the zeal of the Greeks in this negotiation, was the extremity to which they were reduced by the Turks, and the pleasing hope, that their reconciliation with the Roman pontiff would contribute to engage the Latins in their cause. that as it may, there was little done at Ferrara, where matters were carried on too flowly to afford any prospect of an end of their diffentions; but the negotiations were more fuccessful at Florence, whither Eugenius removed the council about the beginning of the year 1439, on account of the plague that broke out at Ferrara. On the other hand, the council of Bafil, exasperated by the imperious proceedings of Eugenius, deposed him from the papacy on the asth of June, in the year 1439; which vigorous

measure was not approved of by the European kings CENT. It may be easily conceived what an and princes. impression this step made upon the affronted pontiff; PART IL he lost all patience; and devoted, for the fecond time, to hell and damnation the members of the council of Basil by a solemn and most severe edict, in which also he declared all their acts null, and all their proceedings unlawful. This new peal of papal thunder was held in derifion by the council of Bafil, who, persisting in their purpose, elected another pontiff, and raised to that high dignity AMADEUS, duke of Savoy, who then lived in the most profound folitude at a delicious retreat, called Ripaille, upon the borders of the Leman Lake, and who is known in the papal lift by the name of Felix V.

XIV. This election was the occasion of the revival The church of that deplorable schisin, which had formerly rent afflicted the church and which had been torminated with a the church, and which had been terminated with fo fehifin. much difficulty, and after fo many vain and fruitless efforts, at the council of Constance. Nay, the new breach was still more lamentable than the former one, as the flame was kindled not only between two rival pontiffs, but also between the two contending councils of Bafil and Florence. The greatest part of the church submitted to the jurisdiction, and adopted the cause of Eugenius; while Felix was acknowledged, as lawful pontiff, by a great number of academies, and, among others, by the famous university of Paris, as also in several kingdoms and provinces. The council of Bafil continued its deliberations, and went on enacting laws, and publishing edicts, until the year 1443, notwithstanding the efforts of Eugenius and his adherents to put a ftop to their proceedings. And, though in that year the members of the council retired to their respective places of abode, yet they declared publicly that the council was not dissolved, but would resume its deliberations at Bafil, Lyons, or Laufanne, as foon as a proper opportunity was offered.

XV. EUGENIUS at its head, was chiefly employed in PART II reconciling the differences between the Greeks and

Latins; which weighty business was committed to the prudence, zeal, and piety, of a felect number of eminent men on both fides. The most distinguished among those whom the Greeks chose for this purpose was the learned Bessarion, who was afterwards raifed to the dignity of cardinal in the This great man, engaged and Roman church. feduced by the splendid presents and promises of the Latin pontiff, employed the whole extent of his authority, and the power of his eloquence, nay, he had recourfe even to promifes and threatenings, to perfuade the Greeks to accept the conditions of peace that were proposed by Eugenius. These conditions required their confent to the following points: -That the Holy Spirit proceeded from the Son, as well as from the Father; that departed fouls were purified in the infernal regions, by a certain kind of fire, before their admission to the presence and vision of the Deity;—that unleavened bread might be used in the administration of the Lord's supper ; -and lastly, which was the main and principal thing infifted upon by the Latins, that the Roman pontiff was the supreme judge, the true head of the universal church. Such were the terms of peace to which the Greeks were obliged to submit, all except MARK of Ephefus, whom neither entreaties nor rewards could move from his purpose, or engage to submit to a reconciliation founded upon fuch conditions. And indeed this reconciliation, which had been brought about by various stratagems, was much more specious than folid, and had by no means stability sufficient to affure its duration. We find accordingly, that the Grecian deputies were no fooner returned to Constantinople, than they declared publicly, that all things had been carried on at Florence by artifice and fraud, and renewed the schism, which had been

fo imperfectly healed a little time before. The CENT. council of Florence put an end to its deliberations XV. on the 26th of April, in the year 1442 [k], without PART II. having executed any of the defigns that were proposed by it, in a satisfactory manner. For, besides the affair of the Greeks, they proposed bringing the Armenians, Jacobites, and more particularly the Abyssinians, into the bosom of the Roman church; but this project was attended with as little success as the other.

XV. Eugenius IV. who had been the occasion which is of the new schism in the see of Rome, died in the healed under the ponmonth of February 1447, and was succeeded, in a tificate of few weeks, by Thomas DE SARZANO, bishop of Nicholas V. Bologna, who filled the pontificate under the denomination of NICOLAS V. This eminent prelate had, in point of merit, the best pretensions possible to the papal throne. He was distinguished by his erudition and genius; he was a zealous patron and protector of learned men; and what was still more laudable, he was remarkable for his moderation, and for the meek and pacific spirit that discovered itself in all his conduct and actions. Under this pontificate the European princes, and more especially the king of France, exerted their warmest endeavours to restore tranquillity and union in the Latin church, and their efforts were crowned with

[k] The History of this council, and of the frauds and stratagems that were practifed in it, was composed by that learned Grecian Sylvester Scyropulus, whose work was published at the Hague in the year 1660, with a Latin translation, a preliminary discourse, and ample notes, by the learned Robert Creighton, a native of Great Britain. This History was resulted by Leo Allatius, in a work entitled, Exercitationes in Greightoni Apparatum, Versionem et Notas ad Historiam Concilii Florentini scriptam a Sguropolo, Romæ, 1674, 4to. See the same author's Perpetua Consenso Ecclesia Oriental et Occident. p. 875. as also Mabillon, Museum Italicum, tom. i. p. 243.—Spanhemius, De perpetua dissensione Ecclesia Orient. et Occident. tom. ii. opp. p. 491.—Hermann. Historia concertat. de pare azymo, part II. cap. v. p. 124.

XV. V. refigned the papal chair, and returned to his PART II. delicious hermitage at Ripaille, while the fathers

of the council of Bafil affembled at Laufanne [1], ratified his voluntary abdication, and, by a folemn decree, ordered the universal church to submit to the jurisdiction of Nicholas as their lawful pontiff. On the other hand, NICHOLAS proclaimed this treaty of peace with great pomp on the 18th of June, in the same year, and set the seal of his approbation and authority to the acts and decrees of the council of Bafil. This pontiff distinguished himself in a very extraordinary manner, by his love of learning, and by his ardent zeal for the propagation of the liberal arts and sciences, which he promoted in Italy, with great success, by the encouragement he granted to the learned Greeks, who came from *Constantinople* into that country $\lceil m \rceil$. The principal occasion of his death was the fatal revolution that threw this capital of the Grecian empire into the hands of the Turks; this melancholy event preyed upon his spirits, and at length ended his days on the 24th of March, in the year 1455.

XVI. His fuccessor Alphonsus Borgia, who was a native of Spain, and is known in the papal list by the denomination of Calixtus III. was remarkable for nothing but his zeal in animating the Christian princes to make war upon the Turks; his reign also was short, for he died in the year 1458. ÆNEAS SYLVIUS PICCOLOMINI, who succeeded him in the pontificate that same year, under the title

Pius II.

[1] The abdication of Ferrx V. was made on the 9th of April 1449, and it was ratified the 16th day of the month, by the affembled fathers at Laufattre.

[m] See Dom. Grordi vita Nicolai V. ad fidem veturum -Mornmentorum: to which is added, a treatife, entitled, Difquifitio de Nicolai V. erga litteras et literatos viros patracinio, published
in 4to at Rome, in the year 1742.

of Pius II. rendered his name much more illustrious, CENT. not only by his extensive genius, and the important transactions that were carried on during his admini-PART II. stration, but also by the various and useful productions with which he enriched the republic of letters. lustre of his fame was, indeed, tarnished by a scandalous proof which he gave of his fickleness and inconstancy, or rather perhaps of his bad faith; for after having vigorously defended, against the pontiffs, the dignity and prerogatives of general councils, and maintained with peculiar boldness and obstinacy the cause of the council of Basil against Eugenius IV, he ignominiously renounced these generous principles upon his accession to the pontificate, and acted in direct opposition to them during the whole course of his administration. Thus, in the year 1460, he denied publicly that the pope was subordinate to a general council, and even prohibited all appeals to fuch a council under the severest penalties. The year following, he obtained from LEWIS XI. king of France, the abrogation of the Pragmatic Sanction, which favored, in a particular manner, the pretentions of the general councils to supremacy in the church $\lceil n \rceil$. But the most egregious instance of impudence

Sanction, issued out by Lewis IX. who, though he is honoured with a place in the Kalendar, was yet a zealous affertor of the liberty and privileges of the Gallican church, against the despotic encroachments and pretensions of the Roman postiffs. It was against their tyrannical proceedings, and intolerable extortions, that this edict was chiefly levelled; and though some creatures of the court of Rome have thrown out infinuations of its being a spurious production, yet the contrary is evident from its having been registered, as the authentic edict of that pious monarch, by the parliament of Paris, in the year 1461, by the states of the kingdom assembled at Tours in the year 1483, and by the university of Paris 1491.—See, for a farther account of this edict, the excellent History of France (begun by the Abbé Velly, and continued by M. Villaret,) vol. vi. p. 57.

The edict which Dr. Mosheim has in view here, is the Pragmatic Sandion that was drawn up at Bourges, in the year 1438,

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XV. the year 1463, when he published a solemn PART II.

by CHARLES VII. king of France, with the confent of the most eminent prelates and grandees of the nation, who were affembled at that place. This edict (which was absolutely necessary in order to deliver the French clergy from the vexations they fuffered from the encroachments of the popes, ever fince the latter had fixed their residence at Avignon) consisted of twentythree articles, in which, among other falutary regulations, the ele ions to vacant benefices were restored to their ancient purity and freedom*; the Annates and other pecuniary pretenfions and encroachments of the pontiffs abolished, and the authority of a general council declared superior to that of the pope. This edicate was drawn up in concert with the fathers of the council of Bafil, and the twenty-three articles it contains were taken from the decrees of that council; though they were admitted by the Gallican church with certain medifications, which the nature of the times, and the manners of the nation, rendered expedient. Such then was the Pragmatic Sanction, which pope Pius II. engaged Lewis XI. (who received upon that occasion, for him and his fuccessors, the title of Most Christian) to abolish, by a folemn declaration, the full execution of which was, however, prevented by the noble fland made by the university of Paris in favour of the Pragmatic Sanction. Lewis also perceiving that he had been deluded into this declaration by the treacherous infinuations of Geoffry, bishop of Arras (whom the pope had bribed with a cardinal's cap, and large promifes of a more lucrative kind) took no fort of pains to have it executed, but published, on the contrary, new edicts against the pecuniary pretensions and extortions of the court of Rosse. So that in reality the Pragmatic Sanction was not abolished before the Concordate, or agreement, which was transacted between FRANCIS I. and LEO X. in the year 1517, and was forced upon the French nation in opposition to the united efforts of the clergy, the university, the parliament, and the people. See, for a farther account of this matter, Du CLOS, Histoire de Louis XI. vol. i p. 115-132.

of the popes, who had usurped then, and that by the Pragmatic Sanction, every church had the privilege of chusing its bishop, and every monastery its abbot or prior. By the Concordate, or agreement, between Francis I. and Luo X. (which was substituted in the place of the Pragmatic Sanction), the nomination to the bishopries in France, and the collation of certain benefices of the his her class, were vested in the kings of France. An ample and fat stackory are unit of this convention may be seen in bishop Burnet's excellent H freeze of the Reformation, vol. iii. p. 3. and in a book, entitled, Helpine du Deoit proble Ecclesissique François, published in Octavo in 1737, and in quarto in 1752.

retractation of all that he had written in favour of CENT. the council of Bafil, and declared, without either shame XV. or hesitation, that, as ÆNEAS SYLVIUS, he was a PURT H. damnable heretic; but, as Pius II. he was an orthodox pontiff. This indecent declaration was the last circumstance, worthy of notice, that happened during his pontificate; for he departed this life in the month of July, in the year 1464 [0].

XVII. PAUL II. a Venetian by birth, whose name Paulus H. was PETER BARD, was raised to the head of the church in the year 1464, and died in the year 1471. His administration was distinguished by some measures, which, if we consider the genius of the times, were worthy of praise; though it must, at the same time, be confessed, that he did many things, which were evidently inexcufable; not to mention his reducing the jubilee circle to twenty-five years, and thus accelerating the return of that most absurd and superstitious ceremony. So that his reputation became at least dubious in after-times, and was viewed in different lights by different persons $\lceil p \rceil$. The following pontiffs, SIXTUS IV. and INNOCENT VIII. whose names were FRANCIS ALBESCOLA and JOHN BAPTIST SIBO, were neither remarkable for their virtues nor their vices. The former departed this life in the year 1484, and the latter in 1492. Filled with the most terrible apprehensions of the danger that threatened Europe in general, and Italy in particular, from the growing power of the Turks, they both attempted putting themselves in a posture of defence, and warmly exhorted the European

[o] Besides the writers of Ecclesiastical History, see Nouveaux Distion. Historique et Critique, tom. ii. at the article Enee Sylvius, p. 26.

[p] PAUL II. has had the good fortune to find, in one of the most eminent and learned men of this age (the samous cardinal Lurrin), a zealous apologist. See among the productions of that illustrious prelate, the piece, entitled, Pauli II. Vita en Codice Anglica Bibliotheca desumpta, pramissis ipsius vindiciis adversus Platinam, aliosque obtrestatores, Roma, 1740, in 410.

CENT. princes to put a stop to the progress of that warlike MV. people. But many obstacles arose, which prevented PART II the execution of this important design, and rendered

the exhortations of these zealous pontiss without essect. The other undertakings that were projected or carried on, during their continuance at the head of the church, are not of importance sufficient to require particular notice.

Alexander VI.

XVIII. In the feries of pontiffs that ruled the church during this century, the last, in order of time, was ALEXANDER VI. a Spaniard by birth, whose name was Roderic Borgia. The life and actions of this man shew, that there was a Nero among the popes as well as among the emperors. The crimes and enormities that history has imputed to this papal Nero, evidently prove him to have been not only destitute of all religious and virtuous principles, but even regardless of decency, and hardened against the very feeling of shame. And, though it may be possible, that the malignity of his enemies may have forged false accusations against him, and, in some instances, exaggerated the horror of his real crimes; yet there is upon record, an authentic list of undoubted facts, which, both by their number and their atrocity, are fusicient to render the name and memory of ALEXANDER VI. odious and detestable in the efteem even of fuch as have the smallest tincture of virtuous principles and feelings. An inordinate affection for his children was the principal fource from whence proceeded a great part of the crimes he committed. He had four fons of a concubine with whom he had lived many years, among whom was the infamous CZESAR BORGIA. A daughter, named Lucretia, was likewise among the fruits of this unlawful commerce. The tenderness of the pontiff for this fourious offspring was exceffive beyond all expression; his only aim was to load them with riches and honours; and, in the execution of this purpose, he trampled with contempt upon every

obstacle, which the demands of justice, the distates of CENT. reason, and the remonstrances of religion, laid in his XV. way [q]. Thus he went on in his profligate career PART II. until the year 1503, when the poison, which he and his son Cæsar had mingled for others who stood in the way of their avarice and ambition, cut short, by a happy mistake, his own days [r].

XIX. The monastic societies, as we learn from a Themonks. multitude of authentic records, and from the testimonies of the best writers, were, at this time, so many herds of lazy, illiterate, profligate, and licentious Epicureans, whose views in life were confined to opulence, idleness, and pleasure. The rich monks, particularly those of the Benedictine and Augustine orders, perverted their revenues to the gratification of their lusts; and renouncing, in their conduct, all regard to their respective rules of discipline, drew upon themselves a popular odium by their sensuality and licentiousness [s]. This was matter of affliction to many wife and good men, especially in France and Germany, who formed the pious defign of stemming the torrent of monkish luxury, and excited a spirit of reformation among that degenerate order [t]. Among the German reformers, who undertook the restoration of virtue and temperance in the convents, NICHOLAS DE MAZEN, an Austrian abbot, and NICHOLAS DUNKELSPUHL, professor at Vienna,

[q] The life of this execrable tyrant has been written in English by Mr. ALEXANDER GORDON, whose work was translated into French, and published at Amsterdam in 1732. The same subject has, however, been handled with more moderation by the ingenious and learned author of the Histoire du Droit Publ. Eccles. François, to which History are subjoined the lives of ALEXANDER VI. and LEO X.

[r] Such is the account which the best historians have given of the death of ALEXANDER VI. VOLTAIRE, notwithstanding, has pretended to prove, that this pontiff died a natural death.

[s] See Martini Senging, Teutiones Ordinis S. Benedici, feu Oratio in Concilio Basiliensi, A. 1433, contra vitia Benedici. secitata, in Bernh. Pezii Biblioth. Ascetica, tom. viii. p. 517.

[t] See Leibnitii Pref. ad tom. ii. Scriptor. Brunfvic. p. 40.

ENT. held the first rank. They attempted, with unparalleled zeal and affiduity, the reformation of the Benedictines throughout all Germany, and succeeded so far, as to restore, at least, a certain air of decency and virtue in the monasteries of Swabia, Franconia, and Bavaria [u]. The reformation of the same order was attempted in France by many, and particularly by Guido, or Guy Juvenal, a learned man, whose writings, upon that and on other subjects, were received with applause [w]. It is however certain, that the greatest part of the monks, both in France and elsewhere, resisted, with obstinacy, the salutary attempts of these spiritual physicians, and returned their zeal with the worst treatment that it was possible to shew them.

The Mendicants.

XX. While the opulent monks exhibited to the world fcandalous examples of luxury, ignorance, laziness, and licentiousness, accompanied with a barbarous aversion to every thing that carried the remotest aspect of science, the Mendicants, and more especially the Dominicans and Franciscans, were chargeable with irregularities of another kind. Besides their arrogance, which was excessive, a quarrelsome and litigious spirit, an ambitious desire of encroaching upon the rights and privileges of others, an infatiable zeal for the propagation of fuperstition, and the itch of disputing and of starting absurd and intricate questions of a religious kind, prevailed among them, and drew upon them justly the displeasure and indignation of many. It was this wrangling spirit that perpetuated the controversies which had subsisted so long between them and the bishops, and indeed the whole facerdotal order; and it was their vain curiofity, and their inordinate

[w] See Likon, Singularités Historique et Litteraires, tom.

iii. p. 49.

[[]u] For an account of these reformers, see Martin Kropf: Bibliotheca Mellicensis, seu de vitis et Scriptis Benedictinor. Mellicensium, p. 143. 163. 203. 206.

passion for novelty, that made the divines, in the CENT. greatest part of the European academies, complain xv. of the dangerous and destructive errors they had PART II. introduced into religion. These complaints were repeated, without interruption, in all the provinces where the Mendicants had any credit; and the same complaints were often presented to the court of Rome, where they exercised sufficiently both the patience and subtilty of the pontiffs and their ministers. The different pontiffs that ruled the church, during this century, were differently affected towards the Mendicants; fome patronized them, others opposed them; and this circumstance frequently changed the face of things, and, for a long time, rendered the decision of the contest dubious [x]. The perfecution that was carried on against the Beguins became also an occasion of increasing the odium that had been cast upon the begging monks, and was extremely prejudicial to their interests. For the Beguins and Lollards, to escape the fury of their inveterate enemies, the bishops and others, frequently took refuge in the third order of the Franciscans, Dominicans, and Augustinians, hoping that, in the patronage and protection of these powerful and respected focieties, they should find a secure retreat from the calamities that oppressed them. Nor were their hopes entirely disappointed here; but the storm that hitherto pursued them, fell upon their new patrons and protectors, the Mendicants, who, by affording a refuge to a fect fo odious to the clergy, drew upon themselves the indignation of that sacred order, and were thereby involved in difficulties and perplexities of various kinds $\lceil y \rceil$.

[[]x] See Launoii Lib. de Canone: Omnis Utriusque Sexus, opp. tom. i. part I. p. 287.—Boulay, Hist. Acad. Paris. tom. v. p. 189. 196. 204. 522. 558. 601. 617. 752.—Ant. Wood, Antiq. Oxon. tom. i. p. 210. 212. 224.

[[]y] See the preceding century.

XXI. The more auftere and rebellious Franciscans.

The fate of the

CENT.

XV.

who, feparating themselves from the church, renoun-PART II. ced their allegiance to the Roman pontiffs, and were distinguished by the appellation of Fratricelli or Minorites, continued, together with their Tertiaries, Fratricelli. the Beghards, to carry on an open war against the court of Rome. Their head-quarters were in Italy, in the marquifate of Ancona, and the neighbouring countries; for it was there that their leader and chief ruler resided. They were perfecuted, about the middle of this century, with the greatest severity by pope Nicholas V. who employed every method he could think of to vanguish their obstinacy, sending for that purpole fuccessively against them the Franciscan monks, armed hosts, and civil magistrates, and committing to the flames many of those who remained unmoved by all these means of conversion [z]. This heavy perfecution was carried on by the fucceeding pontiffs, and by none with greater bitterness and vehemence than by PAUL II; though it is faid, that this pope chose rather to conquer the headstrong and stubborn perseverance of this sect by imprisonment and exile, than by fire and fword $\lceil a \rceil$. The Fratricelli, on the other hand, animated by the protection of feveral perfons of great influence, who became their patrons on account of the striking appearance of fanctity which they exhibited to the world, opposed force to force, and went so far as to put to death some of the inquisitors, among whom

^[2] MAURITIUS SARTIUS, De Antiqua Picentum civitate Cupromon.ans, in Angeli Caloger & Raccolta di Opusculi Scientifici, tom. XXXIX. p. 39. 81. 97. where we have feveral extracts from the Menufeript Dialogue of Jacobus DE Marchia against the Fratricelli.

[[]a] Ang. Mar. Quarni Tha Pauli II. p. 78.—Jo. Tar-GIONIUS, Prof. ad Clarer. Venetor. Erytolas ad Magliabechium, tom. i. p. 43. where we have an account of the books that were written against the Fratricelli by Nicholas Palmerius and others under the pontificate of PAUL II. and which are yet in manufeript.

ANGELO of Camaldoli fell a victim to their vengeance CENT. $\lceil b \rceil$. Nor were the commotions raised by this troublesome sect confined to Italy; other countries PART II. felt the effects of their petulant zeal; and Bobenia and Silesia (where they preached with warmth their favourite doctrine, that the true imitation of Christ consisted in beggary, and extreme poverty) became the theatre of the spiritual war [c]. The king of Bohemia was well affected to these fanatics, granted them his protection, and was, on that account, excommunicated by PAUL II $\lceil d \rceil$. In France, their affairs were far from being prosperous; such of them as fell into the hands of the inquisitors were committed to the slames [e], and they were eagerly fearched after in the province of Tholouse and the adjacent countries, where great numbers of them lay concealed, and endeavoured to escape the vigilance of their enemies; while feveral of their fcattered parties removed to England and Ireland [f]. The dreadful feries of calamities and perfecutions that purfued this miferable feet was not fufficient to extinguish it entirely; for it subsisted until the times of the reformation in Germany, when its remaining votaries adopted the cause, and embraced the doctrine and discipline of LUTHER.

XXII. Of the religious fraternities that were New founded in this century, none deferves a more orders: the Brethren honourable mention, than the Breihren and Clerks and Clerks of the common life (as they called themselves), who of the comlived under the rule of St. Augustin, and were mon life. eminently useful in promoting the cause of religion,

[[]b] See the Ada Sandor. tom. ii. Maii. p. 356. [c] Jo. Georgii Schelhornii Ada Historica Eccles. part 1. р. 66. 283.

[[]d] QUIRINI Vita Pauli II. p. 73.
[e] I have in manuscript in my possession, the acts, or decrees, of the Inquisition against John Gudulchi de Castellione and Francis De Archata, both of them Fratricelli, who were buint in France in the year 1454.

[[]f] Wood, Antiqq. Oxonienf. tom. i. p. 232. Vol. III.

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learning and virtue. This fociety had been formed in the preceding age by GERARD DE GROOTE, a PART II. native of *Deventer* $\lceil g \rceil$, and a man remarkable for his fervent piety and extensive erudition; it was not, however, before the prefent century, that it received a proper degree of confiftence, and, having obtained the approbation of the council of Constance, flourished in Holland, the Lower Germany, and the adjacent provinces. It was divided into two classes, the Lettered Brethren, or Clerks, and the Illiterate, who, though they occupied feparate habitations, lived in the firmest bonds of fraternal union. The Clerks applied themselves with exemplary zeal and assiduity to the study of polite literature, and to the education of youth. They composed learned works for the instruction of their contemporaries, and erected schools and seminaries of learning wherever they The *Illiterate Brethren*, on the other hand, were employed in manual labour, and exercised with fuccess the mechanic arts. Neither of the two classes were under the reftraint of religious vows; yet they had all things in common, and this community was the great bond of their union. The Sifters of this virtuous fociety lived much in the fame manner, and employed the hours, that were not confecrated to prayer and reading, in the education of young girls, and in branches of industry suitable to their sex. The schools, that were erected by the Clerks of this fraternity, acquired a great and illustrious reputation in this century. From them issued forth those immortal restorers of learning and taste that gave a new face to the republic of letters in Germany and Holland, fuch as Erasmus of Rotterdam, ALEX-ANDER HEGIUS, JOHN MURMELIUS, and feveral

[[]g] The life of this samous Dutchman, GERARD GROOTE, was written by Thomas a Kempis, and is to be found in his Works. It stands at the head of the lives of eleven of his contemporaries, which were composed by this eminent writer.

others [b]. The inflitution of the order of the CENT. Jesuits seemed to diminish the credit of these excellent XV. schools, which, from that period, began to decline, PART II. and of which there are, at this time, but very few remaining. The Brethren of the common life were frequently called Beghards and Lollards, appellations that had been given to so many different sects, and were obliged to sustain the insults and opposition of the clergy and monks, who had an inexpressible aversion to every thing that bore the remotest aspect of learning or taste [i].

XXIII. Of the Greeks, who acquired a name by The Greek their learned productions, the most eminent were, writers.

Simeon of *Thessalonica*, the author of several treatises, and, among others, of a book against the *Heresies* that had troubled the church; to which we may add his writings against the Latins, which are yet extant [k];

Josephus Bryennius, who wrote a book Concerning the Trinity, and another against the Latins:

MACARIUS MACRES, whose animosity against the Latins was carried to the greatest height;

[b] Accounts of this order have been given by Aub. Mireus, in his Chronicon. ad A. 1384, and by Helvot, in his History of the Religious Orders, tom. iii. But, in that which I have here given, there are some circumstances taken from ancient records not yet published. I have in my possession several manuscripts, which surnish materials for a much clearer and more circumstantial account of the institution and progress of this order, than can be derived from the books that have hitherto appeared on that subject.

[i] We read frequently, in the records of this century, of schools erected by the Lollards, and sometimes by the Beghards, at Deventer, Brunswie, Koning sherg, and Munster, and many other places. Now these Lollards were the Clerks of the common life, who, on account of their virtue, industry, and learning, which rendered them so useful in the education of youth, were invited by the magistrates of several cities to reside among them.

[k] Jo. Alb. Fabricius, Bibl. Græc. vol. xiv. p. 49.—Rich. Simon, Critique de la Bibliotheque Eccles. par M. Du Pin,

tom. i. p. 400.

CENT. GEORGE PHRANZA, whose historical talent xv. makes a figure in the compilation of the Byzantine PART II. historians;

MARCUS EPHESIUS, who was an obstinate enemy

to the council of Florence [l];

Cardinal Bessarion, the illustrious protector and supporter of the Platonic school, a man of unparalleled genius and erudition; but much hated by the Greeks, because he seemed to lean to the party of the Latins, and proposed an union of the two nations to the prejudice of the former [m];

GEORGE SCHOLARIUS, otherwise called GEN-NADIUS, who wrote against the Latins, and more especially against the council of *Florence*, with more learning, candour, and perspicuity than the rest of

his countrymen $\lceil n \rceil$;

GEORGE GEMISTIUS PLETHO, a man of eminent learning, who excited many of the Italians to the study, not only of the Platonic philosophy in particular, but of Grecian literature in general;

GEORGE of Trapefond, who translated feveral of the most eminent Grecian authors into Latin, and supported the cause of the Latins against the Greeks

by his dexterous and eloquent pen;

GEORGE CODINUS, of whom we have yet remaining several productions relating to the Byzan-

tine history.

I can wri-

XXIV. The tribe of Latin writers, that adorned or dishonoured this century, is not to be numbered. We shall therefore confine ourselves to the enume-

[i] RICH. SIMON, l. c. tom. i. p. 431.

[m] For an account of Bessarion and the other learned men here mentioned, fee Bornerus and Hody, in their hittories of the Restoration of Letters in Italy, by the Greeks that took refuge there after the taking of Constantinople; add to these the Bibliotheca Greea of Fabricius.

[n] RICH. SIMON, Croyance de l'Eglise Orientale sur la Transfulssantiation, p. 87, & Critique de M. Du Pin, tom i. p. 438.

ration of those who wrote upon theological matters, CENT. and even of these we shall only mention the most eminent. At their head we may justly place John PART II. GERSON, chancellor of the university of Paris, the most illustrious ornament that this age can boast of, a man of the greatest influence and authority, whom the council of Constance looked upon as its oracle, the lovers of liberty as their patron, and whose memory is yet precious to fuch among the French, as are at all zealous for the maintenance of their privileges against papal despotism [0]. This excellent man published a considerable number of treatises that were admirably adapted to reform the corruptions of a superstitious worship, to excite a spirit of genuine piety, and to heal the wounds of a divided church: though, in some respects, he does not feem to have understood thoroughly the demands and injunctions of the gospel of Christ. The most eminent among the other theological writers were,

NICHOLAS DE CLEMANGIS, a man of uncommon candour and integrity, who lamented, in the most eloquent and affecting strains, the calamities of the times, and the unhappy state of the Christian church [p];

ALPHONSUS TOSTATUS, bishop of Avila, who loaded the Holy Scriptures with an unwieldy and voluminous Commentary, and composed also other

^[0] See Du Pin, Gersonianorum Libri iv. which are prefixed to the edition of the works of Gerson, which we owe to that laborious author, and which was published at Antwerp in five volumes folio, in the year 1706. See also Jo. Launoii Historia Gymnasii Regii Navarreni, part III. lib. ii. cap. i. p. 514. tom. iv. part I. opp.—Herm. van der Hardt, Acia Concil. Constant. tom. i. part IV. p. 26.

[[]p] See Launoii Histor. Cymnas. Navarr. part III. lib. ii. cap. iii. p. 555.—Longueval, Hist. de l'Eglise Gallicane, tom. xiv. p. 436.—The Works of Clemangis were published, some pieces excepted, at Leyden, with a Glossary, in the year 1631, by Lydius.

CENT. works, in which there is a great mixture of good and xv. bad;

degree of reputation by his profound knowledge of the Greek language, and his uncommon acquaintance with Grecian literature, as also by the zeal and industry he discovered in the attempts he made to effectuate a reconciliation between the Greeks and Latins;

NICHOLAS DE CUSA, a man of vast erudition, and no mean genius, though not so famed for the solidity of his judgment, as may appear from a work of his entitled, Conjectures concerning the last $day \lceil q \rceil$;

JOHN NIEDER, whose writings are very proper to give us an accurate notion of the manners and spirit of the age in which he lived, and whose voyages and transactions have rendered him famous;

JOHN CAPISTRAN, who was in high efteem at the court of Rome, on account of the ardour and vehemence with which he defended the jurisdiction and majesty of the pontiffs against all their enemies and opposers [r];

John Wesselus and Jerome Savanarola, who may justly be placed among the wifest and worthiest men of this age. The former who was a native of *Groningen*, and on account of his extraordinary penetration and sagacity was called the *Light of the World*, propagated several of those doctrines, which Luther afterwards inculcated with greater evidence and energy, and animadverted with freedom and candour upon the corruptions of the Roman church [s]. The latter was a Dominican and a

^[7] BAYLE, Repense aux Questions d'un Provincial, tom. ii. cay. cxvii. p. 517.—The works of Nicholas were published, in one volume, at Basil, in the year 1565.

[[]r] LENFANT, Histoire de la Guerre des Eussites, tom. ii. p. 254.—WADDINGI Annales Minorum, tom. ix. p. 67.

[[]s] Jo. Henr. Maii Vita Reuchliai, p. 156.

native of Ferrara, remarkable for piety, eloquence, CENT. and learning, who touched the fores of the church with a heavier hand, and inveighed against the PART II. pontiffs with greater feverity. This freedom cost him dear; he was committed to the flames at Florence in the year 1498, and bore his fate with the most triumphant fortitude and ferenity of mind $\lceil t \rceil$;

Alphonsus Spina, who wrote a book against the Jews and Saracens, which he called Fortalitium Fidei.

To all these we must join the whole tribe of the scholastic writers, whose chief ornaments were, JOHN CAPREOLUS, JOHN DE TURRECREMATA, ANTONINUS of Florence, Dyonysius a Ryckel, HENRY GORCOMIUS, GABRIEL BIEL, STEPHEN BRULIFER, and others. The most remarkable among the Mystics were, Vincentius Ferrerinus, HENR. HARPHIUS, LAURENTIUS, JUSTINIANUS, BERNARDINUS SENENSIS, and THOMAS A KEMPIS, who shone among these with a superior lustre, and to whom the famous book Concerning the Imitation of Christ, is commonly attributed $\lceil u \rceil$.

[t] B. Jo. Franc. Buddet Parerga Historico-Theologica. The life of SAVANAROLA was written by J. Francis Picus, and published in two volumes, 8vo, at Paris, with various Annotations, Letters, and original pieces by QUETIF, in the year 1674. The same editor published also at Paris, that same year, the Spiritual and Ascetic Epistles of SAVANAROLA, translated from the Italian into Latin. See Echard, Scriptor. Pradicator. tom. i. p. 884.

[u] The late Abbé LANGLET DE FRESNOY promised the world a demonstration that this famous book, whose true author has been fo much disputed among the learned, was originally written in French by a person named Gersen, or Gerson, and only translated into Latin by Thomas a Kempis. See Gra-NETUS in Launoianis, part II. tom. iv. part II. opp. p. 414, 415. The History of this famous book is given by VINCENTIUS THUILLIERIUS, in the Opera Posthuma Mabilloni et Rumarti, tom. iii. p. 54.

CHAPTER III.

Concerning the state of religion, and the doctrine of the church during this century.

I. THE state of religion was become so CENT. corrupt among the Latins, that it was utterly XV. PART II. destitute of any thing that could attract the esteem of the truly virtuous and judicious part of mankind. The corrupt state of This is a fact, which even they whose prejudices render them unwilling to acknowledge it, will never prefume to deny. Among the Greeks and Orientals, religion. religion had fcarcely a better afpect than among the Latins; at least, if the difference was in their favour, it was far from being confiderable. The worship of the Deity confifted in a round of frivolous and infipid The discourses of those who instructed ceremonies. the people in public, were not only destitute of sense, judgment, and spirit, but even of piety and devotion, and were in reality nothing more than a motley mixture of the groffest sictions, and the most extravagant inventions. The reputation of Christian knowledge and piety was eafily acquired; it was lavished upon those who professed a profound veneration for the facred order, and their ghostly head the Roman pontiff, who studied to render the saints (i. e. the clergy, their minister) propitious by frequent and rich donations, who were exact and regular in the observance of the stated ceremonies of the church, and who had wealth enough to pay the fines which the papal quæftors had annexed to the commission of all the different degrees of transgression; or, in other words, to purchase indulgences. Such were the ingredients of ordinary piety; but fuch as added to these a certain degree of austerity and bodily mortification were placed in the highest order of worthies, and confidered as the peculiar favourites of CENT. heaven. On the other hand, the number of those XV. who were studious to acquire a just notion of religious PART II. matters, to investigate the true sense of the facred writings, and to model their lives and manners after the precepts and example of the divine Saviour, was extremely small, and such had much difficulty in escaping the gibbet, in an age where virtue and sense were looked upon as heretical.

II. This miferable state of things, this enormous Defenders perversion of religion and morality throughout almost of the true all the western provinces, were observed and deplored raised by by many wife and good men, who all endeavoured, Providence though in different ways, to stem the torrent of places. superstition, and to reform a corrupt church. In England and Scotland, the disciples of Wickliff, whom the multitude had stigmatized with the odious title of Lollards, continued to inveigh against the despotic laws of the pontiffs, and the licentious manners of the clergy [w]. The Waldenses, though persecuted and oppressed on all sides, and from every quarter, raised their voices even in the remote vallies and lurking-places whither they were driven by the violence of their enemies, and called aloud for fuccour to the expiring cause of religion and virtue. Even in Italy many, and among others the famous SAVANAROLA, had the courage to declare, that Rome was become the image of Babylon; and this notion was foon adopted by multitudes of all ranks and conditions. But the greatest part of the clergy and monks, persuaded that their honours, influence, and riches would diminish in proportion to the increase of knowledge among the people, and would receive inexpressible detriment from the downfal of superstition, opposed, with all their might, every thing that had the remotest aspect of a reformation, and imposed filence upon these

[w] See WILKINS, Concilia Mognæ Britann. et Hibern. tom. iv.—Wood, Antiq. Oxon. tom. i. p. 202. 204.

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CENT. importunate cenfors by the formidable authority of xv. fire and fword.

Рлят ІІ.

Commotions in Bohemia,

III. The religious diffensions that had been excited in Bohemia by the ministry of John Huss and his disciple JACOBELLUS DE MISA, were doubly inflamed by the deplorable fate of Huss and JEROME of Prague, and broke out into an open war, which was carried on with the most savage and unparalleled barbarity. The followers of Huss, who pleaded for the administration of the cup to the laity in the holy facrament, being perfecuted and oppressed in various ways by the emissaries and ministers of the court of Rome, retired to a steep and high mountain in the district of Bechin, in which they held their religious meetings, and administered the sacrament of the Lord's supper under both kinds. This mountain they called Tabor, from the tents which they at first erested there for their habitation; and in process of time they raifed a strong fortification for its defence. and adorned it with a well-built and regular city. Nor did they stop here; but, forming more grand and important projects, they chose for their chiefs NICHOLAS of Huffinet, and the famous John ZISKA, a Bohemian knight, a man of the most undaunted courage and resolution; and proposed, under the standards of these valiant leaders, to revenge the death of Huss and Jerome upon the creatures of the Roman pontiff, and obtain a liberty of worshipping God in a more rational manner than that which was prescribed by the church of Rome. After the death of Nicholas, which happened in the year 1420, ZISKA commanded alone this warlike body, and had the fatisfaction to fee his army increase from day to day. During the first tumults of this war, which were no more than a prelude to calamities of a much more dreadful kind, Wenceslaus, king of Bohemia, departed this life in the year 1419 [xe]

(F[x] This prince had no fooner begun to execute the decrees of the council of Constance against the Huslites, than the

IV. The emperor Sigismund, who fucceeded cent. him in the throne of Bohemia, employed not only xv. edicts and remonstrances, but also the terror of PART II. penal laws, and the force of arms, to put an end to these lamentable divisions; and great numbers of war carried the Huslites perished, by his orders, in the most on by Ziska barbarous manner. The Bohemians, irritated by and Procothese inhuman proceedings, threw off his despotic yoke in the year 1420, and, with ZISKA at their head, made war against their sovereign. This famous leader, though deprived of his fight, discovered, in every step he took, such an admirable mixture of prudence and intrepidity, that his name became a terror to his enemies. Upon his death, which happened in the year 1424, the plurality of the Hussites chose for their general Procorius RASA, a man also of undaunted courage and resolution, who maintained their cause and carried on the war with spirit and success. The acts of barbarity that were committed on both fides, were shocking and terrible beyond expression; for, notwithstanding the irreconcileable opposition that there was between the religious fentiments of the contending parties, they both agreed in this one horrible point, that it was innocent and lawful to perfecute and extirpate with fire and fword the enemies of the true religion, and fuch they reciprocally appeared to be in each other's eyes. The Bohemians maintained, that Huss had been unjustly put to death at Constance, and consequently revenged, with the utmost fury, the injury that had been done him. They acknowledged it nevertheless, as an incontestible principle, that beretics were worthy of capital punishment;

inhabitants of *Prague* took fire at their proceeding, raised a tumult, murdered the magistrates who published the order, and committed other outrages, which filled the court of Wenceslaus with consternation, and so affected that pusillanimous monarch, that he was seized with an apoplaxy, of which he died in a few days.

This pernicious maxim, then, was the fource of PART II. that cruelty that dishonoured the exploits of both the parties in this dreadful war; and it is, perhaps, difficult to determine, which of the two carried this cruelty to the greatest height.

V. All those who undertook to avenge the death of the Bohemian martyr, fet out upon the same principles, and, at the commencement of the war, they feemed to agree both in their religious fentiments and in their demands upon the church and government from which they had withdrawn themselves. But as their numbers increased, their union diminished, and their army being prodigiously augmented by a confluence of strangers from all quarters, a great dissension arose among them, which, in the year 1420, came to an open rupture, and divided this multitude into two great factions, which were distinguished by the titles of Calixtines and Taborites. The former, who were so called from their infilting upon the use of the cup, or chalice, in the celebration of the eucharist, were mild in their proceedings, and modest in their demands, and shewed no disposition to overturn the ancient fystem of church-government, or to make any confiderable changes in the religion which was publicly received. All that they required, may be comprehended under the four articles which follow. They demanded, first, that the word of God should be explained to the people in a plain and perspicuous manner, without the mixture of superstitious comments or inventions; fecondly, that the facrament of the Lord's supper should be administered in both kinds; thirdly, that the clergy, instead of employing all their attention and zeal in the acquisition of riches and power, should turn their thoughts to objects more fuitable to their profession, and be ambitious of living and acting as became fuccessors of the holy apostles; and fourthly, that

transgressions of a more heinous kind, or mortal sins, CENT. should be punished in a manner suitable to their XV. enormity. In this great faction, however, there PART II. were some subordinate sects, who were divided upon several points. The administration of the Lord's supper was one occasion of dispute; JACOBELLUS DE MISA, who had first proposed the celebration of that ordinance under both kinds, was of opinion, Taborites. that infants had a right to partake of it, and this opinion was adopted by many; while others maintained the contrary doctrine, and consined the privilege in question to persons of riper years [y].

VI. The demands of the Taborites, who derived their name from a mountain well known in facred history were much more ample. They not only infisted upon reducing the religion of Jesus to its primitive simplicity; but required also, that the fystem of ecclesiastical government should be reformed in the same manner, the authority of the pope destroyed, the form of divine worship changed; they demanded, in a word, the erection of a new church, a new hierarchy, in which CHRIST alone should reign, and all things should be carried on by a divine direction and impulse. In maintaining these extravagant demands, the principal doctors among the Taborites, fuch as MARTIN LOQUIS, a Moravian, and his followers, went fo far as to flatter themselves with the chimerical notion, that Christ would defcend in perfon upon earth armed with fire and fword, to extirpate herefy, and purify the church from its multiplied corruptions. Thefe fanatical dreams they propagated every where, and taught them even in a public manner with unparalleled confidence and prefumption. It is this enthusiastic class of the Hussites alone, that we are to look upon as accountable for all those aboninable acts of violence, rapine, defolation, and murder, which are too indifcriminately laid to the charge of the [y] Byzinii Diarium Hussiicum, p. 130.

CENT. Huslites in general, and to their two leaders ZISKA and Procopius in particular [2]. It must indeed XV. PART II. be acknowledged, that a great part of the Huslites had imbibed the most barbarous fentiments with respect to the obligation of executing vengeance upon their enemies, against whom they breathed nothing but bloodshed and fury, without any mixture of humanity or compassion.

The com-

VII. In the year 1433, the council of Basil motions in endeavoured to put an end to this dreadful war, and Bohemia ter-for that purpose invited the Bohemians to their affembly. The Bohemians, accepting this invitation, fent ambassadors, and among others Procesius their leader, to represent them in that council. after many warm debates, these messengers of peace returned without having effected any thing that might even prepare the way for a reconciliation fo

> [z] From the following opinions and maxims of the Taborites, which may be feen in the Diarium Huffiticum of Byzinius, we may form a just idea of their detestable barbarity: Omnes leges Christi adversarii debent puniri septem plagis novissimis, ad quarum executionem fideles sunt provocandi.—In islo tempore ultionis Christus in sua humilitate et miseratione non est imitandus ad ipsos peccatures, sed in zelo et surore et justa retributione. In hoc tempore ultionis, quilibet fidelis, etiam presbyter, quantumcunque spiritualis, est maledictus, qui GLADIUM SUUM CORPORALEM PROHIBET A SANGUINE adversariorum legis Christi, sed DEBET MANUS SUAS LAVARE IN EORUM SANGUINE et fanclificare. From men, who adopted fuch horrid and detestable maxims, what could be expected but the most abominable acts of injustice and cruelty? For an account of this dreadful and calamitous war, the reader, may confult (besides the ancient writers, such as Sylvius, Theobaldus, Cochlæus, and others) Lenfant, Histoire de la guerre des Hussites, which was published at Amsterdam in two volumes in 4to, in the year 1731. To this history it will, however, be advisable to add the Diarium Belli Hussici of Byzinius, a book worthy of the highest esteem, on account of the candour and impartiality with which it is composed, and which Mr. LENFANT does not feem to have confulted. This valuable production has been published, though incomplete, in the fixth volume of the Reliquiæ Manuscriptorum of the very learned Joнn PETER LUDWIG. See also BEAUSOBRE's supplement to the Histoire de la guerre des Hussiles, Laufanne, 1745, in 410.

long and fo ardently defired. The Calixtines were CENT. not averse to peace; but no methods of persuasion xv. could engage the Taborites to yield. This matter, PARTIL however, was transacted with more success by ÆNEAS SYLVIUS and others, whom the council fent into Bohemia to renew the conferences. For these new legates, by allowing the Calixtines the use of the cup in the holy sacrament, satisfied them in the point which they had chiefly at heart and thereby reconciled them with the Roman pontiff. But the Taborites remained firm, adhered inflexibly to their first principles; and neither the artifice nor eloquence of Sylvius, nor the threats, fufferings, and perfecutions to which their cause exposed them, could vanquish their obstinate perseverance in it. From this period, indeed, they began to review their religious tenets, and their ecclefiastical discipline, with a design to render them more perfect. This review, as it was executed with great prudence and impartiality, produced a very good effect, and gave a rational aspect to the religion of this sect, who withdrew themselves from the war, abandoned the doctrines, which, upon ferious examination, they found to be inconfistent with the spirit and genius of the gospel, and banished from their communion all those whose disordered brains, or licentious manners might expose them to reproach $\lceil a \rceil$. The Taborites, thus new-modelled, were the same with those Bohemian brethren (or Piccards, i. e. Beghards, as their adversaries called them) who joined LUTHER and his fucceffors at the reformation, and of whom there are at this day many of the descendants and followers in *Poland* and other countries.

[[]a] See Adriani Regenvolschii Historia Eccles. provinciar. Sclavonicar. lib. ii. cap. viii. p. 165.—Joach. Camerarii Historica Narratio de fratrum Ecclesiis in Bohemia, Moravia, et Polonia, Heidelb. 1605, in 4to.—Jo. Lasitii Historia fratrum Bohemicorum, which I possess in manuscript, and of which the eighth Book was published in 8vo. at Amsterdam, in the year 1649.

Commen-

tators.

CENT.

XV.

VIII. Among the greatest part of the interpreters of scripture that lived in this century, we find PART II. nothing worthy of applause, if we except their zeal and their good intentions. Such of them as aimed at fomething higher than the character of bare compilers, and ventured to draw their explications from their own fense of things, did little more than amuse, or rather delude, their readers, with mystical and allegorical fancies. At the head of this class of writers is Alphonsus Tostatus, bishop of Avila, whose voluminous commentaries upon the facred writings exhibit nothing remarkable but their enormous bulk. LAURENTIUS VALLA is entitled to a more favorable judgment, and his fmall collection of Critical and Grammatical Annotations upon the New Testament is far from being destitute of merit, since it pointed out to fucceeding authors, the true method of removing the difficulties that fometimes prefent themselves to such as study with attention the divine oracles. It is proper to observe here, that these facred books were, in almost all the kingdoms and states of Europe, translated into the language of each respective people, particularly in Germany, Italy, France, and Britain. This circumstance naturally excited the expectations of a confiderable change in the state of religion, and made the thinking few hope, that the doctrine of the church would be foon reformed by the light, that could not but arife from confulting the genuine fources of divine truth.

The fcholastic divines and moralifts hated and oppofed.

IX. The schools of divinity made a miserable figure in this century. They were filled with teachers, who loaded their memory, and that of their disciples, with unintelligible distinctions meaning founds, that they might thus dispute and discourse with an appearance of method, upon matters which they did not understand. There were now few remaining, of those who proved and illustrated the doctrines of religion by the positive declarations of the holy scriptures, and the sentiments

of the ancient fathers, and who, with all their defects, CENT. were much superior to the vain and obscure pedants of whom we now speak. The senseless jargon of PART II. the latter did not escape the just and heavy censure of some learned and judicious persons, who looked upon their method of teaching as highly detrimental to the interests of true religion, and to the advancement of genuine and folid piety. Accordingly various plans were formed by different persons, some of which had for their object the abolition of this method, others its reformation, while, in the mean time, the enemies of the schoolmen encreased from day to day. The Mystics, of whom we shall have occasion to speak more largely hereafter, were ardently bent upon banishing entirely this scholastic theology out of the Christian church. Others, who feemed disposed to treat matters with more moderation, did not infift upon its total suppression, but were of opinion, that it was necessary to reform it, by abolishing all vain and useless subjects of debate, by restraining the rage of disputing that had infected the feminaries of theology, and by feafoning the fubtilty of the schoolmen with a happy temperature of mystic fensibility and simplicity. This opinion was adopted by the famous GERSON, who laboured with the utmost zeal and assiduity in correcting and reforming the diforders and abuses that the scholastic divines had introduced into the feminaries $\lceil b \rceil$, as alfo by SAVANAROLA, PETRUS DE ALLIACO, and NICHOLAS CUSANUS, whose treatife concerning Learned Ignorance is still extant.

X. The litigious herd of schoolmen found a new Principally class of enemies equally keen, in the restorers of by the restorers of po-Eloquence and Letters, who were not all, however, lite literature and

[[]b] Rich. Simon, Lettres Choisies, tom. ii. p. 269. & Cri-eloquence tique de la Eibliotheque Ecclesiastique M. Du Pin, tom. i. p. 491.

—Thomasii Origines Histor. Philos. p. 56. and principally Gersonis Methodus Theologiam Studendi, in Launoii Historia Gymnas. Navarreni, tom. iv. opp. part I. p. 330.

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CENT. of the same opinion with respect to the manner of xv. treating these solemn quibblers. Some of them

PART II. covered with ridicule, and loaded with invectives,

the scholastic dostrine and demanded its suppression.

the scholastic doctrine, and demanded its suppression, as a most trisling and absurd system, that was highly detrimental to the culture and improvement of the mind, and every way proper to prevent the growth of genius and true science. Others looked upon this fystem as supportable, and only proposed illustrating and polishing it by the powers of eloquence, thus to render it more intelligible and elegant. this class was Paulus Cortesius, who wrote, with this view, a commentary on the Book of Proverbs, in which, as we learn from himfelf, he forms a happy union between eloquence and theology, and cloaths the principal intricacies of scholastic divinity with the graces of an agreeable and perfpicuous style $\lceil c \rceil$. But after all, the scholastic theology, supported by the extraordinary credit and authority of the Dominicans and Franciscans, maintained its ground against its various oppofers, nor could these two religious orders, who excelled in that litigious kind of learning, bear the thoughts of losing the glory they had acquired by quibbling and disputing in the pompous jargon of the fchools.

and also by XI. This vain philosophy, however, grew daily the Mythics more contemptible in the esteem of the judicious and the wise, while, at the same time, the Mystics gathered strength, and saw their friends and abettors multiply on all sides. Among these there were, indeed, certain men of distinguished merit, who are chargeable with sew of the errors and extravagancies that were mingled with the discipline and doctrine of that samous sect, such as Thomas a Kempis, the author of the Germanic theology, so highly commended by Luther, Laurentius, sustinianus,

[[]c] This work was published in folio at Rome in the year 1512, and at Basil in 1513.

SAVANAROLA, and others. There are, on the CENT. other hand, some writers of this fect, such as XIV. VINCENTIUS FERRERIUS, HENRICUS HARPHIUS, PARTIL and Bernard Senensis, in whose productions we must carefully separate certain notions which were the effects of a warm and irregular fancy, as also the visions of Dionysius, whom the Mydics consider as their chief, from the noble precepts of divine wifdom with which they are mingled. The Mystics were defended against their adversaries, the Dialectricians, partly by the Platonics, who were every where held in high offeem, and partly by some even of the most eminent scholastic doctors. The former confidered Dionysius as a person whose fentiments had been formed and nourished by the study of Platonism, and wrote commentaries upon his writings; of which we have an eminent example in MARCILIUS FICINUS, whose name adds a lustre to the Platonic school. The latter attempted a certain fort of affociation between the scholastic theology and that of the Mystics; and in this class were John Gerson, Nicholas Cusa-NUS, DIONYSIUS the Carthufian, and others.

XII. The controversy with the enemies of The state of Christianity was carried on with much more vigour polemic or controvering this than in the preceding ages, and several stal divinity. I learned and eminent men seemed now to exert themselves with peculiar industry and zeal in demonstrating the truth of that divine religion, and defending it against the various objections of its adversaries. This appears from the learned book of Marchius Ficinus, Concerning the Truth of Christianity, Savanarola's Triumph of the Cross, the Natural Theology of Raymond de Sabunde, and other productions of a like nature. The Jews were resulted by Perezius and Jerome de St. Foi, the Saracens by Johannes de Turrecremata, and both these classes of unbelievers were opposed by Alphonsus de Spina, in his work entitled,

CENT. The Fortress of Faith. Nor were these pious labours in the defence of the Gospel at all unseasonable or PART II. superfluous; on the contrary, the state of things at this time rendered them necessary. For, on the one hand, the Aristotelian philosophers in Italy seemed, in their public instructions, to strike at the foundations of all religion; and, on the other hand, the fenseless subtilties and quarrels of the schoolmen, who modelled religion according to their extravagant fancies, tended to bring it into contempt. Add to all this, that the Jews and Saracens lived in many places promiscuously with the Christians, who were therefore obliged, by the proximity of the enemy, to defend themselves with the utmost assiduity and zeal.

The schism between the Latins not yet healed.

XIII. We have already taken notice of the fruitless attempts that had been made to heal the and Greeks unhappy divisions that separated the Greek and Latin churches. After the council of Florence, and the violation of the treaty of pacification by the Greeks, Nicholas V. exhorted and intreated them again to turn their thoughts towards the restoration of peace and concord. But his exhortations were without effect; and in about the space of three years after the writing of this last letter, Constantinople was befieged and taken by the Turks. And from that fatal period to the present time, the Roman pontiffs, in all their attempts to bring about a reconciliation, have always found the Grecian patriarchs more obstinate and intractable than they were when their empire was in a flourishing state. Nor is this circumstance so difficult to be accounted for, when all things are duly confidered. obstinacy was the effect of a rooted aversion to the Latins and their pontiffs, that acquired, from day to day, new degrees of strength and bitterness in the hearts of the Greeks: an aversion, produced and nourished by a persuasion that the calamities they fuffered under the Turkish yoke might have been easily removed, if the western princes and the Roman CENT. pontists had not resused to succour them against their XV. haughty tyrants. And accordingly, when the PART II. Greek writers deplore the calamities that fell upon their devoted country, their complaints are always mingled with heavy accusations against the Latins, whose cruel insensibility to their unhappy situation they paint in the strongest and most odious colours.

XIV. We pass over in silence many trissing The intescontroversies among the Latins, which have no fort one and conof claim to the attention of our readers But we tests of the must not omit mentioning the revival of that famous Latins. dispute concerning the kind of worship that was to be paid to the blood of CHRIST, which was first kindled at Barcelona, in the year 1351, between the Franciscans and Dominicans, and had been left undecided by CLEMENT VI. [a]. This controversy was now renewed at Brixen, in the year 1462, by JACOBUS à MARCHIA, a celebrated Franciscan, who maintained publicly, in one of his fermons, that the blood, which CHRIST shed upon the cross, did not belong to the divine nature, and of confequence was not to be confidered as an object of divine and immediate worship. The Dominicans rejected this doctrine; and adopted, with fuch zeal, the opposite fide of the question, that JAMES of Brixen, who performed the office of inquisitor, called the Franciscan before his tribunal, and accused him of heresy. The Roman pontiff Pius II. having made feveral ineffectual attempts to suppress this controversy, was at last persuaded to submit the matter to the examination and judgment of a felect number of able divines. But many obstacles arose to prevent a final decision, among which we may reckon as the principal, the influence and authority of the contending orders, each of which had embarked with zeal in the cause

[[]d] Luc. Wadding! Annal. Minor. tom. viii. p. 58.—Jac. Ecchard! Scriptor. Predicator. tom. i. p. 650.

The matter, and determining on what fide the matter, and determining on what fide the matter, and determining on what fide the syet been offered to the pontiffs [e].

CHAPTER IV.

Concerning the rites and ceremonies used in the church during this century.

I. HE state of religious ceremonies among Rites of the the Greeks may be learned from the book of Greek church. SIMEON of Thessalonica, Concerning Rites and Ceremonies [f], from which it appears, that the substance of religion was lost among that people; that a splendid shadow of pomp and vanity was fubstituted in its place by the rulers of the church; and that all the branches of divine worship were ordered in fuch a manner as to strike the imaginations and captivate the fenses of the multitude. They pretended, indeed, to alledge feveral reasons for multiplying, as they did, the external rites and institutions of religion; and casting over the whole of divine worship such a pompous garb of worldly

[e] WADDINGI Annal. Minor. tom. xiii. p. 206.—NAT. ALEXANDER, Hift. Ecclef. Sæc. xv. p. 17.

[f] J. A. FABRICIUS gives us an account of the contents of this book in his Biblioth. Graca. vol. xiv. p. 54.

fplendor. But in these reasons, and in all the CENT. explications they give of this gaudy ritual, there is XV. much subtilty and invention, without the least PART II. appearance of truth or good sense to render them plausible. The origin of these multiplied rights, that cast a cloud over the native beauty and lustre of religion, is often obscure, and frequently dishonorable. And such as, by force of ill-applied genius and invention, have endeavoured to derive honour to these ceremonies from the circumstances that gave occasion to them, have failed egregiously in this desperate attempt. The deceit is too palpable to seduce any mind that is void of prejudice and capable of attention.

II. Though the more rational and judicious of Rites introduced in the Roman pontiffs complained of their overgrown the Latin multitude of ceremonies, festivals, temples, and the church. like, and did not feem unwilling to have this enormous mass somewhat diminished, they nevertheless distinguished, every one his own pontificate, by some new institution, and thought it their duty to perpetuate their fame by fome new edict of this nature. Thus CALINTUS III. to immortalize the remembrance of the deliverance of Belgrade from the victorious arms of MAHOMET II. who had been obliged to raife the fiege of that city, ordered, in the year 1456, the festivalin honour of the Transfiguration of Christ (which had been celebrated in some places by private authority before this period) to be religiously observed throughout all the western world. And SIXTUS IV. in the year 1476, granted Indulgences, by an express and particular edict, to all those who should devoutly celebrate an annual festival in honour of the immaculate conception of the bleffed Virgin, with respect to which none of the Roman pontiffs before him had thought proper to make any express declaration, or any positive

The other additions that were xv. made to the Roman ritual, relating to the worship Part II. of the Virgin Mary, public and private prayers, the traffic of *Indulgences*, and other things of that nature, are of too little importance to deserve an exact and circumstantial enumeration. We need not such a particular detail to convince us, that in this century religion was reduced to mere show, to a show composed of pompous absurdities and splendid trifles.

CHAPTER V.

Concerning the herefies fects and divisions that troubled the church during this century.

Manicheans and Waldenfes.

I. LEITHER the fevere edicts of the pontiffs and emperors, nor the barbarity and vigilance of the unrelenting inquisitors, could extirpate the remains of the ancient herefies, or prevent the rife of new fects. We have already feen the Franciscan order at open war with the church of Rome. In Bosnia, and the adjacent countries, the Manicheans, or Paulicians, who were the same with the fect named in Italy, Catharists, propagated their doctrines with considence, and held their religious assemblies with impunity. It is true, indeed, that the great protector of the Manicheans, Stephen Thomascus, king of Bosnia, abjured their errors, received baptism by the ministry of John

[g] See RAPH. VOLATERRANI Comment. Urlani, lib. viii. f. 289.—ÆNEAS SYLVIUS, De Statu Europæ fub Frederico III. cap. x. in Freheri Scriptor. rerum Germanicar. tom. ii. p. 104.

CARVAIALUS, a Roman cardinal, and, in confecent. quence thereof, expelled these heretics out of his dominions. But it is also certain, that he afterwards PART II. changed his mind; and it is well known, that, towards the conclusion of this century, the Manicheans inhabited Bosnia, Servia, and the neighbouring provinces. The Waldenses also still subsisted in feveral European provinces, more especially in Pomerania, Brandenburg, the district of Magdeburg and Thuringia, where they had a confiderable number of friends and followers. It appears, however, by authentic records, which are not yet published, that a great part of the adherents of this unfortunate fect, in the countries now mentioned, were discovered by the inquisitors, and delivered over by them to the civil magistrates, who committed them to the flames.

II. The Brethren and Sisters of the free Spirit (who Beghards, were called, in Germany, Beghards, or Schwestriones, Schwestriand in France, Turelupins, and whose distinctive hards, and character was a species of myslicism that bordered Adamites. upon frenzy) wandered about in a fecret and disguised manner in several parts of France, Germany, and Flanders, and particularly in Suabia and Switzerland, where they spread the contagion of their enthusiasm, and caught the unwary in their snares. The fearch, however, that was made after them was fo strict and well-conducted, that few of the teachers and chiefs of this fanatical feet escaped the hands of the *inquifitors* $\lceil h \rceil$. When the war between

[b] Felix Malleolus (whose German name is Haemmerlein) in his account of the Lollards, which is subjoined to his book Contra validos Mendicantes, i. e. against the sturdy Beggars, Oper. plug. c. 2. a. has given us a lift, though a very imperfect one, of the Beghards that were committed to the flames in Switzerland, and the adjacent countries, during this century. This author, in his books against the Beghards and Lollards, has (either through defign, or by a mistake founded on the ambiguity of the terms) confounded together three different classes of persons, who were usually known by the appellation of Vol. III. 3 M

CENT. the Hussites and the votaries of Rome broke out in XV. Bohemia in the year 1418, a troop of these fanatics, Part II. with a person at their head whose name was John,

repaired thither, and held fecret affemblies, first at Prague, and afterwards in different places, from whence they, at length, retired to a certain island, where they were less exposed to the notice of their enemies. It was, as we have already had occasion to observe, one of the leading principles of this fect, that the tender instincts of nature, with that bashfulness and modesty that generally accompany them, were evident marks of inherent corruption, fliewed, that the mind was not fufficiently purified nor rendered conformable to the divine nature, from whence it derived its origin. And they alone were deemed perfect by these fanatics, and supposed to be united to the Supreme Being, who could behold, without any emotion, the naked bodies of the fex to which they did not belong, and who, in imitation of what was practifed before the fall by our first parents, went stark naked, and conversed familiarly in this manner with males and females, without feeling any of the tender propenfities of nature. Hence it was that the Begbards, (whom the Bohemians, by a change in the pronunciation of that word called Picards) when they came into their religious affemblies, and were present at the celebration of divine worship, appeared absolutely naked, without any fort of veil or covering at all. They had also constantly in their mouths a maxim, which indeed, was very fuitable to the genius of the religion they professed, viz. that THEY WERE NOT FREE (i. c. sufficiently extricated from the shackles of the body) who made uje of the garments, particularly fuch garments as covered the thighs and the parts

Beghards and Lollards; as if, the Tertiaries, or third order of the more auftere Franciscans; 2dip, the Brethren of the free spirit; and 3dly, the Cellite or Alexian friars. Many writers have fallen into the same error.

adjacent. These horrible tenets could not but cast CENT. a deferved reproach up this abfurd feet; and though nothing passed in their religious assemblies that was PART II. contrary to the rules of virtue, yet they were univerfally fulpected of the most fcandalous incontinence, and of the most lascivious practices. Ziska, the austere general of the Hussites, gave credit to these fuspicions, and to the rumours they occasioned; and, falling upon this miferable feet in the year 1421, he put some to the sword, and condemned the rest to the flames, which dreadful punishment they sustained with the most cheerful fortitude, and also with that contempt of death that was peculiar to their fect, and which they possessed in a degree that seems to furpass credibility [i]. Among the various titles by which these extravagant enthusiasts were distinguished, that of Adamites was one; and it was given them on account of their being so studious to imitate the state of innocence in which the first man was originally created. The ignominious term of Beghards, or Picards, which was at first peculiar to

[i] See Jo. Lasitii Historia Fratrum Bohemorum, MS. lib. ii. & lxxvi. who proves, in a fatisfactory and circumstantial manner, that the Hullites and the Bohemian Brethren were entirely distinct from these Picards, and had nothing at all in common with them. The other authors that have written upon this fubject are honourably mentioned by Isaac DE BEAUSOBRE in his Differtation fur les Adamites de Loheme, which is subjoined to LENFANT'S Histoire de la Guerre des Hussites. This learned author is at valt pains in justifying the Picards, or Bohemian Adamites, whom he supposes to have been the same with the Waldenses, and a fet of men eminent for their picty, whom their enemies loaded with the most groundless accusations. But this is manifeltly endeavouring to wash the Æthiopian white. For it may be demonstrated, by the most unexceptionable and authentic records, that the account I have given of the matter is true. The refearches I have made, and the knowledge they have procured me of the civil and religious history of these times, entitle me perhaps to more credit in fuch a point as this, than the laborious author from whom I differ, whose acquaintance with the history of the middle age was but superficial, and who was, by no means, exempt from prejudice and partiality.

XV. applied to the Hussites, and to all the Bohemians

PART II who opposed the tyranny of the Roman church.

All these were called by their enemies, and indeed by the multitude in general, Picard friars.

The White Brethren.

III. A new fest, which made a great noise, and infected the multitude with the contagion of their enthusiasm, arose about the beginning of this century. A certain priest, whose name is not known, descended from the Alps $\lceil k \rceil$, arrayed in a white garment, and accompanied with a prodigious number of persons of both sexes, who, after the example of their chief, were also clothed in white linen, from whence they were distinguished by the name of Fratres Albati, i. e. White Brethren. This enthusiastic multitude went in a kind of procesfion through feveral provinces, following a cross, which their leader held erected like a standard, and by the striking appearance of their fanctity and devotion, captivated to fuch a degree the minds of the people wherever they went, that perfons of all ranks and orders flocked in crowds to augment their number. The new chief exhorted his followers to appeale the anger of an incenfed Deity, emaciated

Scotland that the fect came, and that their leader gave himself out for the prophet Elias. Signius and Platina inform us, that this enthusiast came from France; that he was clothed in white, carried in his aspect the greatest modesty, and seduced prodigious numbers of people of both sexes, and of all ages; that his followers (called penitents), among whom were several cardinals and priests, were clothed in white linen down to their heels, with caps which covered their whole saces, except their eyes; that they went in great troops of ten, twenty, and forty thousand persons, from one city to another, calling out for mercy, and singing hymns; that wherever they came, they were received with great hospitality, and made innumerable proselytes; that they sasted, or lived upon bread and water during the time of their pilgrimage, which continued generally nine or ten days. See Annal. Medicl. ap. MURATORI—NIEM.

**No. 10. **No. 20.
his body by voluntary acts of mortification and CENT. penance, endeavoured to persuade the European xv. nations to renew the war against the Turks in Palef- PART II. tine, and pretended, that he was favoured with divine visions, which instructed him in the will and in the fecrets of Heaven. BONIFACE IX. apprehending that this enthusiast or impostor concealed insidious and ambitious views [1], had him feized and committed to the flames; upon which his followers were dispersed, and his sect entirely extinguished. Whether a punishment so severe was inflicted with reason and justice, is a point that has been debated, and yet remains uncertain; for feveral writers of great credit and authority maintain the innocence of the fectary, while others affert that he was convicted of the most enormous crimes [m].

IV. In the year 1411, a fect was discovered in The men of Flanders, and more especially at Brussels, which understandowed its origin to an illiterate man, whose name was ing. ÆGIDIUS CANTOR, and to WILLIAM of HILDE-NISSEN, a Carmelite monk, and whose members were distinguished by the title of Men of underflanding. There were many things reprehensible in the doctrine of this feet, which feemed to be chiefly derived from the theology of the Myflics. For they pretended to be honoured with celestial visions, denied that any could arrive at a perfect knowledge of the Holy Scriptures without the extraordinary

[m] See LENFANT, Hist. du Concile de Pise, tom. i. p. 102. -Poggia, Historia Florentina, lib. iii. p. 122.—Marc. Anton. Sabellicu's in Enneadibus Rhapsodiæ Historicæ, Ennead. ix. lib. ix. tom. ii. opp. p. 839. published in solio at

Basil in the year 1560.

TI What Dr. Mosherm hints but obscurely here, is farther explained by Sigonius and Platina, who tell us, that the pilgrims, mentioned in the preceding note, stopped at Viterbo, and that Bonsface, fearing left the priest, who headed them, defigned by their assistance to feize upon the pontificate, fent a body of troops thither, who apprehended the false prophet and carried him to Rome, where he was burnt.

CENT. fuccours of a Divine illumination; declared the approach of a new revelation from heaven, more PART IL complete and perfect than the Gospel of CHRIST;

maintained, that the refurrection was already accomplished in the person of Jesus, and that no other refurrection was to be expected; affirmed, that the inward man was not defiled by the outward actions, whatever they were; that the pains of hell were to have an end, and that, not only all mankind, but even the devils themselves, were to return to God, and be made partakers of eternal felicity. This feet feems to have been a branch of that of the Brethren and fifters of the free spirit; fince they declared, that a new dispensation of grace and spiritual liberty was to be promulgated to mortals by the Holy Ghoft. It must however be acknowledged, on the other hand, that their abfurdities were mingled with feveral opinions, which shewed, that they were not totally void of understanding; for they maintained, among other things, " 1/t, that CHRIST alone had merited " eternal life and felicity for the human race, and "that therefore men could not acquire this inesti-"mable privilege by their own actions alone; 2dly, "that the priests, to whom the people confessed "their transgressions, had not the power of absolving "them, but that it was CHRIST alone in whom this "authority was vested; and 3dly, that voluntary " penance and mortification were not necessary to "falvation." These propositions, however, and fome others, were declared beretical by Peter D'AILLY, bishop of Cambray, who obliged WIL-LIAM of HILDENISSEN to abjure them [n], and opposed with the greatest vehemence and success the progress of this sect.

A new sect of Flagellantes, or

V. The fect of the Flagellantes, or Whippers, continued to excite commotions in Germany, more Whippers. especially in Thuringia and the Lower Sakony; but

[[]n] See the records of this transaction in Steph. Baluz, Miscellan. tom. ii. p. 277.

these fanatics were very different from the ancientcent. heretics of the same name, who ran wildly in troops through various provinces. The new Whippers PART II. rejected not only the facraments, but also every branch of external worship, and placed their only hopes of falvation in faith and flagellation; to which they added some strange doctrines concerning the evil spirit, and other matters, which are not explained with sufficient perspicuity in the records of antiquity. The person that appeared at the head of this fect in Thuringia was Conrad Schmidt, who, with many of his followers, was apprehended and committed to the flames [0], in the year 1414, by HENRY SCHONEFELD, who was, at that time, inquifitor in Germany, and rendered his name famous by his industry and zeal in the extirpation of herefy. NICHOLAS SCHADEN fuffered at Quedlingburg for his attachment to this fect. BERTHOLD SCHADE, who was feized at Halberstadt in the year 1481, escaped death, as appears most probable, by abjuring their doctrine $\lceil p \rceil$; and we find in the records of

[o] Excerpt a Monachi Pirnensis, in Jo. Burch. Menkinii Scriptor. rerum Germanicar. tom. ii. p. 1521.—Chron. Monaster. in Anton. Matth El Analed. vet. avi, tom. v. p. 71.—Chron. Magdeb. in Meibomii Scriptor. rerum German. tom. ii. p. 362. -From xvi articles of faith adopted by this fect, which were committed to writing by a certain inquisitor of Brandenborch in the year 1411, and which CONRAD SCHMIDT is faid to have taken from the papers of Walkenried, we may derive atolerable idea of their doctrine, of which the fubflance is as follows: That the opinions adopted by the Roman church, with respect to the efficacy of the sacraments, the flames of purgatory, praying for the dead, and several other points, are entirely false and groundless; and that the person, who believes what is contained in the Apostles' Creed, repeats frequently the Lord's Prayer, and the Ave Maria, and at certain times lashes his body severely, as a voluntary punishment of the transgressions he has committed, shall obtain eternal salvation.

[p] See the account of this matter which is given by the learned Jo. Ernest Kappius, in his Relat. de rebus Theologicis

Antiquis et Novis, A. 1747, p. 475.

CENT. these unhappy times a numerous list of the Flagel-XV. lantes, whom the German inquisitors devoted to the PART II flames.

END OF THE THIRD VOLUME.







