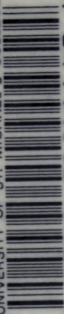
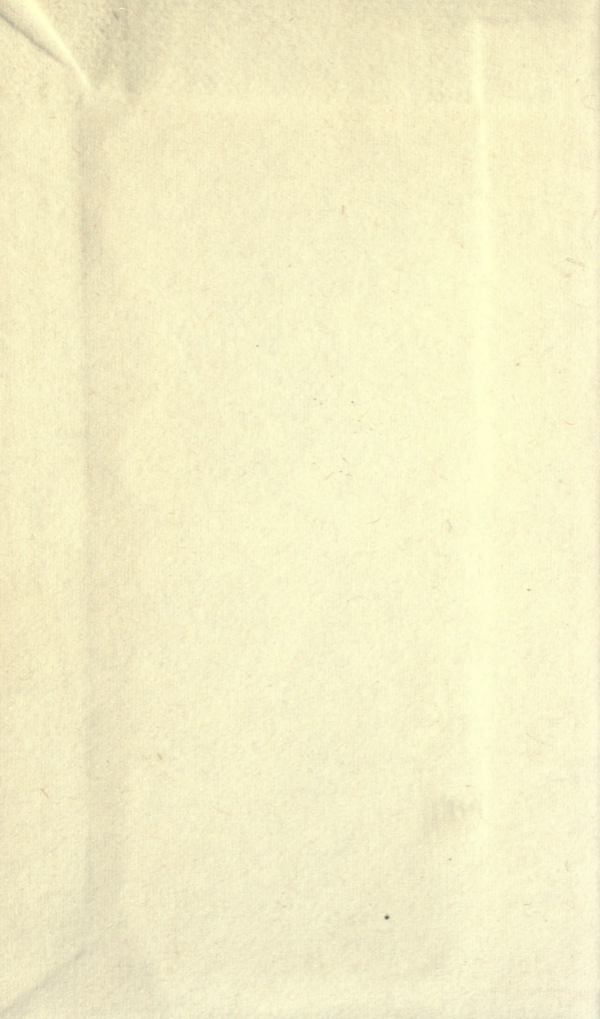


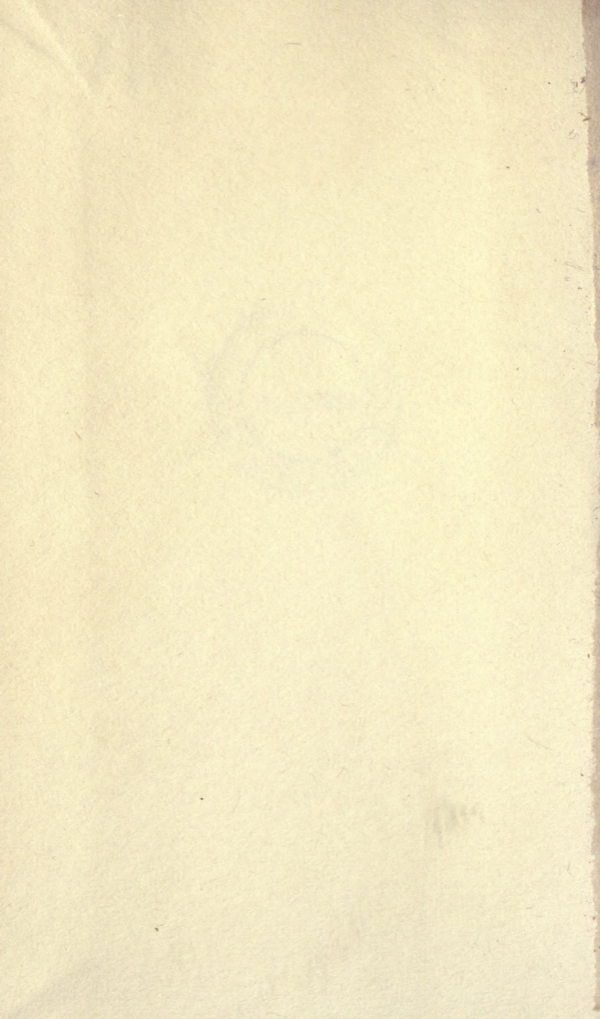
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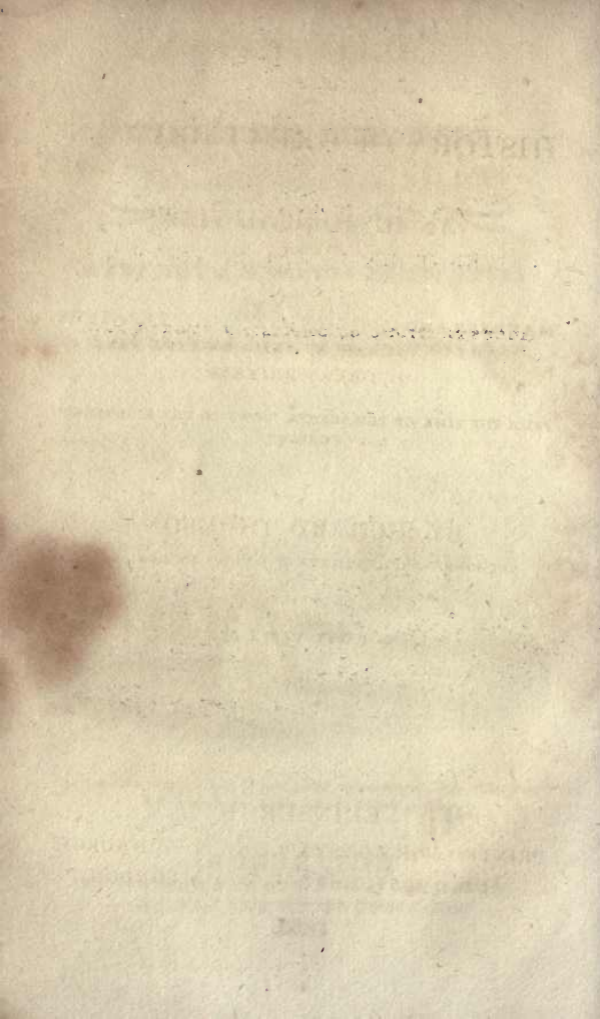
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Westminster Hall, Westminster Abbey, and St. James' Palace with the surrounding fields in the reign of Henry VIII.

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**ILLUSTRATIONS**  
**OF THE**  
**HISTORY OF GREAT BRITAIN:**  
**CONTENTS OF VOL. II.**  
**AN HISTORICAL VIEW**

**OF THE**  
**MANNERS AND CUSTOMS, DRESSES, LITERATURE,**  
**ARTS, COMMERCE, AND GOVERNMENT,**  
**OF GREAT BRITAIN ;**  
**FROM THE TIME OF THE SAXONS, DOWN TO THE EIGHTEENTH**  
**CENTURY.**

**BY RICHARD THOMSON,**  
**AUTHOR OF " CHRONICLES OF LONDON BRIDGE, " &c.**

**IN TWO VOLUMES.**

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**PRINTED FOR CONSTABLE & CO. EDINBURGH;**  
**AND HURST, CHANCE, & CO. LONDON.**

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**1828.**

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CONTENTS OF VOL. II.

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OF THE

BOOK II. THE SEVENTEENTH

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THE PRESS, GRAY & CO. LONDON.

1828

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CHAPTER I.

LAW AND GOVERNMENT OF ENGLAND FROM THE ROMAN INVASION TO THE CONFIRMATION OF MAGNA CHARTA.

1.—*Innovations and Changes effected by the Norman Government.*—There never was a more rapid and extensive change than that which took place in the government of England, soon after the entry of the Normans; for, by force of arms and forfeitures,—the consequences of ill-contrived revolts,—William I. soon became almost the sole

lord of the landed property of the nation, which gave him the power of introducing the Feudal System in its most rigorous form, to which he was attached both by habit and by policy. It is commonly supposed, that the institution of this system was derived from the military policy of the Northern nations, when a successful general bestowed portions of a subdued territory on his principal followers, who again divided them into smaller parts with the inferior soldiers, whence they received their ancient names of Feuds, Fiefs, and Fees, or rewards. They were to be held, however, by taking the Oath of Fealty to the chief by whom they were granted, and doing him faithful service both at home and abroad.

Before the arrival of William I., the lands of the Saxons were held chiefly in Socage or Burgage: that is to say, by a certain rent, or performance of certain services, either in husbandry or any others agreed upon, not military. On the invasion of the Normans, their leader having appropriated 1422 manors, with numerous forests, &c. for the support of the crown, he lavishly distributed to his followers the remainder of the country. Thus, to his nephew, Hugh de Abrincis, he gave the whole of Cheshire, to the Earl of Mortaigne, 970 manors, and 430 to Odo, Bishop of Bayeux, his half-brothers; whilst the Earl of Bretagne received 440, of Warren 298, Bigod 123, Gifford 107, of Clare 171, and Percy 119. These estates were now converted into Feudal Tenures, both towards the King as chief lord, and towards the Barons as inferior ones; thus establishing the ancient law maxim, that all lands were held directly or indirectly of the Sovereign. The distinction of these

tenures consisted in the nature of their services, as Chivalry or Knight-service, where the duty was free, but uncertain; Free Socage, where it was free, and certain; Pure Villeinage, where it was base, and uncertain; and Privileged Villeinage, where it was base base, but certain. Of these the most general was made Knight-service, in which the tenant of a whole fee, was bound to attend his lord to the wars for 40 days, in every year, if called upon. On receiving an estate, the tenant did public *Homage* to his chief, by kneeling before him, ungirt and uncovered, with his hands enclosed between those of his lord, whilst he professed, that "from that day forth he became his *man*, of life and limb, and earthly honour;" after which he took an oath of fealty, promising to be faithful, and to defend his lord against all his enemies. The reserved, or quitrents of these estates were not considerable, but the seven exactions attached to knight-services were often levied to an exorbitant and illegal amount, though most of them were regulated by the Great Charter. To give a very brief notice of them, they were as follows:—1. *Aids*, or voluntary grants from the tenant to his lord in times of difficulty or distress, arising from the good-will of the former. In time, however, they became established services, and were claimed at illegal times and to an unreasonable amount, whereas they were lawfully allowed but upon three great occasions; namely, the redemption of a chief's person, when he was made a prisoner of war, neglecting which incurred the forfeiture of an estate; making his eldest son a knight, a ceremony which was attended with considerable cost, and took place when he was fifteen years old; and

once marrying his eldest daughter, which could not be demanded before she was seven, and was intended to furnish a portion, that a military lord could raise by no other means. 2. *Reliefs* were another consequence of knight-service, which arose from the right that a superior lord held in an estate; for though it were granted to a tenant, it originally reverted to him at his death. And even after the heir was allowed some interest in the succession, he could not enter upon the property till he had performed his homage and paid a fine, a sum of money called a Relief, of about a fourth part of a year's rent. This payment, however, was so much disliked by the English, that William I. changed it into a gift of arms, &c., in imitation of the Heriots already mentioned. 3. The payment of *Premier Seisin*, or first possession, was taken only from those tenants who held directly of the King, or in chief; and it consisted in the Sovereign's claiming from the heir half a year's, or a year's profit of his lands; from which arose the Papal demand of First-fruits, as Lord of the Church territories. 4. The right of *Wardship* was intended as a recompense to a lord for the loss of his young tenant's service, originating in the same cause as the demands of Reliefs; and even about three centuries since, the claim of the lord of an estate to the guardian of the heir, extended to the exclusion of the uncle or grandfather. He was called the Guardian in Chivalry, and his power consisted in retaining the person and lands of such an heir till the age of twenty-one for a male, and fourteen for a female, without giving any account of the profits. All who held any lands in chief of the King were his Wards, and he had the power



of granting the custody of their persons and estates to such of his followers as he desired to favour. Whenever the heir was made a knight, he became free as to himself; but his lands remained in ward until he were of full age, and had performed his homage, and paid his relief. 5. The guardians of infant wards had also the right of *Marriage*, or the power of providing them with a proper alliance; which, if the infants refused, they forfeited so much as a jury would assign to their lord, and twice the sum if they married without his consent. This custom appears to have been established, that females should not unite themselves with their lord's enemy, and in Normandy the consent of the chief was required for their marriage; which probably gave rise to their selling of that consent, prohibited by Henry I., and which is once said to have produced 10,000 marks, 6666*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.*, equivalent to about 100,000*l.* of modern money. 6. A reciprocal agreement appears once to have existed between a lord and his tenants, that neither party should dispose of his territory without the consent of the other; but when the course of time had worn away the restraint on the lords, they still would not permit their tenants to alienate their lands without paying of a fine for alienation, which was frequently rated at an illegal amount. 7. The conclusion of a tenure, produced another feature incident to military fees, called *Escheat*, which implied the return of the whole property to the original lord, on the tenant dying without heirs of his blood, or on his having committed treason or felony. Knight-service also included keeping guard in the King's castles, and other duties; but

it was at length changed into a pecuniary satisfaction called Escuage, or Shield-money, which was paid by those who found it inconvenient to take the field, either in their own persons or by others. Whilst this tenure lasted, however, the King had always ready at his command, an army of 60,000 knights; who were bound, upon pain of losing their estates, to attend him in time of invasion, or to quell any domestic insurrection.

But whilst the Normans oppressed the English, and became possessed of their territories, they also frequently defrauded their own Sovereign of his rights, even from the very estates which he had bestowed upon them. To remedy this, and exactly to ascertain the service, &c. due from all his tenants, William I. is supposed to have ordered that famous survey of England, which is yet extant, and called the Domesday Book. It was undertaken by the advice and consent of a Great Council of the kingdom in 1080; and it was finished in 1086. The manner of performing it was by Commissioners, called the King's Justices, who were appointed to travel throughout England, and to register, upon the oaths of the Sheriffs, the lords of each manor, the priests of every church, the stewards of every hundred, the bailiffs and six villeins of every village—the names of the various places, their owners in the time of King Edward the Confessor, forty years before, the names of the then possessors, the quantity of the land, rank of the tenants, and several kinds of property contained in them: the returns being made to a board sitting at Winchester, where they were arranged and recorded. All the estates, too, were triply rated, viz. as they stood in the time of the Con-

fessor, as they were first bestowed by William I., and as they were at the time of the survey. The manuscript of this invaluable record consists of 20 volumes; the first a folio, including 31 counties, and 382 double pages of vellum; and the second a quarto of 450 pages, containing three counties, and part of two others. They are preserved in the Chapter-house at Westminster; but, until 1696, were kept in the Exchequer under three locks. A printed edition of the Domesday Book appeared in 1783, 2 vols. folio, which was perfected in 1816, by a third, containing similar records known under the same title, with very copious indexes, and an excellent introduction, by Henry Ellis, Esq., Principal Librarian of the British Museum.

Such were the changes in the national tenures of England; and those in the laws and government were equally extensive. The Saxon Courts were soon after left to decline, by the clergy being permitted to hold courts of their own, which is supposed to have been done by the King to ingratiate himself with the Ecclesiastics. The county courts, however, for a short time survived the Norman Invasion; but about 1085, the clergy were prohibited from taking their causes to it, and the Bishops and Abbots were ordered to sit there no longer; whilst the secular nobility gradually neglected it, which was sanctioned by a statute in 1267. Pleas of the Crown, or suits instituted by the Sovereign against all crimes, were removed from it, and held only by the King; and it at length became a Court held by the Sheriff for the trial of little causes, not exceeding forty shillings. Instead, therefore, of the ancient Gemots of the

Saxons, a constant court, upon a Norman model, was held in the royal residence, entitled "the King's Hall;" which, until the granting of Magna Charta, followed the Sovereign wherever he removed. Over this court presided the King himself, or his Justiciary in his absence; and it was composed of the Lord Marshal, who superintended matters relating to honour and arms, and the military laws; the Lord Chancellor, who kept the Royal Seal, and had cognizance of all letters, writs, and grants to which it was attached; the Lord Treasurer, who had the principal authority in affairs of the revenue; and certain persons, learned in the laws, called the King's Justices, all of whom were assisted by the greater barons of the realm. But instead of the ancient and equitable Trial by Jury, the Normans introduced their own impious and absurd custom of Trial by Battle, for the decision of all civil and criminal questions of fact in the last resort. Yet first the institution of a regular trial by Jury has sometimes been attributed to William I., though traces of it have been shown in the Saxon judicature. The Ecclesiastical Courts, as those of the Archdeacon, Bishop, and Archbishop, were also erected at the same time with the King's; and the appeal, which was allowed from the last of these to Rome, was not only extremely costly and dilatory, but also gave the Pontiff a plausible pretence for interfering in the internal government of the realm. Besides these, there were Courts held by the Barons in the halls of their castles, at which, however, only trivial causes were decided; but as the lesser Barons, held of the greater, and each claimed the right of keeping such a court, they became at

length very numerous. The King's Court, however, was possessed only of the executive power, since that of making laws and levying subsidies, belonged to the Great Council, which succeeded the Witenagemote, and was composed of the Prelates and the Sovereigns, greater Barons, or tenants in chief, below whom it is generally supposed that no persons were exempt, before the Parliament summoned by Simon Montford in 1265. This council is believed to have assembled thrice in the year without summons, but occasional meetings were called by the King's orders through his Sheriffs and Bailiffs; though he had no power of omitting any Baron who had a right to attend it, nor of introducing any below the required rank.

Another violent alteration of the English Constitution, consisted in the depopulation of whole districts to provide for the King's hunting, by establishing Forests, and subjecting them and the ancient woods of the nation to the continental servilities of Forest-law, whereby the slaughter of a beast was made almost as penal as that of a man. In the Saxon times, though no person was allowed to kill or chase the King's deer, yet he might start any game, pursue, and take it upon his own estate; but the sole property of all the game in England was now vested in the King, no one being allowed to disturb any fowl of the air, or beast of the forest, so reserved, without a royal grant of chase or free-warren; and even these licenses were given as much to preserve the breed as indulge the subject. It has been asserted, that the ancient additions of woodlands subjected to these laws were so great, that between the reigns

of Edward the Confessor and William I., nearly 17,000 acres were afforested in Hampshire; by which a piece of land amounting under the former sovereign to 363*l.* 19*s.* 10*d.*, was reduced under the latter to 129*l.*

The tolls and taxes imposed by William I., were also the causes of much discontent; since all his feudal sources of wealth are said to have produced daily the sum of 1061*l.* 10*s.* 1½*d.* from not more than 2,000,000 of persons. His most oppressive impost was a land-tax called Hidage, which was similar to the Danegelt already mentioned; but he also derived great sums from Forfeitures, Corporation-rents, the Moneyage, a tax of Norman origin, and paid to the King as an equivalent for not debasing the coin, considerable property extorted from the Jews, and fines. Of these latter exactions, there is no rating the amount, since they were so various, arbitrary, and extended. They consisted of sums of money anciently paid to delay or expedite law-proceedings, and secure favour. The county of Norfolk paid an annual composition to be "fairly dealt with;" the men of Gernemue paid 25 marks, 16*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.* to have the benefit of a charter given them by the King; William de Wile paid 80*l.* and 100 shillings, that he might have his lands, and be free of prosecution when accused of ravishing his ward; and Lucia, Countess of Chester, paid 5 marks of silver that she might not be compelled to marry for the next five years.

This very opulence, however, produced a lavish expenditure, which opened a way to privilege and freedom; for where Corporations were rich, they were enabled to buy from their lords the services

and reserved rents, which by custom he could demand, whereby the most important advances were made towards a free government. After London, Southampton stands first in the list of enfranchised cities; but historians are not agreed as to the time when a new species of constitution arose in England. About 1180, however, the Crown began to indulge large towns with immunities and privileges, on condition of receiving an annual rent or fine; by which the King was legally enriched, and the civic societies, protected from irregular taxations, increased in convenience and commerce. In some cases, also, the inhabitants of such places retained, from their insignificance, a portion of their ancient free tenures, together with the degraded Saxon Thegns, and the Ceorls who had not conspired nor fought against William. All the rest of the nation ultimately became villeins or bondmen; and even cities and towns were subjected to the restraint of the melancholy Curfew, at the sound of which all company was obliged to disperse, and all lights were to be extinguished.

The limits of these volumes, however, will allow but a very brief description of the oppressions which the Norman invasion introduced into England, and at length spread over the whole kingdom. But it has been doubted if all these evils are justly to be attributed to William I.; and most of his changes are considered to have been in the name, rather than the nature of the Anglo-Saxon establishments. The active and aspiring spirit of the Normans, is also thought to have quickened and civilized the indolent and barbarous Saxons; and even the Curfew—of which, it may be observed, that no very exact notion or information

exists, was an institution well known on the Continent, the time of its establishment was one of continual conspiracies, and eight o'clock, when it was rung, was the usual hour of all classes retiring to rest. With regard to the ancient English customs, too, William has been said rather to have studied their restoration than their subversion; since Ingulphus states, that he made the laws of Edward the Confessor the foundation of his own, and ordered them to be observed. He materially contributed to the abolishing of slavery, by protecting the lands of the servile, and preventing their doing any undue service; by setting forth an easy and public form for their emancipation; and by enacting, that if any of them lived a year and a day in any city, burh, walled-town, or castle, without being claimed, they should be entitled to perpetual freedom. This policy served to strengthen the Crown against the Barons; but many of William's statutes were well calculated for the public benefit, one being, that stamped weights and measures should be adopted throughout the realm, "as his good predecessors had used." The Saxon Chronicle also records of his general government, that "the good peace which he made in this land is not to be forgotten: so that a man who had property of his own, might go unhurt over the kingdom, with his bosom full of gold; and no man durst slay him, though he had done ever so much evil against him." Much of the excellence of his laws, however, was lost to the lower ranks of the English, by the proceedings of the King's Courts being carried on in Norman French, though, from the earliest period, the enrolments appear to have been made in Latin.



The Anglo-Normans used nearly the same punishments for offences as the Saxons; the most frequent being the loss of a limb, which might be redeemed by a fine, and hanging was also sometimes adopted. For smaller faults were used the tumbrel and pillory, exposures nearly similar; and the common places of execution appear to have been Smithfield, then a receptacle of soil and ordure, and the Elms at St Thomas à Waterings in the Kent-road.

The changes which had been made, however, by the Norman government, it is known, were fully sufficient to awaken the efforts of almost the whole nation to regain the ancient constitution, and shake off all which had been imposed by the force and policy of King William. To this point, the united power of the superior Barons was long and continually directed: and though the narrative of their exertions forms one of the most prominent and best known portions of English story, it is essential to the completion of the present sketch, that a brief account should be given of the *Rise and Establishment of the Charters of Liberties*, which will also comprehend the principal improvements of the English laws, as they were instituted in the different reigns.

2. Though the revival and confirmation of the Anglo-Saxon laws, formed alike the promise of the sovereign and the petition of the subject, it does not appear that there was any separate charter setting them forth until the famous one issued by Henry I., which was the foundation of all that succeeded. That which is sometimes attributed to William I., is only his collection of laws

in seventeen chapters already mentioned ; and William Rufus, though he promised to restrain the forest laws, provided he received the crown in preference to his brother Robert, yet when Archbishop Lanfranc recalled this to his recollection, he only replied, “ who is he that can perform all he promises ? ” and left him out of favour for the rest of his life. In fact this sovereign extended the forest laws ; and it is probable that many of the oppressions attributed to William I. were rather introduced by his son. When Henry I. came to the crown, he therefore found it expedient to ingratiate himself with the people, by restoring the laws of Edward the Confessor, which, however, consisted in his granting a charter giving up illegal exactions in marriage, wardship, and relief, though he reserved the military tenures for defence of the realm. He also abolished the *Couvre feu* : for, though it is mentioned in the laws for a full century afterwards, it is rather as a known time of night than as an existing custom. There is extant a collection of laws bearing his name, consisting partly of those of the Confessor, with great additions and alterations of his own ; and chiefly calculated for regulating the county courts. It contains some directions as to crimes and their penalties, theft being made capital in this reign ; and some ordinances concerning estates and their descent. The Saxon laws distributed them equally to all the sons, and the feudal Norman gave them only to the eldest, but Henry directed that the eldest son should have the principal estate, the remaining lands being equally divided. In ecclesiastical matters this King resigned the election of Bishops and Abbots, reserving only

the license, custody of their vacant estates, and homage; and he also united the ecclesiastical and civil courts, though they were soon finally separated by his Norman clergy.

Stephen, like the former sovereigns, supported his title chiefly by large promises, and his coronation oath was therefore almost a charter; since he swore to fill all the vacant bishoprics, leaving their possessions in the hands of a clerk, not to seize upon any person's woods, to make restitution of the usurped forests, and to abolish Dane-gelt. The bishops and nobles swore allegiance, whilst he maintained the privileges of the Church, and the covenants made with the Barons. The King published these liberties at Oxford in 1136; but soon after seizing the possessions of the See of Canterbury, the nation became involved in the anarchy of a civil war. In this reign were introduced the Civil and Canon Laws of Rome, and the practice of appeals.

As Henry II. quietly succeeded to the throne, he seems not to have made any of those promises concerning charters and liberties which so much involved his predecessors. His first actions were to destroy the Barons' fortified castles, to disband his foreign soldiers, and to resume the lands alienated from the crown; some of which measures were calculated to restore tranquillity to the kingdom. He then convened the national assembly at Wallingford, where it was decreed that the ancient laws of England should be restored; and he also confirmed the charter of liberties issued by his grandfather, King Henry I. The reign of this Sovereign also produced several great improvements in the statutes. The Great Charter of King John

and Henry III. frequently refer to the customs of this period, because, says Lord Coke, it was famous for a Privy Council, wise and learned in the laws of the realm; for a Sovereign, who carefully defended those laws and the rights of his crown; and for learned and upright judges, who acted according to those laws. Some of the feudal demands, however, appear to have been in common use; but the difficulty of dividing estates seems tacitly to have revived and established the primogenial order of succession. The dispute between the Clergy and the Barons, as to the supremacy of the national laws of England, or those of the Pope, was warmly continued throughout the whole of this reign, and was not concluded until that of Edward I.; but the constitutions of the Parliament of Clarendon, in 1164, considerably restrained the Pontifical and Ecclesiastical authority. The administration of justice was also now most importantly facilitated by the division of the kingdom into six circuits, and the establishment of travelling or itinerant judges, commonly called Justices in Eyre, who were appointed to try causes in the several counties, according to the ancient Saxon custom, and to prevent the great expense and delay of suitors being obliged to attend the King's Court wherever it might be held. At this time, too, personal military service was changed into the tax of Escuage already mentioned; which, in process of time, became the origin of the ancient parliamentary subsidies, and the land-tax of more modern times. King Henry also introduced and established the Grand Assize, or trial by a special kind of Jury in matters of right, instead of the trial by battle,

though the defendant still had his choice as to which he would be tried by.

The charter of Henry I. was again confirmed in 1175, after which it appears to have been forgotten, or, at least, all great proceedings concerning it to have been closed until the reign of John; since Richard I. was too much occupied with foreign hostilities, to allow of any opportunity for its consideration or revival. The martial spirit of this Sovereign, naturally attached him to the chase, and he therefore somewhat rigidly enforced the forest-laws; though Matthew Paris states, that he abolished the barbarous penalties of castration, dismemberment, and loss of eyes. His thoughts and his life, however, were principally occupied by his famous crusade to Palastine; and his reign was, therefore, characterised by few improvements in the English judicature, the most memorable being his compiling that celebrated body of naval regulations, called the Laws of Oleron, from their having been composed at that island, on the coast of France, then a part of the possessions of the British Crown.

The rigorous enforcement, and even unjust aggravation of the feudal tenures and forest-laws under King John, seem to have commenced that long and violent series of baronial insurrections, which was terminated only by the reduction of the English forests, and the last confirmation of Magna Charta. Historians, however, greatly differ as to this point. Dr Brady and his authorities affirm, that the restoration of the ancient Saxon laws was never matter of dispute between the King and his English subjects; but the vicious propensities of

John excited the Norman Barons to revolt. The Annals of Waverley ascribe their commotions to the oppressions of his Chief Justiciary, who governed the kingdom in 1213 whilst the King was absent in France; and Matthew Paris attributes them to the sudden discovery of a copy of the Charter of Henry I. As the accession of King John to the English throne, was an usurpation of the right of his nephew, Arthur of Bretagne; the better to support his cause, his friends promised the people of England that he should restore the ancient Anglo-Saxon laws, and renew the charter of Henry I. The former promise was repeated in 1213, when he recalled his banished ecclesiastics; but as the King delayed to perform it, in the following year a general meeting of the peers and clergy took place in St Paul's, when Stephen Langton, Archbishop of Canterbury produced a copy of King Henry's charter, and all who were present swore to support it. Another meeting to the same effect, took place at St Edmund's Bury in 1214, when the Barons determined to force John to confirm this instrument, and they accordingly demanded it early in 1215; it was not concluded, however, until June 15th on the plain of Runnemedes; but the charter then granted was far more copious and perfect than the one on which it was founded. It was called Magna Charta, or the Great Charter, not on account of its extent, for a single page of parchment, measuring  $20\frac{1}{2}$  inches by  $14\frac{1}{2}$ , contains the whole of its privileges; but because it recorded so many ancient rights of the nation, and abolished so many unjust oppressions. But it did not as it is generally, though erroneously supposed, take away any lawful ser-

vices, &c. due from the subject, or confer any entirely new liberties. It only declared the ancient and equitable laws of England; defined the relative duties of the sovereign and subject, took away all the illegal grievances connected with feudal tenures, crown-debts, fines, and provisions for the King's Court; and above all, which alone might have procured it the name of Magna Charta, it declared that no freeman should be seized or imprisoned, or dispossessed, or outlawed, or in any way destroyed or condemned, unless by the legal judgment of his peers, or the law of the land; adding, that justice should be neither denied, sold, or delayed. Its other provisions were, confirming many old liberties of the church; fixing the forfeiture of lands for felony, as it still remains, prohibiting the right of exclusive fisheries, and the erection of bridges, so as to distress the neighbourhood; establishing the testamentary power of the subject over part of his personal estate, the rest being secured to his widow and children; settling the law of Dower, as it has ever since remained, and preventing the appeals of women, unless for the death of their husbands. In matters of public concern, it enjoined an uniformity of weights and measures; protected merchant strangers, and prohibited the alienation of lands, whereby the owner should lose his service. It settled the Court of Common Pleas in a "certain place," that the suitors might not be obliged to follow the King in all his progresses, making the administration of justice yet more easy by directing assizes in proper counties, and establishing annual circuits; it also reformed some evils in the trials by battle and wager of law, pro-

hibited the King's inferior officers from trying criminal charges, which might have brought unlawful forfeiting to the Exchequer; regulated the holding of inferior Courts of Justice, and confirmed all the corporate liberties throughout the kingdom. The finest and most perfect original of this charter in existence, is preserved in the archives of Lincoln cathedral; according to the ancient but defective method of recording important documents, used in England, of depositing one or several copies, in the books and libraries of religious houses. The best explanation of Magna Charta, is that most curious and copious one contained in the second part of Sir Edward Coke's Institutes; though it is not adapted to the grant of King John, but to the third charter of Henry III, which has numerous alterations and improvements, and is dated February 11th 1225.

The short remainder of King John's reign was spent in vexation, for having yielded this Charter, and in hostile proceedings against his Barons to effect its abolition; though he had already executed a covenant to resign into their hands the City and Tower of London, until all their demands were complied with. In the midst of mutual distrust and violence, the King died suddenly at Newark, October 19th 1215, his successor being only ten years old. The Great Seal had been lost in John's fatal journey through the Washes at Lincoln; but William Marshall, Earl of Pembroke, having been appointed Protector of Henry III., sealed, on his behalf, an amended copy of Magna Charta, November 12th 1216, another being issued in the year following. In 1217, also, first appeared the Charter of the Forests, though it is erroneously



supposed that such an instrument was first issued by King John, from a fictitious copy given by Matthew Paris; but the original, marked as such, was discovered some years since in the Archives of Durham Cathedral. Like the Great Charter, this grant is also only a restoration of the ancient English law; and provides, that illegal forests shall be destroyed; that persons shall not be forced to attend forest-courts without cause; that private Woods shall be enjoyed by the owners; that unlawful forest-fees and fines shall not be taken; that loss of life or limb, for taking venison, shall be abolished; and that outlaws for forest-offences shall be reconciled on security. It also regulates the holding and proceedings of forest-courts and officers; the pasturage, dogs, and agricultural alterations of private property in the King's Woods, and gives liberty of hunting to certain nobles attending the King.

When Henry became of age, and was empowered to act as Sovereign, for a supply from his Parliament, he renewed both these Charters, dated February 11th 1224, with several improvements; and these form the editions usually printed in the Statute book, all those subsequently issued being only confirmations, reciting them at length. Copies were sent into every county with commissioners to enforce their performance; but in 1226, he recalled the Forest Charter, under pretence that it was granted before he had full power over the Great Seal. In 1236, and again in 1253, the Charters were republished as a compensation for two supplies granted to the King; and, in the latter year, the famous assembly took place in Westminster Hall, where all the Lords, both spiritual

and temporal, attended with tapers, to excommunicate such as should oppose the Charters, whilst Henry vowed to keep them inviolate, as he was a Man, a Christian, a Knight, and a King crowned. There was, however, but little more effected towards establishing the Charters; but in 1264, when the Baronial Civil Wars had placed both Henry and his son Edward in the power of Simon de Montfort, Earl of Leicester, to procure the Prince's liberty, the King sealed a confirmation Charter, March 14th 1264. This was the last issued by Henry III.; but notwithstanding these repeated grants, the lower ranks of society, during the thirteenth century, appeared to have gained but little from the efforts of the Barons. Burgesses were considered as an order so far below them, that if the guardian of an heir married his ward to such, it was held a disparagement, which might be recovered at full age, and was attended with loss of the wardship. A great degree of slavery also still continued to prevail; for it is recorded in the Annals of Dunstable, A. D. 1283, that "this year we sold our slave by birth, William Pyke, and all his family, and received one mark,—13s. 4d.—of the buyer." Some legal improvements, however, were effected under Henry III. Simon de Montfort is supposed to have established a national representation in Parliament, though it was afterwards laid aside for some years; several acts were passed, facilitating appeals to the King from the Barons, and preventing cruelty in taking distresses; the Saxon trials by Ordeal were totally abolished; the common law was improved and regulated by the establishment of Inns of Court, and by a statute which imposed a fine on lawyers for ab-

surd and foolish pleading. Towards the latter end of this reign, too, is found one of the earliest writs for summoning the Commons to Parliament ; whilst the Magna Charta of King John contains the first traces of a separation between the orders of Barons in the Great Council of the kingdom.

The Charters of liberties appear to have lain neglected until 1297, when Edward I. was about to make war on Philip King of France ; but before his departure, the nobles and commons of the realm addressed him with a remonstrance on existing national grievances, and several violations of Magna Charta. He promised redress on his return, and published a proclamation commanding the great Charter to be observed ; but in October 1298, Prince Edward, who was Regent in his father's absence, issued, in full Parliament, a confirmation Charter on his behalf, which the King sealed at Ghent. He was required again to renew this act on his return to England ; and, after deferring it until the conclusion of his expeditions against France and Scotland, he once more confirmed the Charters in a Parliament at London, March 8th 1299, and issued writs to the English Sheriffs commanding their observance. He also sent out other letters to the Sheriffs, written both in the Latin and Norman-French, to be published in all cities, boroughs, and market-towns ; which stated, that he considered himself too hardly pressed by the complaints of his subjects, his delay being occasioned by many difficult affairs which would soon be brought to a close, after which the forests should be surveyed. The Perambulators or Commissioners appointed to inquire into their boundaries, and reduce them to their ancient extent, assembled at

Michaelmas 1299, executed their survey in the following summer, and their returns were finally confirmed by a Parliament which met at Lincoln, January 29th 1301, upon the attestations of the King's Justices, a Jury, and the principal forest-officers. The King gave his sanction to these proceedings on the 14th of February, and they indisputably fixed the future limits of the forests. At the same time, too, was issued the last confirmation of the Charters; which, Sir Edward Coke observes, have been established by thirty-two separate Statutes of Parliament.

## CHAPTER III.

LAW AND GOVERNMENT OF ENGLAND, FROM  
THE REIGN OF EDWARD I. TO THE END OF THE  
INTERREGNUM.

SIR MATTHEW HALE, esteemed King Edward I. to be the Justinian of England, in the first thirteen years of whose reign, namely, from 1272 to about 1285, "more was done to settle and establish the distributive justice of the kingdom than in all the ages since that time put together." Greater even as a legislator than as a conqueror, beside his effectual confirmation of the charters of liberties, he restrained the usurpations of the Pope and his clergy, by limiting and establishing ecclesiastical jurisdiction; and obliging the Ordinary, to whom, all the goods of persons dying without a will, anciently belonged, to discharge the debts of the deceased, before part of them were appropriated to the Church. He established Justices of the Peace, and perfected the arrangement of several temporal Courts of the highest jurisdiction, as the King's Bench, Exchequer, and Common Pleas; and probably completed the institution of Judges of Assize, and their circuits. He settled the boundaries of inferior courts in counties, hundreds, and manors; confining them to causes of less amount,

according to their original institution. He abolished all arbitrary taxes, &c. levied without the consent of the Great National Council; and resigned the unlawful prerogative, of sending mandates to the Judges, to interfere in private causes; though he has been censured as claiming too much for Royal privilege, and for his ministers having affirmed, that the Sovereign was above the law. He settled the form, solemnities, and effect of those instruments called Fines, used in conveying estates, and known before the Norman invasion. He first established a repository for the public records of the realm, few of which are older than the time of Henry III., and those were by him collected. He improved upon the laws of King Ælfred, by his order for watch and ward in all towns, from sunset to sunrise, established by the statute of Winchester. He settled and reformed many evils incident to tenures, and removed some restraints on the disposal of landed property by the statute called "Quia Emptores," which made the original tenure follow the land, however it might be disposed of. He instituted a more speedy way of recovering debts, by granting execution upon lands as well as goods. He effectually proceeded against the landed property of the kingdom being wholly absorbed by religious societies and ecclesiastics, or other bodies which rendered no service for it, contrary to the ordinance of Magna Charta; and even his wars in Wales and Scotland seem to have originated in a desire of improving the government of England by uniting Great Britain into one kingdom.

The best proof of the excellence of King Edward's constitutions, is, that the scheme which he

settled for the administration of justice between two parties, has remained to the present period with those alterations only which the difference of times has required. The forms of writs for commencing of actions, which were perfected in this reign, became models for posterity; the treatises of Britton, Fleta, &c. were held as law until the feudal tenures were abolished; and the forms of legal proceedings remained almost entirely unaltered through two centuries and ten reigns, down to the time of Henry VIII.

The ancient Gothic privilege of electing the principal subordinate magistrates, the sheriffs and conservators of the peace, was taken from the people under Edward II. and III.; Justices of the Peace being instituted for the latter. It is common, too, to assign the present construction of Parliament, as to a distinction of Lords and Commons, to the reign of Edward III.; but on this point historians are not unanimous; some finding traces of it as early as about 1283, and others observing it between 1314 and 1327.\* Wherever this separation took place, the Bishops, Abbots, and Priors, were ranked and summoned with the Earls and Barons, whilst the Archdeacons and Deans answered to the Knights of shires, being

\* It may be remarked in this place, that of all the Peerage titles that of an Earl is the oldest, after which the Barons included the whole of the nobility and the great council thereof. The first Duke since the Norman invasion, was Edward the Black Prince, made Duke of Cornwall by Charter, March 17th 1377; the first Marquess was Robert de Vere, Earl of Oxford, created Marquess of Dublin in 1384; and the first Viscount who sat in Parliament by that title, was John Beaumont, made Viscount Beaumont in 1439.

called by the Bishop as the Knights were by the Sheriff. The representatives of the cathedral priests and inferior clergy were called the "Spiritual Commons," and corresponded to the representatives of cities and burghs. One of the first acts of this assembly was a statute for defining and ascertaining treasons; and in 1362, it ordered that law-proceedings should be held in the English tongue, and enrolled in the Latin, instead of French, which custom existed until the Protectorate of Cromwell. Under Edward III. also, much was done for the advancement of domestic manufactures, as well by prohibiting the exportation of English wool, and the importation of foreign cloth and furs, as by encouraging the clothworkers of other countries to come over and settle in this nation. Commerce in general was also improved, by merchants being permitted to pledge their lands as security for the payment of their debts, which enlarged their credit; and, as personal wealth increased, administrators were appointed to persons who died intestate, to distribute their property to their kindred and creditors, instead of leaving it wholly to ecclesiastical officers. The laws also effected something to the advance of the Reformation, which the writings and preaching of Wicliffe had already commenced. The Statutes of Præmunire, for suppressing the Papal power, were enacted in this and the ensuing reign; whilst the overgrown possessions of some monasteries were changed into vicarages, for the support of a laborious parochial clergy. In this reign, there existed a singular sort of Court, called "the Triers of Petitions," the members of which were appointed by the King, to examine into every petition



presented to Parliament, and to reject such as appeared trivial. But with all these improvements, the Judges of this period are recorded to have been so corrupt, that a general trial of them took place in 1289. One of the most guilty was Sir Adam de Stratton, who was fined in a sum equal to 340,000*l.* sterling; and, though the remainder were heavily mulcted, the practice was not discontinued.

The government subsidies were usually raised by Parliament, which assigned a Tenth or a Fifteenth of the value of every person's moveable goods, estimated by four Knights, chosen at each county Court; but exempting such property as was sacred or essential to a person's living, as the ornaments of churches, the books of the clergy, the horse and arms of a knight, and the agricultural implements of the husbandman. These rates, which were at first uncertain, but afterwards became fixed, could be ordered by Parliament only, as provided by Magna Charta; though Edward III. considered his own power sufficient to levy them. The disturbed reign of Richard II., which presents no particular alteration in the constitution, was characterised by a heavier tax to pay the army; the collecting of which led to the notorious rebellion of Wat Tyler. It was a poll-tax, which curiously illustrated the relative value of different classes of society. Thus, a Duke was rated at 10 marks, 6*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.*; a Judge at 5*l.*; a Countess Dowager at 4*l.*; a Baron, Banneret, or opulent Knight, and a Serjeant-at-Law at 2*l.*; a rich Bachelor or Esquire at 20 shillings; the Mayor of London at 4*l.*; an Aldermen at 2*l.*; other Mayors at 2*l.* or 20 shil-

lings; great merchants at 8s. 4d., and inferiors from 4s. 8d. to 3s. 6d.; yeomen, farmers, dealers, &c. from 6s. 8d. to 1 shilling; married advocates, &c. 2*l.*; attornies, &c. 2*l.* to 6s. 8d.; every married man for himself and his wife 4d., and every single man, or maid above 16, 4d. Before closing this subject it may be observed, that Richard's favourite plan of raising supplies was by loan; in which London was rated at 10,000 marks, or 666*l.* 13s. 4d.; York, Gloucester, Salisbury and Lincoln, at 200 each, or 133*l.* 6s. 8d.; Cambridge, Canterbury and Southampton, at 100 each, or 66*l.* 13s. 4d.; Bristol at 800, or 533*l.* 6s. 8d.; Norwich at 500, or 333*l.* 6s. 8d.; Lynn at 400, or 266*l.* 13s. 4d.; Bath, Derby and Lichfield, at 20 each, or 13*l.* 6s. 8d.; and Harwich and Liskeard at 10 each, being 6*l.* 13s. 4d.

The principal legal improvement of the fifteenth century was, that the power of every department of the judicature became more accurately defined, though they experienced no very considerable alteration. The royal authority, consisted chiefly in a power of suspending or dispensing with the execution of certain penal statutes, which originated in the time of Henry III.; but the Sovereign could neither repeal nor alter any law which had passed the Parliament. Of the Feudal customs, Wardship and Purveyance, or taking up provision for the Royal Household at a certain rate, still existed, though they were exercised in a much more moderate degree than was the ancient custom. The latter prerogative, however, gave the King power to impress for his service, not only soldiers and mariners, but musicians, goldsmiths, embroiderers, and various sorts of artificers.

The Parliament of England, appears now to have assumed a decided character, and the qualifications and privileges of its members become more accurately known and distinguished. Knights of the Shire were required to possess 40*l.* of annual rent; but physical and constitutional strength were also considered essential to their office, as the writs of this period directed the electors to make choice of the wisest and stoutest men, that they might be able to endure the fatigues of journeying and close attendance. Ever since the Commons had been represented in Parliament, they and their servants had been privileged from arrest during the time of their actual attendance and travel, and paid for their services. The Peers came to Parliament at their own charges; but towards the close of the fourteenth century, Knights of Shires received four shillings daily, and Burgesses two shillings; which may be estimated at ten times their amount in modern value. The Sheriffs' influence in returning members being very extensive, was frequently misused; though their misconduct was liable to action at the Assizes, and to fine and imprisonment on conviction. It is, however, stated of them, in an Act passed in 1444-45, that sometimes they made no proper election of knights, &c.; sometimes issued no return at all; and sometimes returned such as had never been elected. The Parliaments of this period seem very frequently to have been of brief duration, since they often had only one session; and the memorable one which, in 1399, deposed King Richard II. and placed Henry of Bolingbroke upon his throne, sat but a single day, September 30th. Those ecclesiastical Parliaments

called Convocations of the Clergy, were summoned and met as regularly as the national assembly; and the Prelates were still directed to attend and consult with the Nobles. They were also ordered, to direct their Deans and Archdeacons to attend in person, each Chapter sending one Proctor, and the Clergy of each Diocess two Proctors, to *consent* to those things, which should be ordained by the Common Council of the kingdom; thus showing that they were scarcely considered as a part of the Spiritual Commons. They, however, received pay, and partook of the privileges of Parliament; but the Ecclesiastical legislature, extended no farther than levying the taxes of the Clergy, all their decrees requiring the consent of Parliament to establish them.

There appear to have been few alterations or improvements, effected either in the laws or the Courts of England, during the fifteenth century; and the former were in general but ill-executed. The number of Judges at Westminster was uncertain; but under Henry VI. there were once so many as eight Judges in the Court of Common Pleas, each of whom made oath that he would "take no fee, pension, gift, reward, or bribe, from any man having a suit or plea before him, excepting meat and drink, which should be of no great value." To the close of the fourteenth century, however, is attributed the rise of the Court of Equity in Chancery. In the ancient English judicature, when a person supposed himself greatly injured by a sentence in a Supreme Court of Law, he petitioned the King for redress, as the fountain of justice, or to the Lord Chancellor, after the Sovereign ceased to administer right in his own

person. The popularity and success of this proceeding, gave rise to a Court of Relief, which was extremely disagreeable to the practisers of the Common Law; who, by their interest in the House of Commons, procured a petition against it from the Parliament to Edward IV. in 1474. At this period, however, all the Lord Chancellors of England were Ecclesiastics; and their influence defeated all attempts made against the establishment of this Court.

The imperfect administration of justice in the fifteenth century, arose partly from the very small salaries paid the Judges: those of the Chief Justices not exceeding 1600*l.* and 1300*l.* of present value, beside their robes; and those of the others being equal to 1000*l.* On this account, in 1439 they petitioned the King, stating that they must resign their office unless their pay were increased. But there were also corruptions existing, which they had no means of putting down. The Clergy, by their exemptions, had become superior to the law; and their privilege of sanctuary was carried to a great and dangerous extent, such places of security being very numerous throughout the realm, and sheltering the vilest criminal and most unprincipled debtor. Perjury also so widely flourished, that the Clergy of Canterbury in convocation, affirmed, in 1439, that great numbers of persons had no other means of subsistence, than the hiring themselves as witnesses, or taking bribes when they were on juries. Another corruption of the time, was a confederacy called Maintenance, in which several persons united under one head, whose livery they wore, to defend each other in all claims and pleas, whether just or

unjust; and laid all the quiet persons round them under contribution not to vex them by lawsuits. All these evils, however, seem to have arisen out of the civil wars and commotions of the times, which impeded the regular course of justice. The principal authority was a sort of military government vested in the Lord High Constable, who was empowered by commission to put any persons to death "summarily and absolutely, without noise or form of judgment," whenever he himself was convinced of their guilt. Their conviction was sometimes procured by torture with fire or the rack, which is said to have been invented by the Duke of Exeter, on which account that in the Tower of London was called his Daughter. But notwithstanding the very unfavourable times, the national law appears to have been both studied and practised to some extent: since in the reign of Henry VI. there were 2000 students belonging to the Inns of Court; and in 1455 an Act was passed to limit the number of attornies, as they had become so numerous in Norfolk and Suffolk, that they were restricted to six each, with two for the city of Norwich.

The memory of Richard III., is commonly held in such great execration, that the benefit of his excellent laws are almost entirely forgotten. He was the first monarch, however, who directed his statutes to be enrolled in English; and he also at once encouraged the rising art of typography, and conferred a most valuable gift on the nation by ordering them to be printed. The very first act of his reign, too, abolished the loans of money called Benevolences; wherein the King named the sum which was frequently extorted by force.

When this act, however, was pleaded by the citizens of London against Cardinal Wolsey, they were most unreasonably answered that "Richard being an usurper, and the murderer of his nephews, the laws of so wicked a man ought not to be enforced. The nation was also indebted to this sovereign for acts enabling justices of peace to take bail; for encouraging the British fisheries; and for the protection of English manufactures, by which aliens were not permitted to exercise a retail trade, nor import any goods that were made in England.

Even at this late period of history, slavery had not wholly ceased to exist in Britain, and did not entirely disappear until after the accession of Henry VII. The villeins, who might be transferred with estates, were still very numerous; though they were chiefly to be found on the peculiar lordships of prelates and great nobles. They had still neither interest in any separate property, nor power to sue their owners for any injury; but they were free from taxation, because they had no possessions of their own to pay it. Some landed proprietors, however, preferred employing free labourers upon their estates; and the House of Commons procured many laws to be made, for increasing their number and regulating their payment. By one of these, no man who had not an estate of twenty shillings yearly, equal to about 10*l.* at present, could put his son to any other occupation than agriculture; and no one who had been so engaged, until he was twelve years old, could afterwards follow any other employment. But even under all its evils, and at the conclusion of the longest and most sanguinary civil war in the annals of Britain, Philip de Commines could still

voluntarily say of this nation, at the close of the fifteenth century, "Of all the countries of Europe where I was ever acquainted, the government is no where so well managed, the people no where less exposed to violence and oppression, nor their houses less liable to the desolations of war, than in England; for there the calamities fall only upon the authors."

The wars between the Houses of York and Lancaster, which so occupied the regal power as to leave it no leisure for juridical improvement, were partly the occasion of the loss of those dominions in France, which anciently belonged to the English crown; after which the sovereigns of Britain were more immediately turned to the affairs of their own nation. The great characteristic of King Henry VII., was the amassing of wealth, to which end were all the alterations and revivals in the laws; his ministers being more assiduous in discovering old and obsolete penal statutes on which to frame prosecutions and to extort fines, than in framing any new beneficial regulations. To this end the court of Star-chamber was remodelled, and armed with great and dangerous powers; in which informations might be received, instead of indictments at the sessions and assizes, for the increase of fines and pecuniary penalties. It consisted of twenty-six members, principally of the privy council; and such as have defended it assert, that it was instituted to repress the riots of disbanded soldiers, who were frequently left loose upon the country without either pay or quarters; or that it was useful to govern those who were *too stout* for the ordinary course of justice. It is supposed to have derived its name either from the



stars, which adorned the walls of the apartment, or from those Jewish covenants called Stars having been deposited within it. The fines of this court were so severe and interesting, that places were sometimes taken for the auditors by three in the morning.

The reigns of this and the following sovereigns, however, put a period to two degrees of persons, which, though in direct opposition as to rank, were alike inconsistent in good government and moral happiness. These were the greater peers, who had formerly been the proud opposers of the royal power, and the villeins who might be transferred with the land on which they laboured. The number of the former, had been considerably weakened by that destruction which the civil wars had brought upon the ancient noble families; and Henry VII. was so far from evincing any inclination to restore them, that he contrived even to lessen their reputation by an act against retainers, and the statute of fines, which rendered real estates more easily alienated or forfeited. The nobles, were also still farther reduced by Henry VIII., who, on the dissolution of monasteries, deprived twenty-six abbots and two priors of their seats in the House of Peers. With respect to the servile part of the nation, though it was very considerably diminished even by the commencement of the sixteenth century, yet a bill which, in 1526, was brought into the House of Lords to emancipate the lower ranks of society, was read thrice in one day and rejected.

At this period, the sessions of Parliament were seldom longer than five or six weeks, and some-

times much shorter ; but there were frequently two meetings in the day, one about eight or nine o'clock in the morning, and another at two in the afternoon ; from which no member could be absent without a heavy fine, or license from the King, and naming some persons to act on his behalf. Some of the laws which emanated from this assembly, were so perfectly contradictory, that those who observed one were inevitably guilty under another : as when in 1537, it was declared treason to assert the validity of the marriage of Henry VIII. with Catherine of Arragon or Ann Boleyn ; which statute remained unrepealed, when, within seven years, another made it equally treasonable to speak slanderously of their issue, the Princesses Mary and Elizabeth. Nor would danger be averted by remaining silent, since treason was imputed to all who would not answer on oath whether he thought those Princesses were lawfully born. To Henry VIII., indeed, the Parliament generally yielded an unreserved acquiescence ; yet his levies on the property of his subjects, during the six years, when dissatisfied with the Parliamentary grants, he ceased to solicit them, were far greater extensions of his arbitrary power. In 1526, however, his attempt to raise a sixth on the goods of the laity, and one-fourth on those of the clergy, without the sanction of Parliament, occasioned an insurrection ; though it was quelled without bloodshed, as he recalled his commissioners and resigned his project.

Two of the greatest political evils of this reign, were the overbearing conduct of the courtiers, and the known perjury of juries, which so greatly perverted the administration both of the civil and

criminal law. Of the former rather a curious instance has been cited from the Life of Stow, which states that the garden-house of a London citizen, happening to obstruct the view of Sir Thomas Cromwel, it was loosened from the foundation, mounted on rollers, and carried 22 feet farther off, without the owner's permission or even his knowledge. The persons who removed it only named their employer, and, it is added, "none durst argue the matter;" the citizen continued to pay his old rent for his garden, though one-half of it was taken away. The charge of perjury in jurors, is, however, yet more serious, since even a statute 1495-96, states it to be "much and customarily within the city of London," which is also remarked by many others. Indeed the jurors of the metropolis became both notorious and proverbial, since their fame is commemorated in the saying of "London juries hang half and save half;" Cardinal Wolsey declared that they would find "Abel guilty of Cain's murder;" and a statute to punish petty juries for false verdicts, directs that half the Grand Jury for trial of a foreigner shall be strangers, and not Londoners.

But the reign of Henry VIII. will always be a very distinguished era, in the annals of the British Judicature, since it produced several very eminent improvements in the Law, and the redress of several grievances, which existed in the Constitution; and, firstly, the Reformation, for it abolished the Pontifical power in England, and restored the Crown to its ancient ecclesiastical supremacy, the Episcopal patronage again being vested in the King, which was entirely a feature of the Saxon polity. In property the Statute of Wills per-

mitted every one to bequeath lands, which had before been only partially and imperfectly practised; and the Statute of Uses was intended to destroy the deceitful intricacy connected with their adoption; whilst both of these acts were meant as a decided step towards reforming the existing irregularities of Clerical Jurisdiction, and an entire reform of the Ecclesiastical law. The great commercial character which England now began to re-assume, was importantly assisted by the first Bankrupt Laws passed in 1542-44, for the punishment of the fraudulent, and the relief of the unfortunate trader. The administration of justice also became more uniform, by the destroying some counties palatine with separate jurisdictions, abridging the unreasonable privileges of those which remained, and by the Union of Wales with England in 1535-36.

The uncontrollable nature of King Henry and the acquiescent spirit of his Parliaments, induced him to extend his prerogative to an extreme height, which was the more fearful from being established by the laws issued from those assemblies; one of which enacted, that the Royal Proclamations should have all the force of statutes, and others created a multitude of inconsistent treasons. Most of these were repealed under the mild but brief sway of Edward VI.; who also reduced the evil of royal purveyance, by enacting that no provisions should be taken for his use against the consent of the owner. Even under Queen Mary many salutary and popular laws were established in civil affairs; as obliging Justices of Peace to take examinations for felony in writing, and empowering them to receive bail;

inflicting fine and imprisonment for conveying away female children; taking the benefit of clergy from accessories before the fact, in felony, treason, and murder; and giving a Tales, or perfecting number, where a full jury does not appear.

The accession of Elizabeth, established the reformed religion of England, upon a broad and steadfast basis, from which it has never yet been shaken, though its infancy was protected by too severe laws against Papists and Puritans. The Saxon constitution, though very considerably improved, seems to have been gradually restored, the feudal oppressions and forest laws having as gradually become almost obsolete, though the Queen was somewhat attached to arbitrary power, and exerted much prerogative in her Star-Chamber, High Commission Court for Ecclesiastical affairs, proclamations, martial law, and the military tenures, which still remained. The administration of justice in the civil courts, was according to the institutions of Edward I., and the laws were duly observed; whilst the clergy, which had become impoverished by the spoliations of the last reigns, had their lands preserved to them by the restraining statutes. The dissolution of the monasteries, also, threw upon the nation a great number of poor, who had been accustomed to receive alms from thence, which were daily distributed at the gates; to provide for whom Edward VI. founded the hospitals of Christ, St Thomas, and Bridewell, as adapted to infants, sick persons, and idle beggars to be employed and punished. But these receptacles being far from providing for all the poor of the realm, the more humane and beneficial plan of overseers in

every parish was first instituted in this reign by Act of Parliament 1601, 1602. It may also be observed, that the statutes against forgery originated in 1562–63, though not then inflicting capital punishment, as paper-credit was not established. Transportation likewise was, in this reign, first introduced into the English law in 1597.

The accumulation of wealth by the lower and middling classes of people, from the extension of the national trade and commerce—the general diffusion of learning and religious information—and the extravagance which characterised the higher orders, in the sixteenth and early part of the seventeenth centuries—were all preparing the way, for that great revolution, by which the throne of England was so long and so darkly obscured. Its advance was aided, by the increasing power exerted by the Sovereign, the latter years of Henry VIII., being, perhaps, the most despotic since the Norman invasion. Queen Elizabeth, however, though she loved, and sometimes forcibly exercised, her prerogative, for some very important end, not only kept it from becoming hateful to the nation, but generally maintained herself, in the affections of her people and her Parliaments. The conduct of King James I. was altogether different, since he often put forth, even a more absolute power on trifling and unworthy occasions, which was seconded by the doctrines of his clergy. His reign, effected but little towards improving the English judicature, excepting the abolition of sanctuaries; extension of the bankrupt laws; limitations of suits and actions to two years after the offence; regulating of informations upon penal suits and actions; and the protection of magistrates, &c. sued

for discharging their duty. In this reign, the House of Commons, seemed preparing for a greater degree of opposition at a future time, having successfully resisted James, in several points of what the Parliament considered arbitrary power.

The unhappy reign of Charles I. was the time selected for carrying these more violent measures into effect. The Court of the Star-Chamber, and High-Commission Courts; the revival of the forest-laws, and the ancient loans and benevolences; the imprisonment of such as refused to contribute, and the exertion of martial law in time of peace, were grievances, most of which the Petition of Right, as in 1627-28, enacted to abolish. The whole narrative of this reign is at once painful and infamous; and at the same time far too intricate and extensive to give even an outline of its government in this place; but two important political improvements may be mentioned, namely, the abolishing of the Star-Chamber and High-Commission Courts, and the appearance of the Habeas Corpus Act; and the final settlement of Forests and Forest Laws, in 1641-42. The malignant fury of those who fomented the rebellion, was rendered yet more insolent and ungovernable by a successful warfare upon their Sovereign; whom they murdered after the profanation of an English trial, characterised only by a solemn hypocrisy and hatred of royalty.

The ten years of unmixed anarchy which followed were not likely to produce any considerable improvement in the constitution of England. In March 1649 the House of Lords was abolished with Kingly government; and a new oath of fidelity, was drawn up for the nation, to be true

and faithful to the Commonwealth of England only. The supreme authority, was at length vested in Oliver Cromwell as Lord Protector, December 12th 1653, with a Council of State, though his ambition is well known to have been towering to regal dignity—and under this jurisdiction the realm continued, until the Restoration dawned suddenly in the midst of its heaviest darkness. The best legislative proceedings of this time, were afterwards lawfully carried into effect under Charles II.; but the Commonwealth Parliament, in 1654, passed a laudable ordinance against duelling; and in 1650 all records and law-proceedings were ordered for the future to be written in English, and in plain legible character; instead of the ancient law-text, or court-hand.



## CHAPTER IV.

### LAW AND GOVERNMENT OF ENGLAND, FROM THE RESTORATION TO THE EIGHTEENTH CEN- TURY.

ONE of the earliest statutes passed after the re-establishment of monarchy, was, perhaps, of greater importance to the nation than even the grant of Magna Charta itself; since it abolished the principal remaining feudal customs of military tenures, and wards, and liveries, and rendered void so much of that famous instrument. It also took away Purveyance, and ordered the landed property of the realm to be held in common Socage, or by a certain rent, making up the deficiency in the Crown Revenue, by establishing certain Excise-duties which were of Dutch original, being first introduced into England about 1642, and continued by the Parliament throughout the whole Interregnum. Another great improvement on Magna Charta, was the passing of the Habeas Corpus Act in 1679; for though that ancient grant declared, that no person should be imprisoned contrary to law, the latter statute provided the means of release from committal, even by the King in Council, and of procuring justice against those who had detained them. In this reign, too,

the writ for the Burning of Heretics was abolished; and the laws farther improved by the statute of Frauds and Perjuries, which protected private property, by requiring leases, agreements, &c., to be in writing; by the statute for distributing the estates of intestate persons to their children and nearest of kin; by that for an election to Parliament every three years; by the Test and Corporation Acts for protecting the Church and kingdom from disaffected persons in offices; and by the numerous statutes passed for the benefit of navigation and improvement of commerce. Notwithstanding therefore, all the censure which has been cast upon the reign of Charles II., the nation enjoyed in it a more complete restitution of its freedom than it had done since the Norman invasion had first overthrown it; though all the civil and political rights of England were not completely regained, acknowledged and defined, until after the Revolution. However, a very eminent author on the jurisprudence of this realm supposes, that in 1679, when the army was disbanded, the Habeas Corpus Act had passed, and that for licensing the Press had expired, "the Constitution of England had arrived at its full vigour, and the true balance between liberty and prerogative was happily established by law." The Parliamentary enrolments of this Sovereign, however, were again altered to the Latin tongue, which continued to be used until 1730, when law proceedings were ordered for the future to be recorded in the national language.

The years immediately succeeding this time of perfection were marked by great practical oppression, through the artifices of some abandoned politicians; but there was now so much power in

the hands of the people, that when King James II. attempted to establish measures contrary to the national character, he was successfully opposed, and ejected from the throne. As there was only one Parliament in his very brief reign, the statutory improvements of the judicature were not numerous, the principal being to enforce and explain the Poor-laws, and some provisions concerning wills.

The great feature of the next period, that of William III. and Mary, was the Bill of Rights, or Declaration delivered to them by the Lords and Commons, February 13th 1688, and afterwards enacted by Parliament. It was founded on the general constitution and rights of the subject, as they anciently and uncorruptedly existed. It set forth, that the royal power, of suspending and dispensing with laws and their execution, without consent of Parliament, is illegal; that the commissions for courts for ecclesiastical causes, are illegal; that levying of money for the Crown by prerogative, and without grant of Parliament, is illegal; that subjects have a right to petition the King, and all commitments or prosecutions for doing so, are illegal; that raising or keeping a standing army in time of peace, and without consent of Parliament, is illegal; that Protestant subjects may have arms of defence; that elections of Parliament members should be free; that freedom of speech in Parliament should not be questioned out of Parliament; that excessive bail should not be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted; that juries ought to be duly impannelled and returned, and jurors who pass upon men in trials for high-treason

should be freeholders; that all grants or promises of fines and forfeitures of particular persons before conviction, are illegal and void; and that, for redress of grievances, amending, strengthening, and preserving the laws, Parliaments should be held frequently. It concluded by claiming, demanding, and insisting upon the whole as undoubted privileges and liberties, all which were allowed by the act confirming it. This was again secured at the commencement of the last century by the Act of Settlement, whereby the descent of the Crown was confirmed to the House of Brunswick, and at the same period several new provisions were made for better securing the national religion, laws, and liberties. Some other juridical improvements, effected under the Orange government, were the Toleration Act, referred to in the former Book; the Acts providing for the proper return of members of Parliament; and the Acts for changing the Oaths of Supremacy and Allegiance, and abolishing the tax of two shillings on every hearth. The press was also set at liberty in this reign, by the statutes for licensing it having expired in 1694, and it has ever since continued to be free.

Though the accession of James I. had brought the kingdoms of England and Scotland under one Crown, yet it was not until May 1st 1707, that they became united by Act of Parliament. The national representation was then assigned to 45 Members in the Senate of Britain, and the Nobility was expressed by 16 Lords, elected to sit in the House of Peers. It may also be noticed in this place, that Ireland was united to England January 1st 1801; when its Parliamentary repre-

sentation was fixed at four Lords Spiritual, 28 Temporal Peers, and 100 Commoners, to be members of the Senate of the United Kingdom.

Whilst mentioning these additions to the English Parliament, which the former pages have exhibited in its rude original, it seems a proper opportunity, before taking a summary view of the enactments of modern times, to give some farther particulars concerning the Council of the realms, and the practice of passing those Bills, which afterwards become statutes, and constitute the national law.

The number of members in the House of Peers is indefinite, the Crown being always at liberty to create new titles, though more than one attempt has been made to pass an act for limiting the Peerage. The total number of the English Commons is 658, including the 45 for Scotland, and 100 for Ireland, mentioned above. The manner of making laws is nearly the same in both Houses, each of which has its Speaker; that of the Peers being the Lord Chancellor, Keeper of the Great Seal, or any other appointed by Royal Commission; and that of the Commons being elected by the House, and approved by the King. In each House the act of the majority is sufficient for the whole, and the votes are publicly and audibly given.

In bringing a Bill into the House of Commons, if it be of a private nature, it is preceded by a petition, which usually sets forth the matter to be remedied, and must be presented by a member. When it is any point which admits of a dispute, the petition is referred to a Committee of Members,

which examines it, reports to the House, and then, or otherwise, on the petition only, leave is given to bring in the bill ; but in public concerns, a bill is brought in upon motion to the House, without any petition at all. When a private bill emanates from the Lords, it is referred to two of the Judges to examine into its technical propriety, &c. The Parliamentary Bills were anciently all drawn in the form of petitions, which were entered upon the Parliament Rolls, with the King's answer subjoined, not in any settled form of words, but as the circumstances of the case required ; and at the end of each Parliament the Judges drew them into the form of a statute, which was entered on the Statute Rolls. In the reign of Henry V., the statutes were drawn up by the Judges before the end of Parliament, to prevent mistakes and abuses ; and Bills in the form of Acts, according to the modern custom, were first introduced under Henry VI. The bill is presented to the House drawn out on paper, with blanks for any doubtful matters or particulars to be supplied by the Parliament, as dates, penalties, or sums of money. It is then read a first time, and, at a convenient distance, a second ; the Speaker, after each reading, recounting its title and substance to the House, and putting the question whether it shall proceed any farther. The introduction of a bill may be opposed at first, and the bill itself at any of the readings ; and whenever such opposition is successful, the bill must be withdrawn for that Session. After the second reading, it is committed, that is, referred to a Committee, either selected by the House in matters of inferior importance, or upon a bill of consequence, the House

resolves itself into a Committee of the whole House, which is composed of all the members and the Speaker, who quits the chair, and becomes a private member, another being appointed chairman. In these Committees the bill is debated clause by clause, amendments made, the blanks filled up, and sometimes the whole bill is entirely remodelled. When it has passed the Committee, the Chairman reports it to the House, with its several alterations, and it is again reconsidered, the question being repeatedly put upon every clause and amendment; and when the House has decided on their adoption or rejection, and sometimes added other amendments, the bill is ordered to be engrossed, or written in a strong gross hand, on one or more long rolls of parchment sewed together. It is then read a third time, and amendments are sometimes then made to it, by attaching a separate piece of parchment to the bill, called a Ryder; after which the Speaker again recounts the contents, and, holding it up in his hands, puts the question whether the bill shall pass. If this be agreed to, the title is settled, which used to be a general one for all the Acts of the Session, till, in 1509–10, the first year of Henry VIII., distinct titles were introduced for each chapter. After this, one of the members is directed to carry it to the Lords, and desire their concurrence; when he and several more take it to the bar of the House of Peers, and deliver it to the Speaker.

It then passes through nearly similar forms, and if it be rejected, it is passed over in silence; but if agreed to, the Lords send a message to that effect by two Masters in Chancery, or by two of

the Judges, if it be a matter of high importance. The bill remains with the Peers if they have made no amendment in it; but if any are adopted, they are sent down to the Commons to desire their concurrence; and if any difference arise, a conference usually follows between a deputation from each House, where it is generally settled. If both parties remain inflexible, the bill is dropped; but if the Lords' amendments are adopted, the bill is returned to them with a message to that effect. These are the ordinary forms of passing Parliamentary bills; but an act of grace or pardon from the King, is first signed by him, and then read once in each House, without any new engrossing or amendment. When both Houses have passed a bill, it is deposited in the House of Lords to wait the Royal assent, excepting in the case of a bill of supply, which, after receiving the concurrence of the Peers, is sent back to the House of Commons; where, also, it should be observed, all grants of subsidies and Parliamentary aids, commence, though they are not effectual till they have been sanctioned by the Lords and the Sovereign.

The Royal assent may be given either in person, or by letters patent, and the King's sign-manual notified, in his absence, to the whole Parliament assembled in the Upper House. When a bill has been assented to in either manner, it is then, and not before, a statute or act of Parliament. When the Sovereign gives his assent in person, he comes to the House of Peers in his Crown and royal robes; and the Commons being summoned to the bar, the titles of all the bills which have passed both Houses are read, and the



King's answer is declared by the Clerk of the Parliament in Norman French; which may be considered the only remaining relique of the invasion of England. If the King consent to a public bill, the Clerk usually says, "*Le Roy le veut,*" The King wills it so to be: if to a private bill, "*Soi-fait comme il est désiré,*" Be it done as it is desired: and if the Royal assent is refused, the answer is, "*Le Roy s'avisera,*" The King will advise upon it. When a bill of supply is passed, it is carried up and presented to the King by the Speaker of the House of Commons, and the expression of the Royal assent is, "The King thanks his loyal subjects, accepts their benevolence, and wills it so to be." But, for an act of grace, which at first proceeds with the King's consent, the Clerk of the Parliament addresses the Sovereign, still in French, and says, "The Prelates, Lords, and Commons in this present Parliament assembled, in the name of all your other subjects, most humbly thank your Majesty, and pray to God to grant you in health and wealth long to live."

A statute thus enacted, is preserved with the records of the kingdom, but is not formally promulged; though it is usually printed and published at the King's press. Anciently, however, the Parliamentary enactments were sent to the Sheriff of every county, at the end of each Sessions, with the King's writ, that they should be made publicly known. They were, therefore, commonly read at the County-court, as being the most attended, where also they were preserved, that any person might read or copy them; which custom continued till the reign of Henry VII.

Such is Sir William Blackstone's interesting account of the progress of instituting the national acts; but the reader is also referred to a curious little volume, entitled, *The Manner how Statutes are enacted in Parliament by passing of Bills*, by W. Hakewill, Esq., Lond. 1641, 12mo.

The many excellent laws which have been enacted in later times, and have so materially improved the British Judicature, are far beyond even the slightest enumeration or notice in a work of the present limits. They have had for their object almost every thing which civil and religious freedom can require, from the settlement of the Crown in a noble Protestant succession, to the allowance of all sects by the Act of Toleration; at the same time protecting the Established Church, which has been furnished with the most admirable of rituals and of ceremonies, by the piety, the learning, and the heroism of so many centuries. The laws of England also, have maintained their superiority over the Sovereign, by withstanding his dispensing power; and have restrained the executive magistrate who endeavoured to subvert the Constitution; they have established triennial, and afterwards the septennial, periods for Parliamentary elections; have excluded certain officers from the House of Commons; have restrained the King's pardon from obstructing the impeachments of Parliament, and have given to all the Lords an equal right of trying their fellow-peers; they have regulated trials for high treason, limited the civil list, and placed the revenue with those who are responsible to Parliament, and have made the Judges entirely independent of the Sovereign, his ministers, and his

successors ; which latter improvements were effected by desire of the late excellent monarch. The ancient royal prerogative, and the uncontrolled management of one of the strongest governments in the world, are now exchanged for powers of almost equal strength, though of a far safer description. In the juridical improvements of the last century, may be mentioned the Statute for the Amendment of the Laws ; the protection of Ambassadors from legal process ; the preservation of corporate rights by improvements in the writs, once issued to command admission into their franchises, or to inquire into the nature and authority of their civil rights ; the regulations of trials by Jury, and admitting witnesses for prisoners, on oath : the annihilation of torture ; the extension of benefit of clergy, counterbalanced by the increase of capital punishments ; the more effectual methods of recovering rents ; the introduction and establishment of paper-credit by indorsations ; the erection of Courts of Conscience for recovering small debts, and amendments of County Courts ; the great system of Marine Jurisprudence, and explaining the principles of insurance connected with it.

Nor have the legal improvements of a later time been less important, or less numerous ; and such may be considered the restraint imposed on arrest, and the right to a discharge on making a deposit with the arresting officer ; the occasional increased power of inferior Courts ; the prevention of delay in the trial of misdemeanours, and the increased severity of their penalties ; the great diminution of capital offences in general, and the augmentation of the inferior punishment allotted

to them; the making capital certain attempts at murder, and the simplifying of trial in certain cases of treason; the abolition of many punishments, as those of the pillory, burning and whipping towards females, and the ancient savage custom of embowelling for treason; the taking away one of the very last features of the feudal law, the trial by battle for civil suits, and the suppression of appeals for treason, murder and felony; the destroying of corruption of blood, excepting in cases of treason or murder; the amendment of the marine and colonial jurisprudence; and the revision and consolidation of the laws concerning the Trial by Jury.

Such are doubtless improvements in the modern legal code of England; whilst in its constitutional arrangement may be noticed an extension of those disqualifications for persons becoming members of the House of Commons, in the cases of public contractors and officers; as well as the preventing revenue officers from voting at elections, and the removing and suspending of bankrupt members.

In the general and internal polity of the nation, may be observed the perfecting of a regular system and jurisdiction for both the punishment and relief of insolvent debtors; the amendment and consolidation of the bankrupt law; the relief of Catholics and Dissenters; the improvements in the navigation laws; the recovery and preservation of the ancient records of the realm; the more careful keeping of parish registers, and the attempts to ascertain the population by a census; the endeavours to improve the poor laws; the protection and encouragement afforded to Friendly

Societies, and the institution of Savings' Banks; and, in fine, the entire abolition of the slave trade.

Such then is a faint and imperfect sketch, a rapid and superficial historical view, of some features of the Laws and Government of Great Britain, from the earliest period until nearly the present day; in which, though the omissions are very numerous, and the narrative is of very inferior merit, something may still be traced of the gradual rise and improvement of the English Constitution, its Courts, and its Statutes; on which account this early history is more particularly dwelt upon, as containing the spirit or the original of most features of the British Judicature. Those who are best acquainted with the subject, can also best appreciate its value and its extent, and especially the difficulty of compressing even a view like the foregoing, into the limits of a work like the present. They are also well acquainted with the most excellent and copious works which have been written on the subject; but those who have never yet studied the legal history of their country, and feel any desire to know more particularly what is here so cursorily related, are referred to the following authorities, from which the preceding pages have been compiled:—The third chapter in all the books of Dr Henry's History of Great Britain; Sir William Blackstone's *Commentaries of the Laws of England*, Lond. 1825, 8vo. 4 vols. by J. T. Coleridge, Esq., from which the historical view of English Law, contained in the fourth volume, has been taken as the ground-work of these pages, with an abstract of the learned Editor's excellent conclusion. *The History of the Com-*

*mon Law* by Sir Matthew Hale, with Notes, &c. by C. Runninton, Esq., Lond. 1794, 8vo, 2 vols. *History of the English Law from the time of the Saxons to the end of the reign of Philip and Mary*, by John Reeves, Esq., Lond. 1787, 8vo. 4 vols. This excellent and very learned work was also written in consequence of the chapter in Blackstone's Commentaries already alluded to, and it is only to be regretted that it was never carried lower than 1558. The legal antiquities of England will be found excellently illustrated by Sir William Dugdale's *Origines Juridiciales, or Historical Memorials of the English Laws, &c.* Lond. 1680, folio; with which should be connected the *Chronica Juridicialia*, or abridgement and continuation of the former work, Lond. 1739, folio. Numerous other excellent volumes on this subject may be found in John Clarke's *Bibliotheca Legum, or Catalogue of Law Books of the United Kingdom*, Lond. 1810, 12mo; but one of the most interesting publications of this class, is Mr Hallam's *Constitutional History of England*, which has been already referred to, and which enters at large into the relative conduct of the British Sovereigns and their Parliaments, down to the decease of King George the Second.

ILLUSTRATIONS  
OF THE  
HISTORY OF GREAT BRITAIN.

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BOOK III.

VIEW OF THE LEARNING, LITERATURE, ARTS,  
AND SCIENCES OF ENGLAND.

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CHAPTER I.

LEARNING, &c. OF ENGLAND, IN THE BRITISH,  
SAXON, AND DANISH PERIODS.

THE historians of the most eminent nations of the world, have commonly been too much occupied in recounting the political and martial events by which their greatness was acquired, to give any particulars, whilst the information was yet to be procured, of the other various branches of their memoirs, which would frequently have proved equally interesting and far more generally instructive. If the

favourable period be permitted to pass unnoticed, then the early history of their religion is either lost in impenetrable obscurity, or distorted by the miraculous narratives of those who sought rather to dignify their own order, than to preserve the truth. The codes of their ancient laws are either destroyed by the despotism, or left to decay by the improvements of their rulers; and for the annals of their Literature, those peaceful sages who first cultivated the Arts or Learning of a barbarous land, are either chronicled as monstrous magicians, or their very names are entirely forgotten. In this state is the early history of the Literature and Science of this nation.

1.—*British and Roman Period.*—The only persons in Britain who possessed any knowledge before the Roman invasion, and even for some considerable time after it, were the Druids, of whose various orders, &c. a full account has been given in the first volume of this work. The information of modern times, however, as to the real extent of their attainments, is extremely doubtful and superficial, from the fact that, though they were acquainted with the Greek letters, they taught almost entirely by memory, and committed little or nothing to writing. A summary of what is known concerning the Druidical knowledge, is contained in the following particulars.

Concerning the universe, they believed that it should never be entirely destroyed or annihilated, though it was expected to suffer a succession of violent changes and revolutions, by the predominating powers of fire and water. They instructed their disciples in the heavenly bodies and their motions; and they had probably some kind of



rude astrology for discovering the will of the gods, as Pomponius Mela observes of them, after remarking that "they profess to have great knowledge of the movement of the heavens and stars." Indeed their religion was such as to require some attention to astronomy, since they paid considerable regard to the changes of the moon; their time was computed by nights, according to very ancient practice, by moons, or months, and by years, when the planet had gone the revolution of all the seasons. They began their account of these from the sixth day of the moon, and they esteemed the new and full to be sacred times and auspicious seasons. They had another period of time called an age, consisting of thirty years; and they are supposed to have been acquainted with some kind of cycle, when the sun and moon returned to the same point, and recommenced their revolutions. That at least they knew the reversion of the seasons, as adapted to agricultural purposes, is evident from the fact, that Cæsar landed in Britain in his first expedition on the 26th of August, when he states that the harvest was all completed, excepting one field, which was more backward than the rest of the country.

It is concluded that the Druids possessed some knowledge of arithmetic, using the Greek characters as figures in those public and private computations mentioned by Cæsar; and were not unacquainted with mensuration, geometry, and geography, because, as judges, they decided disputes about the limits of fields, and are even said to have been engaged in determining the measure of the world. Their mechanical skill, and particularly their acquaintance with the Lever, is gene-

rally argued from the enormous blocks of Stonehenge, and the numerous other massive erections of rude stone which are yet remaining in many parts of the kingdom, and which are commonly attributed to these times.

The Druids were also the only physicians and surgeons of the Britons ; in which professions they blended some knowledge of natural medicines, with the general superstitions by which they were characterised. For as they taught and believed that all internal diseases came from the gods, their priests were held to be the fittest persons to turn aside the Divine anger by offering sacrifices ; when even a human victim was sometimes adopted as the most efficacious means of cure, in a case of considerable danger. Yet they had also certain herbs which formed the chief of their medicines, whence it has been supposed that the Druids had some kind of botanical knowledge. Their famous Mistletoe or all-heal, was considered as a certain cure in many diseases, an antidote against poisons, and a sure remedy against infection. Another plant called Samulus, or Marshwort, which grew chiefly in damp places, was believed to be of excellent effect in preserving the health of swine and oxen, when it had been bruised and put in their water-troughs. But it was required to be gathered fasting and with the left hand, without looking back when it was being plucked. A kind of hedge-hysop called selago, was esteemed to be a general charm and preservative from sudden accidents and misfortunes ; and it was to be gathered with nearly the same ceremonies as the mistletoe. To these might be added Vervain, the herb Britannica, which was either the great water-dock or

scurvy-grass, and several other plants, the virtues of which, however, were greatly augmented by the rites used in plucking them : superstitions not entirely out of use, whilst the old herbals were regarded as books of medicine. The few hints which are scattered through Pliny's Natural History on the preparation of these materials, show that sometimes the juices were extracted by bruising and steeping them in cold water, and sometimes by boiling them ; that they were occasionally infused in a liquor which he calls wine ; that they were administered in fumigations ; and that the dried leaves, stalks, and roots of plants, were also used to impart a virtue to various liquids. It appears likewise, that the Druids prepared ointments and salves from vegetables. Of their surgery nothing is certainly known, though much has been conjectured of their acquaintance with anatomy, from the barbarity of their human sacrifices ; but it is probable that their practice extended only to the plainer branches of the art, as healing of wounds, setting of fractured bones, reducing dislocations, &c. : all of which were perhaps conducted with great rudeness, though with considerable ceremony. It has, however, been asserted, that one of the Druid doctors called Hierophilus, read lectures on the bodies of upwards of 700 living men, to display the wonders and secrets of the human fabric.

Even these very imperfect fragments of natural knowledge, seem to have been sufficient to cause the Druids to be suspected of magic, which Pliny remarks, derived its origin from medicine. Their divination has been already noticed ; but it may be mentioned, in connexion with their physical science,

that they very highly esteemed a kind of stone or fossil, called *Anguinum Ovum*, or *Serpent's Egg*, which should make the possessor superior in all disputes, and procure the favour of great persons. It was in the form of a ring of glass, either plain or streaked, and was asserted to be produced by the united saliva of a cluster of serpents, raised up in the air by their hissing; when, to be perfectly efficacious, it was to be caught in a clean white cloth before it fell to the ground, the person who received it instantly mounting a swift horse, and riding away at full speed from the rage of the serpents, who pursued him at full speed until they arrived at a river. It has been supposed that these charms were no other than rings of painted glass; and as it is allowed that the British had home manufacture of glass, it seems that there were imitations of them sold at an equally high rate with the real amulet. Their genuineness was to be tried by setting them in gold, and observing if they swam against the stream when cast into the water.

The account of the Druidical orations and discourses which has been already given, will afford some notion of their admitted eloquence, which was of a lofty, impassioned, and mysterious character. Their counsel was equally solicited and regarded; and those orators who succeeded the Druids in the Western Islands, seem to have possessed no less power: since, if one of them asked any thing even of the greatest inhabitant, as his dress, horse, or arms, it was immediately given up to him; sometimes from respect, and sometimes from fear of being satirised, which was esteemed a great dishonour. The British chief-

tains, also, appear to have been gifted with considerable oratorical powers when they addressed their soldiers before a battle ; as Tacitus translates the British names of such by “ incentives to war.”

The Greek letters, were used by the Druids for keeping the public and private records, the only matters which they reduced to writing ; and they are supposed to have received these characters either from the Gauls of their order, who had them from the Greek merchants of Marseilles, or else directly from those persons who frequently came into this island.

The Druid schools and seminaries, were held in the caverns, rocky cairns, and deepest recesses of the sacred groves and forests of Britain ; the buildings for this purpose being erected of as few unwrought stones as possible, without lime or mortar, and capable of receiving only one person. The most eminent academy is said to have been in the Isle of Anglesey, near the residence of the Archdruid ; and there are still two spots there called “ the Place of Studies,” and “ the Astronomer’s Circle.” The British youth separated from their parents, and were under Druidical instruction until they were fourteen, and no one was capable of a public employment who had not been educated by a Druid. Their method of tuition has been already described. The Roman Invasion, however, greatly improved and extended this plan of instruction ; since Julius Agricola was careful that the sons of the principal Britons should be taught the liberal sciences. His endeavours were considerably assisted by the expulsion of the Druids, which took place about this period ;

and also by the ability of the British youth, whom he declared to excel the Roman. They commenced studying the Latin language with much dislike, but at length it became almost universal through the island: numbers became desirous of knowing it, and Britain made a rapid progress in learning and eloquence.

The sculptures of this period, if there were any, are all lost; but as the Gauls used to ornament their shields and helmets with brass images of animals and horns, it is not improbable that some rude endeavours decorated the armour of the Britons. Whatever their skill might be, it was doubtless greatly improved by the Romans, since a variety of their bas-reliefs and effigies have been found in different parts of the kingdom; and as early as A. D. 61, not twenty years after the invasion of Claudius Cæsar, a statue of Liberty was erected at Camalodunum.

The early British custom of painting the body is well known. The Southern Britons, on going to war, endeavoured to make themselves more terrible to their enemies by a deep blue stain of woad; which was also used at their public feasts by men, women, and children. This, however, was only a general tint over the naked body; to which the Northern Britons added something of design, by tracing upon their limbs the representations of herbs, flowers, trees, and all kinds of animals. It is doubtful whether in these arts they were improved by the Romans, since the delineations of deities, which Gildas mentions on the walls of the British houses, are said by him only to resemble demons.

The Poetry of the Druidic bards has already

been described; and with regard to their Music, the harp, or Scythian lyre, an instrument common to all the Celtæ, was probably the only one used by the Britons. In its original state, it had four or five strings, or thongs, cut out of an ox-hide, and was played upon by a plectrum, formed of the jaw-bone of a goat. The ancient British harp was in the form of a parallelogram, and was played on without a plectrum; the music of the time was only a very simple melody, and is supposed to have been orally taught with the words of the song to which it was adapted.

The knowledge of the Britons in the useful arts, was probably but little more extensive than their acquirements in the fine ones. Hunting seems to have been well known; and even to the beginning of the third century, it was the principal means by which the inhabitants, beyond the wall of Adrian, supplied themselves with food: but though the coast abounded with fish, they were neither eaten, nor any attempt made at taking them.

In the interior of Britain, the inhabitants subsisted entirely by pasturage, never sowing any lands, but feeding on the milk and flesh of their cattle, which constituted all their wealth. But in the southern parts, the ground was cultivated with corn, which was preserved in granaries, and a sort of bread for present use was made by drying the ears, beating out the grain, and bruising it, all which was effected within an hour. The British agriculture was improved by the Romans, and corn was soon produced in sufficient quantities to allow of very large exportations. The manure of Britain was marl, which long continued in very high esteem.

The Romans are also said to have introduced gardening into this nation, planting orchards immediately upon their arrival ; and it was soon discovered, that the soil was adapted to most kinds of trees and vegetables. As soon, too, as it was found proper for the culture of vines and olives, permission was procured from the Emperor Probus to plant vineyards and make wine. The various branches of agriculture soon became known to the southern Britons, though they advanced but slowly into the North ; for in the time of Severus, about A. D. 200, some nations of Britain lived in barren mountains, having neither walled towns nor cultivated fields, and feeding on the milk and flesh of their flocks and herds, the fruits of trees, or what they might procure by plunder or hunting. It is supposed, however, that by draining the marshes, Severus made the country more fit for cultivation, and that the inhabitants were instructed in agriculture by the Christians who fled thither from the persecution of Dioclesian. The British husbandmen had carts and waggons called Carrus or Currus, even before the invasion of the Romans ; and they are even farther said to have possessed carriages for pleasure, some having two wheels, known by the name of Benna, and others four, which were designated by that of Petoritum.

The houses of the ancient Britons were built of wood, the walls being made of stakes and watling like hurdles, afterwards cemented with clay, and covered with a white wash of chalk. They were of a round form, and were thatched with reeds or straw in a conical shape, the smoke issuing through the top ; whilst the doors, which were their only light, were high arches, either single or double.



An account of the most ancient English church erected of wooden logs, will be found in the former volume of this work. The first improvement of the British dwellings, seems to have been setting them up with strong stakes in banks of earth, or framing them with large stones, loosely placed upon each other, without mortar. The Britons had no notion of joining their houses in streets, each being built at some distance from the other, and generally on the banks of a river for water, or in woods for forage for their cattle. The most convenient place was taken by the Prince, the dwellings of his subjects, and the stalls for their herds, being erected round him, whilst a ditch and mound of earth enclosed the whole. Such were the British towns found by Cæsar, being little more than a thick wood, with a dyke and rampart to serve as a retreat from the incursions of an enemy; sometimes elevated on a hill, having the hive-shaped dwellings of reeds and logs interspersed between the trees. When the Britons began to unite their residences, they were generally in clusters of three or four, and sometimes several, within a square court. The great improvements in British architecture effected by the Romans, were perhaps most conspicuous under Constantine; when there were erected houses, temples, courts, and market-places, in the towns, with all the Roman ornaments of tessellated pavements, saloons, and porticos: and the figures of monstrous deities were delineated on the town-walls, because the Celtic religion did not permit of its gods being represented in a human form. The Roman art of building, seems to have been lost in Britain, about A. D. 298, when Constantius

Chlorus, called away the artisans and mechanics, to re-edify the cities in Gaul and fortresses on the Rhine, and was not restored again, until nearly four hundred years afterwards.

The natural animosity which exists in a barbarous nation, supplied the Britons with some notions of war, which have also been common to more refined nations. Their most ancient weapons were bows, reed arrows, with flint or bone heads, quivers of basket work, oaken spears, javelins of bone, and flint battle axes. All the inhabitants, excepting the Druids, were trained early to war, and every clan or family fought in a separate band, under the King of its particular nation, and a War King elected as chief general. The different leaders, however, were disunited by jealousies, and the consequence was their easy defeat by the Roman arms. The British forces included infantry, cavalry, and such as fought from war-chariots. The first was the principal part of the army; and the foot-soldiers of the southern parts of Britain, were habited in a coarse woollen tunic, over which was a kind of cloak reaching below the middle, their legs and thighs being covered with close garments. They had helmets of brass with horns, and rude representations of animals; breastplates full of hooks; and long swords hanging obliquely across the right thigh, suspended from an iron or brazen girdle. They also carried large darts of two hands broad, with iron shafts eighteen inches long; and shields of wicker or wood ornamented with various figures, adapted to the strength and stature of the wearer. The foot-soldiers of the inland Britons were more lightly armed; their dresses being only the skins of brindled oxen, secured

round the waist, and their principal arms, spears and small shields. The Caledonians, and other northern nations, usually fought naked, with only a light target; their weapons being long, broad, pointless swords, hung to iron chains, and short spears, with brazen balls at the end, with which they used to make a noise before an engagement, and frighten the horses of the enemy. Their motions were extremely swift, and compensated for their want of armour, which would have proved very inconvenient in their retreats, when they passed over fens and marshes, and swam through deep waters with a rapidity which alike prevented their capture, or even pursuit. The British cavalry was mounted upon small, though strong and lively horses, which they managed with great dexterity, though without saddles; and their arms were principally the same as the former, since they often quitted their steeds, and fought on foot. The soldiers of the war-chariots, appear to have been the chiefs of the nation, and the flower of the British youth; whose very great dexterity was acquired, by long practice and experience. They used chariots of wicker with wooden wheels of several different kinds, some having hooks, and sharp scythe blades of bronze attached to the axles, and, being adapted for rapidity and force, held only one person, who could drive his horses at full speed down steep hills, turn them in the narrowest compass, run along the pole of the chariot, and return to their seats with ease and swiftness. Others of their chariots contained several persons, some of whom darted lances with the greatest precision as they went rapidly along, whilst the principal stood on the shafts, held the reins and guided the horses.

The great power of these machines was to break the hostile ranks, and throw an army into confusion: and when they were entangled with the cavalry, the warriors would leap from them, and fight on foot; the charioteers watching their motions, and placing themselves so as to secure a retreat to the carriage. The number of British chariots must at one period have been very considerable, since, when Cassibellanus, after he had disbanded his army, about 54 years before the Christian era, had still 4000 remaining. But although they managed these machines with wonderful skill, and brake with them through the ranks of their enemies, they were found to be of little service against disciplined troops; and, after the Romans had subdued the island, they were heard of no more. In advancing to battle, the Britons placed their infantry in distinct lines in the centre, and selected a rising ground, that the ranks appearing above each other, their numbers might seem the greater. The cavalry and war-chariots formed the wings, and sometimes the front, and commenced an engagement, by repeated skirmishes, and driving up and down the field. The rear was a sort of blockade, formed of baggage and waggons, in which they frequently placed their wives and children to view the battle, which they inspired them bravely to fight, by loud cries and exclamations. An engagement, was usually preceded by an animating speech from the general. The martial stratagems used by the Britons, were of course those common to barbarous nations: as feigned flights and ambushments, endeavouring to surround armies, or decoying them on to dangerous ground, forests, or marshes. The British fortifications were similar to their towns;

the entrance being blocked up by trees cut down and laid across it. The camps were seldom surrounded by entrenchments, being guarded only by waggons &c. drawn up in a circle. And even when the Romans had brought the art of fortification into this island, the Britons, when left to themselves, had so little profited by their instructions that their sentinels fell asleep on their ramparts for want of being relieved, and were dragged off by the hooks of the Caledonian invaders. The distinguishing character of Roman British castles, was a square area, with towers at the corners. Those purely British, were either square or round forts on the tops of steep hills, terraced with excavations, surrounded by an enclosure of loose stones; or else stones connected by mortar, as an outwork placed on some eminent situation with an artificial mound of earth for a citadel. Some other arts of the ancient Britons, will be noticed in the historical view of manufactures and dresses, contained in the ensuing books.

Learning, the art of war, and most of the other acquirements of the nation, appear to have been gradually declining before the Romans left Britain. But when they had finally departed, the people had become indolent, and fell an easy prey to the Saxons. The whole of their ancient records, too, was destroyed or carried out of the nation in the ensuing struggle; and the few reliques of contemporary and native history now remaining, have been fully particularized, in the Introduction to the former volume of the present work. There is probably no ancient British alphabet now extant, though several series of characters have been pro-

duced as such. And of the old language of Britain, or Welsh, it has been observed, that it has little or no affinity with the English; for though several of its terms may have been admitted into the tongue, the idioms and genius of both are essentially and totally different.

The authorities for the preceding pages, are nearly the same as those cited in Book I. Chap. I. of the former volume; to which, however, may be added, Dr S. R. Meyrick's *Account of the Ancient Inhabitants of Britain*, and his *Critical Inquiry into Ancient Armour*, Lond. 1824, 3 vols. folio.

2. *Anglo-Saxon Period.*—The ninth and tenth centuries, have been considered an age of iron for barbarity and profligacy, and a time of utter darkness for ignorance of learning. The Latinity which Agricola had so established in this island, as to make it rather a Roman than a British nation, had become almost extinct; for Ælfred declared, that on his accession in 872, “there were few on this side of the Humber who were able to say their prayers in English, or to translate any thing from the Latin; and that he knew there were not many beyond the Humber, or rather they were so few, that he could not remember an instance south of the Thames.” Some native rays of intellectual light, however, had been shed upon Britain even before this dark period, and the literature of the Anglo-Saxons must be dated from their conversion to Christianity. Previously to that era, they probably had their Runic letters and songs; but their first improvement was through their intercourse with Rome. When St Augustine came into England, the Pope sent him several books,

some of which are even now extant; and in the seventh century, a desire for learning began to inspire the Anglo-Saxons, when the King of East Anglia established in his dominions a school for the instruction of youth. At the same period, too, many persons are represented by the venerable Bede, who flourished in the eighth century, as reading and studying the Scriptures; he was called "the Wise Saxon," and his works are supposed to contain a summary of all the knowledge of his time. Nearly contemporary with him was Egbert, Archbishop of York, in 712, who had a library of the Fathers, and several of the ancient and later classics. What the value of such a collection must have been may be imagined, when Bede relates, that Ælfred, King of Northumberland, gave to Benedict Biscop, a learned priest who had travelled to Rome to collect MSS., a very large landed estate for only one book; and even many years afterwards, a Countess of Anjou gave 200 sheep and a large parcel of rich furs for a volume of Homilies. Egbert's library was burned in 1069, when the Norman garrison set fire to the suburbs of York, to prevent the approach of the Danes and Northumbrians. The catalogue, however, was preserved by Alcuinus, the pupil of Egbert, and supposed to have been Abbot of Canterbury. His wit and learning induced the Emperor Charlemagne, who really could not write his own name, to invite him to his court. His letters to this prince are still extant; and in one he solicits him to send the noble youth of France and Germany, to be educated in the excellent schools of Britain. A most interesting account of the rise and progress of Anglo-Saxon literature will be

found in Book IX. Chap. VI. of Mr Sharon Turner's History, so often referred to, with anecdotes of several of the principal persons who advanced it.

With the death of these persons, however, the national learning seems to have declined into general ignorance ; since Ælfred deeply lamented the times of wisdom which existed before his reign. The long peace which followed the King's triumphs over the Danes, about 887, was the season of the revival of learning in England ; and he then placed many of the youth of his kingdom under masters who taught them Latin and Saxon books, and writing, even before they learned their manly exercises. But the laity were in general uneducated, and such as could not read themselves, usually had a son or a servant taught to read for them. Ælfred was himself twelve years old before he could read, and he then learned, by his step-mother Judith, promising an illuminated volume of poetry, which he had often admired, to those of her sons who should first be able to understand it. From that time, through an unhealthy and active life of moderate length, he missed no opportunity of improvement ; and even when harassed by war, was never without a book in his bosom, consisting of prayers, psalms, and daily religious offices collected by himself. In this little volume he entered any memorable passage which occurred in conversation, until it was entirely full, after which a new book was made, by the advice of Asser, and filled with diversified extracts on all subjects, which the King called his Hand-book, and made his constant companion. Asser, who wrote the life of Ælfred, and who has been already mentioned in the In-



roduction to the present work, was one of the most learned men of his time.

Before closing these notices of Ælfred's encouragement of learning in England, it may be mentioned, that from a passage in the author last mentioned, arose the famous dispute as to the superior antiquity of the schools of Oxford and Cambridge. The authentic proofs of the latter, did not extend beyond the seventh century; whilst the evidence of Asser showed that there had been public schools at Oxford at least in the fifth or sixth. In Archbishop Parker's copy of Asser, however, printed in 1574, this passage was not to be found, as well as in some other ancient MSS.; and its authenticity rested on one possessed by Camden, and published in 1603, though it was never afterwards produced, and was supposed to have been of the time of Richard II. The controversy, though it has now ceased, is still undecided, as there are no materials to be procured to determine it.

The Saxon language, is originally derived from the Gothic, and was brought into England by those adventurers who came over in the fifth century. Out of it were formed the English, Scotch, Low Dutch, and Frisic; and, as it was anciently spoken in Britain, it is divided into three periods. The first of these is called British-Saxon, and extends from the Saxon invasion in A. D. 449, to that of the Danes, under Ivar, in 867; the second, or Danish-Saxon, began at that period, and lasted till the entry of the Normans in 1066: when it was followed by the Norman-Saxon, which was very rude and irregular, and continued until nearly the

close of the twelfth century, after which the French tongue prevailed in England. Of the pure Saxon of the first period, only one specimen is extant, which is in King Ælfred's version of Bede's Ecclesiastical History. It has been supposed, that when the Saxons landed in Britain, they possessed no letters, but adopted the barbarized Greek and Roman characters which they found in the island. Some maintained, however, that the Saxon alphabet was derived from the Gothic; and that, before their invasion of Britain, this people used the Runic letters of Odin, which they engraved upon stone or wood, the word *boc* or *book* signifying a beech-tree, from which their earliest books were probably taken. But as the Runic characters were connected with many idolatrous superstitions, and were of Pagan origin, on the conversion of the northern nations to Christianity, they were discouraged by the Roman Ecclesiastics, and soon after ceased to be used. The Anglo-Saxon alphabet was then formed from the Roman, being finally composed of 24 letters, with some double ones. It is supposed that writing was very little practised in England before the mission of St Augustine in A. D. 595; but after that time many Saxon MSS., chiefly on religious subjects, were executed on parchment, stained with rich colours, written in golden characters, and decorated with gilding and illuminations. Saxon writing was of the five following kinds:—Roman Saxon, which prevailed from the coming in of St Augustine to the eighth century; and the MSS. in this character are frequently written in uncial or initial letters, interspersed with smaller. Set Saxon, which was used from about the middle of the eighth century,

until the same time in the ninth, though it was not wholly disused until the commencement of the tenth; and in manuscripts of this class, the square or cornered capitals are used in the titles of books, and the first letters are often converted into the shapes of men and animals. Towards the latter end of the ninth century, as learning became diffused in England under King Ælfred, and as many more books were consequently written, an expeditious or free character, called Running-band Saxon, came into general use, which had before appeared only in a few charters of the close of the eighth century; and in manuscripts of this class there are numerous contractions, which render them difficult to be read. In the ninth, tenth, and beginning of the next century, many volumes were written in what is called Mixed-Saxon, or partly Roman, partly Lombardic, and partly Saxon characters. Early in the tenth century, the Elegant Saxon, was first used, which was more beautiful than the contemporary writing of either France, Italy, or Germany; it lasted until the Norman invasion, and was not entirely disused until the twelfth century. One of the greatest discouragements which ancient Literature has had to contend with, was the want of materials for writing upon; which gave rise to the destructive practice of erasing one work to transcribe another, which is frequent in the manuscripts of the tenth and eleventh centuries. Ingulphus mentions, that in England, for want of parchment to draw a deed upon, great estates were frequently conveyed by delivering a turf and a stone before witnesses, without any written agreement.

The Anglo-Saxon poetry, was characterised by

rhythm and cadence rather than by rhyme, though there are some instances in which it is used, as well as a continuance of alliteration. The lines are commonly short, full of metaphor, contracted phrases, and descriptive expressions, like brief and sudden exclamations in greeting a chieftain, to which it has been thought that Saxon poetry is indebted for its origin. It was composed in the form of hymns and ballads, narrative poems or romances, and lyrical pieces. The oldest specimen of Anglo-Saxon poetry which is now extant, is a hymn to God the Creator, by Cædmon, a monk of Whitby, who died in 678; and several translated extracts of it will be found in vol. iii., pages 302–316 of Mr Turner's History, Book ix. of which contains a full account and specimens of the poetry and poets of this period. The oldest fragment of a Saxon ballad now known, is a verse of the famous song composed by Canute in the eleventh century upon sailing past the Abbey of Ely when the monks were chanting their anthems. Literally translated it is as follows:

“ Merry sang the Monks in Ely,  
 When Canute the King was sailing by;  
 ‘ Row, ye Cnihts, near the land,  
 And let us hear these Monks song.’ ”

Some of the Anglo-Saxon ecclesiastics also, cultivated the art of Latin poetry with considerable success. Poetry, music and minstrels, were all equally familiar to the Anglo-Saxons. Dunstan sang songs to the harp, and Ælfred went as a minstrel into the Danish camp. The Saxon organ and church-music have been already mentioned: and it may be added, that there were other instruments, both of chords and for wind. The harp

seems to have been universally studied and understood; being passed round the table after feasts, for every one to play and sing in turn. Bede relates, when speaking of Cædmon, that as he was unacquainted with music, when he saw the harp coming round, he used privately to retire in shame at his ignorance. The harp, at this period, was a badge of rank, for by the British laws a slave might not use it; and no one was esteemed a gentleman unless he possessed a harp, and could play upon it. There are also notices and representations extant, of the use of the lyre, flute, violin, drum, cymbals, horn and trumpet, in the times of the Anglo-Saxons, as well as ancient MSS. containing musical notes.

The Painting of this period never arrived at any great degree of excellence; and the first impulse it received, appears to have been certain pictures from Scripture procured by St Augustine and Benedict from Rome in the seventh century. Dunstan, whose talents appear to have been universal, was an artist, and painted a lady's robe which was afterwards embroidered; and there is yet extant a drawing by him of Christ, with himself kneeling before him, preserved in the Bodleian Library at Oxford. The most numerous and beautiful remains of Anglo-Saxon art, however, are the drawings and illuminations to be found in the MSS. of this period; in which the colours and gilding are usually extremely beautiful, and the drawing is often surprisingly delicate and correct.

Of the sculpture and engraving executed by this people, scarcely any thing is known; though some ornamented rings, horns, &c. have been found, proving that they possessed the art of cut-

ting on metals with great neatness, though with little ability.

Concerning the Anglo-Saxon architecture, it is supposed that the most ancient buildings were of wood; since the Saxon verb *Getymbrian*, to build, signifies literally to make of timber, though it was used long after edifices were erected of stone. The rude materials of the early English churches have been already described, and the erection of buildings of reeds and trunks of trees, seems to have existed in some parts of England to a late period; since in 940 Hoel Dha, King of North Wales, erected his White House, where his famous laws were made, of twisted branches, with the bark stripped and left white, whence it derived its name. Even in the days of Henry I., also, Pembroke Castle was built of twigs and turf. It has been supposed that the Saxons and Normans adopted the masonry which the Romans had introduced into England, altering it as architecture improved. The principal peculiarities of the Anglo-Saxon style, are the want of uniformity in its parts, massive columns, semi-circular arches and diagonal mouldings. The first two are common to the barbaric architecture of Europe; the round arches are generally believed to have been taken from the Romans; and the zig-zag mouldings have been thought to allude to the stringing of the teeth of fishes. The Saxons appear to have expended considerable sums upon their buildings; for Ina, one of the Kings of the Octarchy, gave 365 pounds of gold, and 2887½ pounds of silver for the erection and ornaments of a single chapel at Glastonbury. King

Ælfred, who so greatly benefited the nation, also exerted himself for the improvement of its architecture, by procuring from several nations numerous artificers, well skilled in all kinds of building, to whom he devoted a sixth of his revenues for their expenses and remuneration. He also caused edifices to be erected from his own designs, consisting of halls and state apartments, both of wood and stone, and he also formed, repaired, and rebuilt cities and towns of stone, some of which he previously destroyed on their ancient sites to raise them on better. His son Edward, also continued the same plan of improvement; but in the middle of the tenth century, in the reign of Edgar the Peaceable, no monasteries were to be found, of better materials than decayed boards. An instance of the very imperfect state of the buildings of this time, may be given in, A. D. 961,—the fact, that St Paul's was burned down and erected again within the year. The ordinary Saxon houses were of clay, held together by wooden frames; bricks being uncommon, and used only as ornaments. A stone edifice, erected at Hamburgh about 1053, excited the wonder of the country. The very imperfect state of the Saxon church windows, has been already described; but the arts of making, and probably of painting glass, were known, as they were used both by Benedict and Wilfred. The peculiar character of the Anglo-Saxon Castles, is a round or square keep on the wall of the area, ascended by a steep flight of stone steps.

Venerable Bede, was one of the earliest authors, who endeavoured to introduce the study of Natural Philosophy to the Anglo-Saxons, which he

did in a Treatise on the Nature of Things. The imperfect state of knowledge, prevented him from knowing the true causes of many natural phenomena, but a philosophical mind is to be discovered in the whole. He adopts the ancient notion, that the heavens turned round daily; thunder and lightning, he affirmed to be produced by the collision of clouds, and earthquakes, by winds rushing through the spongy caverns of the earth; but notwithstanding these errors, he sets down clear and true notions of the form of the earth, the doctrine of eclipses, the moon's influence on the tides, the cause of the Northern stars only appearing in Britain, the production of rain and hail, the inequality of days and nights, and some presages of weather. He disbelieved in the Antipodes, only because he supposed them to be impassable and uninhabitable.

The Anglo-Saxon astronomy was collected from the Greek and Latin authors, and Bede, who collected into his writings all the knowledge of his time, attentively studied them. It was usually considered under two divisions; one of which included astrology, and was the most popular. So early as the year 1091, there is some account of astronomical instruments in England; for when Ingulphus, Abbot of Croyland is lamenting the destruction of his monastery by fire, he particularly laments the loss of a "Nadir," which appears to have been an imperfect orrery. "It was," says he "a beautiful table wherein Saturn was of copper, Jupiter of gold, Mars of iron, the sun of latten, &c.; the eyes were charmed and the mind instructed by beholding the colure-circles with the



zodiac and all its signs, formed with wonderful art of metals and precious stones.”\*

The Pagan Anglo-Saxon Calendar, contained thirteen months; the year was divided into two parts, summer and winter, the latter commencing with the full moon of October, whence that month was called “Wyntyry Fylleth.” The year began on a festival called “Modrenech,” or Mother-night, answering to December 25th; time was counted by winters instead of years; and the Almanack, after the establishment of Christianity, was a square piece of wood, a foot or more in length, cut with notches and emblems for the days and festivals of the Church. The names of the months were expressive of the employments, &c. of the various seasons. December was called Midwinter-monath; January, Æftera Geola, or After Yule; February, Sol-monath, from the returning sun; March, Rhede, or Rethem-monath, or rough month, or possibly from Rheda, the Saxon deity; April Easter-monath, from another Saxon goddess, already mentioned in volume I.; May, Tri-milchi, from the kine being then milked thrice in a day; June, Sere, or dry month; July, Mædmonath, from the meadows being then in bloom; August, Weod-monath, from its luxuriance of weeds; September, Hærfest-monath; October,

\* It was not long after this period, that the Schireff Ben Mohammed, called “the Geographer of Nubia,” being driven from his throne retired to Sicily, and presented to King Roger II. a silver globe weighing 800 marks, inscribed with the divisions of the world, revised from all the errors of Ptolemy.

Wyntyf Fylleth; and November, Blotte-monath, from the blood of cattle and swine, then slain for winter provision.

The geographical knowledge of the Anglo-Saxons, appears to have been incorrect and absurd, as to their notions of other parts of the globe, notwithstanding Ælfred's translation and extension of Orosius's Abridgement of the History of the World, and Adamnan's account of his visit to the Holy Land, in the seventh century, as preserved by Bede. Geographical MSS., however, appear to have been greatly valued, since another Ælfred, recorded by Bede, gave eight hides of land, for a volume of cosmographical treatises with maps. Some of the similar works which remain, contain notices of unaccountable wonders, nations, and people; as of red hens near the Red Sea, which consume any person who touches them; of human beings 15 feet high, with two faces on one head, and of others who had no head, but bore their eyes and mouths on their breasts; of men who were eight feet broad; of men 20 feet high, of three colours, having mouths like the sails of a wind-mill; of women with boars tusks, and camels feet; of a golden vineyard, trees bearing precious stones, &c. Another MS. states that the world is 12,000 miles long, and 6300 broad; that it contains 34 kinds of snakes, 36 sorts of fish, and 52 of flying fowls; that the sun is red at evening, because he looks over hell, where he shines in the night; and that neither sun, moon, nor wind, are known upon the Red Sea. King Ælfred, however, was superior to the superstition of his age, as it regarded the system of nature; and

in geography, astronomy and botany, evinces a knowledge as superior as his rank.

The Anglo-Saxon arithmetic, before the use of Arabic numerals, which Pope Sylvester II. introduced into Europe about the eleventh century, was confined chiefly to the abstract and metaphysical significations of numbers, though they had great practical skill in calculation.

So early as the seventh century, the Anglo-Saxons had persons, who made medicine a study and profession; and it is probable, that they derived their knowledge from the Christian clergy, who placed one medical brother in every monastery. Their practice, however, was often of a very barbarous and superstitious character; their remedies were generally vegetable medicines; and they were particularly observant of the days proper for bleeding, which were less than half the month. Theodore, Archbishop of Canterbury, when lecturing there on medicine, remonstrated against bleeding on the fourth day of the moon, when the light of the planet and the tides of the ocean were increasing: and it is recorded, that a physician let his horse blood on one of the evil days, "and it soon lay dead." It has been mentioned, that the Britons neither caught nor ate fish; and even until A. D. 678, when Bishop Wilfred took shelter in Sussex, the inhabitants of that county, though starving, knew only how to catch eels. He caught 300 fish at a draught, and instructed the people in the use of nets; which supplying their wants and prepossessing them in his favour, greatly assisted him in their conversion. Fish afterwards became a very favourite diet with the Anglo-Saxons.

Throughout this island, the Saxon monks appear to have been the best husbandmen and gardeners; and there is a record extant, describing a pleasant and fruit-bearing close at Ely, cultivated in 674 by Brithnoth, the first Abbot. It is not, however, surprising to find, that about this time, ploughs were so uncommon in Wales, that societies were formed, under legal protection, to fit them out with harness and oxen. The tradesmen and mechanics of the Anglo-Saxons, were generally of the servile order, and instances are found of their being transferred, as appendages of an estate, with all their goods. They were often the domestic servants of wealthy persons, or brethren of monasteries skilled in some particular art; but as national bondage declined, many of them entered into the free burghs under the King's protection, which founded something like commercial importance and wealth. One of the most esteemed trades was the smith, including those of gold, silver, iron, and copper. The English were considered as very expert in these arts; and in the laws of Wales, the smith ranked next to the chaplain in the Prince's court. The Saxons produced some very highly finished specimens of jewellery, goldsmith's work, and even of enamelling: in which arts Dunstan enjoyed great reputation, and executed many rich and ingenious articles. Ælfred was also a worker in gold, and taught his artisans in the same branch; and a specimen of his art is supposed yet to be preserved in the Ashmolean Museum at Oxford, which was discovered in the Isle of Athelney in Somersetshire. Curious reliquaries, finely carved and set with precious stones, were, for excellence, called "the English

work" throughout Europe; but the clergy seem to have been most excellent in it, and one of the Kings made a monk who was a skilful goldsmith, an abbot. The art of glass-making was introduced to the Anglo-Saxons in the seventh century, by Benedict, Abbot of Weremouth, by artists from France. The art of making woollen cloth, which was known to the Britons, was by this time brought to great perfection in England. The English weavers were greatly esteemed, and the value of a sheep's fleece was two-fifths the price of the whole animal. The art of dying cloth, too, was not unknown in England, and was common on the Continent. At Rome and Ravenna, and in some large French towns, there were manufactures of woollen stuffs, and iron ware inlaid with gold and silver in the ninth century; and they also made glass. Silk was not woven in the west until nearly 400 years afterwards; but the Venetians began to import it from Constantinople. The Anglo-Saxons had also the arts of spinning, dying of purple and various colours, and the Anglo-Saxon ladies were particularly eminent for their embroidery in gold, &c. There are descriptions extant of a robe of purple embroidered with large peacocks in black circles; and a golden veil worked with the siege of Troy. The latter was a King's bequest to Croyland Abbey, where it was to be hung up on his birth-day. In the Anglo-Saxon, and even in late periods, men worked at embroidery, especially in Abbies. At this time, the art of dressing of hides and working in leather was practised to a great extent by the shoe-

wright ; and the wood-workman, answering to the modern carpenter, was also in general use and estimation. Before concluding these notices of the peaceful arts of the Anglo-Saxons, the inventions of Ælfred, to whom they were so deeply indebted for almost universal improvement, must not be forgotten.

The regularity and system, which characterised every institution of that excellent monarch, caused him to divide his time into three parts ; one being appropriated to his religious duties, another to the affairs of his kingdom, and a third to rest and recreation. To mark these intervals more distinctly and constantly, by a mechanical measure, he ordered his chaplains to make 72 denarii of wax into 6 equal tapers, \* each of 12 inches in length, which were delineated upon them. These lasted 24 hours, the consumption of an inch denoting 20 minutes ; but from the imperfections of the architecture of his time, even in a royal palace, the wind rushing through the windows, doors, and crevices of the walls, or tent-coverings, sometimes wasted them more rapidly, which disordered his calculations, and obliged him to consider of a remedy. The result of his thoughts, was the invention of lanterns ; for having found, that white horn might be rendered as transparent as glass, he enclosed his tapers in cases of horn and wood, and procured an uniform consumption of the wax and

\* Wax or tallow candles were not generally known even in the middle ages, but only lamps, or brands, or splinters of wood, though tallow began to be used in 1290, Candle-light, however, was introduced into churches in A. D. 274.

measure of time.\* The discovery of lanterns, however, has been attributed to an earlier period, from some Latin verses supposed to have been written by Aldhelm, Abbot of Malmesbury, in the seventh century. "Let not," say they, "the glass lantern be despised, or that made of a shorn hide or a thin skin, although a brass lamp may excel it." But this passage has sometimes been referred to the twelfth century.

In Saxon-England, every free man was a soldier; but servile persons were not permitted to carry arms, and the very gift of a weapon conferred freedom. The spear seems to have been constantly carried, and the Saxon laws provided a weregild to be paid to such as were wounded by its being carelessly borne. In battle, the Ceorles were the foot soldiers, having a broadsword, a club, and a broad shield with a pointed weapon in the centre. The cavalry was composed of Thegns, Huscarles, and such as kept horses, who were provided with armour. The most ancient Saxon armour consisted of corslets, &c. of leather, called Coriets, and four-cornered helmets, which had probably been derived from the Romans: but the nation also used scale mail, and, about the middle of the eighth century, tunics covered with flat rings, taken from the Grecians. After the invasion of Eng-

\* The first clock made in Europe was probably that which was sent to Charlemagne in A. D. 807, by Abdallah King of Persia, and described by Eginhard, the Emperor's Secretary. He calls it "a horologe of brass, wonderfully constructed, for the course of the twelve hours answered to the hour-glass, with as many little brazen balls, which dropped down on a sort of bells beneath, and sounded each hour." The Venetians had clocks in the year 872, and in that year sent a specimen of them to Constantinople.

land, the Anglo-Saxon soldiers used little more than convex shields with iron bosses, broad-bladed spears and swords, and leathern helmets; but towards the end of the ninth century, corselets formed of hides cut into leaves at the lower edges, became general. They were sometimes put on one over another, fitting closely to the body: but after the ring-tunic came into use, a kind of breast-plate, formed of leather, stuffed wool, hair or metal, was worn about the neck. Full particulars on the very extensive and interesting subject of Ancient Arms and Armour, will be found in Dr Meyrick's splendid work already referred to; of which an excellent abridgement is contained in the Rev. T. D. Fosbroke's *Encyclopædia of Antiquities*, chap. xviii. vol. ii. pages 756-831. With regard to the Saxon standards, it may be noticed that the White Horse, which characterises and gives name to the famous vale in Berkshire, was probably formed to commemorate the victory of Aston by Ælfred over the Danes in 870. This effigy was held sacred by the ancient Germans; Hengist and Horsa are said to have carried it in their standards; and it is still borne in the arms of Saxony. The Danish standard, is not less familiar than the former: it was called the Ræfen, and was woven in one night, by the three sisters of Ubbo the Danish leader. It bore the figure of a raven, gifted by a charm, to flap its wings and raise its head before victory, and droop them previous to a defeat. The standard of Harold, the last Saxon Sovereign of England, which William I. sent to the Pope, was the figure of a warrior richly embroidered with precious stones.

3. *Danish Period*.—The martial spirit and the



ferocity of the Danes were far more characteristic of their nation than either their learning or their arts: for even those which are essential to life, are but indifferently cultivated by a people who neglect the more intellectual. Alike slothful and irritable in their dispositions, they could neither brook a continued industry, nor a confinement to one place; and in their ancient agriculture, they would cultivate different parts of the country, and then break up all, and make a new division of lands. But in general, they esteemed it effeminate to procure by their labour, that which they could achieve by their blood; and it was not until their conversion to Christianity, and the want of grain was felt in a land, where it constituted the principal part of their food and drink, that the evils of neglecting husbandry were perceived; but then the rich, the noble, and the free, were obliged personally to engage in its operations.

The other arts were also abandoned to the women who spun wool for their clothing, freed-men, the servile, and old men, who still preferred life to death. Their houses were erected near a spring, a wood, or an open field, and at a distance from any others; until towns were formed by building around a chieftain's castle, a temple, or a market. The best of their dwellings were only thick heavy pillars, united by boards, and covered with turf; though there sometimes existed a pride in having them of great extent, and adorned with lofty towers. A palace is recorded of 135 feet long; and the ceilings were frequently sculptured, with the memorable actions of the possessor or of his ancestors; for rude carving with the knife, seems to have been the principal and natural talent of the

Danes. They were not unskilled in numbers; and their maritime excursions gave them some knowledge of astronomy, in which they had names for the stars; as the Great Dog for the Greater Bear, Charles's Wain, for the Lesser one, and the Road of Winter for the Milky Way. Their year and calendar resembled those of the Saxons. Their Runic letters have been already referred to; and it seems not essential to notice any other features of the ancient Danes, because their general character may easily be gathered from the preceding particulars of the Britons and the Anglo-Saxons.

The Danish armour, was chiefly distinguished by a tunic with sleeves, a hood, and pantaloons covering the feet, all coated with steel lozenges; and a cone-shaped helmet. The Danish castles, consisted chiefly of round keeps, with low circular walls, standing on conical hills.

## CHAPTER II.

### LEARNING &C. FROM THE ARRIVAL OF THE NORMANS TO THE REFORMATION.

#### 1. *Eleventh and Twelfth Centuries.*

It was not until the thirteenth century, that education and literature were established in England, with any considerable degree of security or perfection. In the eleventh century, the schools of Oxford and Cambridge,—then called "*Studia,*" or Studies; for they were not styled Univesities, until the end of the following century—were successively burned and plundered by the Danes and Normans. The Domesday-book shows, that in 1086 there were only 243 inhabitants in Oxford, and in 1141 King Stephen reduced to ashes all which remained of the city; but in 1214 it had revived, so as to possess about 4000. Cambridge was not less fortunate; but in the civil wars of John, it was exposed to, and suffered alike from the contending parties. There were, however, several other seminaries of learning in England, for almost every cathedral, convent and abbey, was a school; in which those who were to be monks were particularly instructed in the arts of writing and illuminating manuscripts; whilst in the larger eccle-

siastical establishments were taught Rhetoric, Divinity, Physic, and the Civil and Canon Law. There were also academies instituted in the cities and great towns, as three "illustrious schools" at London, mentioned by Fitz-Stephen, and one at St Alban's, besides the Abbey. From these, and similar establishments, were supplied that famous body of ancient English historians, whose lives and labours, have been detailed in the Introduction to the former volume of this work; by which, also, much of the progress of the national literature has already been illustrated. The Latinity of the thirteenth century, may likewise be estimated by the notices of those writings; but it is probable, that literature had still to contend with the difficulty of procuring sufficient materials for writing. A kind of paper made from cotton, and thence called *Charta Bombycina*, had long been known; and about the commencement of the twelfth century, another sort began to be manufactured from linen rags; but in 1174, the value of books still continued so great, that Walter, Abbot of Westminster, gave to the monks of Dorchester for Bede's Homilies and St Austin's Psalter, twelve measures of barley, and a rich pall embroidered with a saintly history in silver. The University of Paris, appears to have been the favourite seminary of the Anglo-Normans, and it also seems to have been visited by the youth of all nations. Notwithstanding its follies and ill principles, it had some merit; and the authors of the twelfth century, call it "the City of Learning." The studies, however, were scarcely the most profitable; the principal being Aristotle's philosophy adapted to a system of Divinity. From this source emanated the

authors called schoolmen, whose commentaries on the Scripture were to display some abstract parts of it, which might give occasion to scholastic argument. Some of their questions were alike characterized by absurdity and blasphemy; and even the most harmless were such as—"Does the glorified body of Christ, whilst resident in Heaven, use a sitting or a standing posture?"—"Is the body of Christ received at the sacrament dressed or undressed?"—"Were the clothes in which Christ appeared after his resurrection, real or imaginary?"—Such being too often the general education, it is scarcely surprising that even with so many opportunities of learning, the twelfth and thirteenth centuries were marked by decided ignorance and credulity, at least in the nobility who were devoted to war and manly sports; and in the servile who were doomed to increasing labour.

The despised and oppressed race of the Jews, had schools of their own in London, York, Lincoln, and several other cities where they were permitted to reside. Their most learned Rabbis officiated as teachers, and gave instruction in the Oriental languages, arithmetic and medicine; in which science they were particularly skilful, and were supposed considerably to excel the Christian physicians, being called in whenever any singular malady occurred. Their academies were characterized by an extraordinary liberality, though it possibly was forced, since they were open to all Christian children who could partake of their instruction.

There was but little alteration, in the language spoken in England, during the ninth and tenth cen-

turies ; but about 1150 the Saxon began to assume a form, in which the beginning of the present English, may evidently be discovered. This change, seems not to have been the effect of the Norman invasion, for very few French words are to be found introduced in it, even in the first century afterwards. The writing introduced into England by William I. is commonly called Norman, though the characters are nearly Lombard ; and they were used in charters &c. until the reign of Edward III., with very little variation. The hand called modern Gothic, was introduced into England in the twelfth century, though it had been practised in Germany about the close of the ninth. The Normans also brought into England, the custom of using seals, bearing the impress of a knight on horseback ; instead of the Anglo-Saxon custom of signing a deed, either by subscription of name, or by the figure of the cross for such as could not write, the name having been first inserted by the scribe. Copious particulars and specimens of the writing of different periods of English history, will be found in the record publications referred to in the Introduction to this work, and in Mr Thomas Astle's *History of the Origin and Progress of Writing*, Lond. 1803.

The state of English Poetry in the eleventh and twelfth centuries, was extremely rude and imperfect. It was, however, liberally encouraged by Matilda, Queen of Henry I., King Richard I., by William Longchamp, Bishop of Ely, his favourite minister, who kept several poets in his pay, and even procured minstrels from France, to enliven the streets of London by their songs. The works which met with the most encouragement from per-

sons of rank, were probably in the Norman or French languages. As it is impossible, however, to illustrate this subject within the limits of these volumes, the reader is at once referred, to the following established and interesting works relative to it. Warton's *History of English Poetry*, the recent octavo edition already cited, and the abridged notices and specimens from this work contained in J. P. Andrews's *History of Great Britain: Reliques of Ancient English Poetry*, by Dr Thomas Percy, Bishop of Dromore, Lond. 1794, 8vo, 3 vols. : *Pieces of Ancient Popular Poetry*, Lond. 1791, 8vo : *Ancient English Metrical Romances*, Lond. 1802, 8vo : and *Bibliographia Poetica*, Lond. 1802, 8vo ; all by the late Joseph Ritson : *Specimens of the Early English Poets*, Lond. 1801, 8vo, 3 vols. : and *Specimens of the Early English Metrical Romances*, Lond. 1805, 8vo, 3 vols., both by the late Mr G. Ellis : and his edition of Mr G. L. Way's *Fabliaux, or Tales abridged from the French MSS. of the 12th and 13th Centuries, translated into English Verse*, Lond. 1815, 3 vols. 8vo.

Queen Matilda was so munificent a patroness of music and its professors, that she is said to have oppressed her tenants to procure the means of rewarding them ; though it was church music to which she was most attached. This study, had been greatly facilitated by Guido Aretino's discovery of the gamut, in 1025 ; for he stated, that it enabled a student to do more in one year, than in ten by the ordinary method ; adding, that he believed the invention was by direct heavenly inspiration,—had atoned for his sins, and had secured the salvation of his soul. This improve-

ment was soon transplanted to England, and was also speedily followed by many of those adventitious graces, which very early characterized Italian music, and which are censured as effeminate and dangerous by the learned John of Salisbury in the eleventh century. Almost the only musical instruments of this period, were the organ and harp, and sometimes violins with four and five strings. In war, however, the Anglo-Normans used the horn and the trumpet. The history of English music is scarcely less extensive than that of the national poetry; as may be seen by consulting the two best works on the subject, where its antiquities, its improvements, and its professors, are copiously and interestingly treated. These are, the *General History of Music*, by Dr Charles Burney, Lond. 1776-89, 4to, 4 vols; and that by Sir John Hawkins, Lond. 1776, 4to, 5 vols.

The Painting of England, is to be found in the eleventh and twelfth centuries, in the decorations of the Anglo-Norman churches. Stubbes, the historian, celebrates the beautiful pictures in the church of St John of Beverley, and Gervase of Dover, praises those which were placed by Archbishop Lanfranc in Canterbury Cathedral. Portrait-painting was, however, known and practised in Rome; and pictures are extant, said to have been taken from William I. and his family; but representations of particular persons, are also to be found in the illuminated manuscripts, which had long been produced in England. Many of these of all periods, were collected and engraven by Mr Joseph Strutt, in the works already mentioned in the Introduction to the former volume; and his



Regal and Ecclesiastical Antiquities contain, in particular, numerous copies of ancient portraits of English Kings and Prelates. The numerous splendid specimens of ancient English illuminations, which yet remain in the finest state of preservation, give a very perfect idea of the general art of the period before the use of painting in oil. It may generally be remarked, that painting as a decoration, is said to have been introduced into this island by Venerable Bede; and that St Wolstan, Bishop of Worcester, in 1062, or Ervenius, his master, was one of the earliest of English painters. In the time of Henry II., some of the Barons, who were unwilling to engage in arms, are satirised for having their saddles painted with representations of combats. Sculpture is known to have flourished in the eleventh and twelfth centuries, in the effigies which adorned ecclesiastical edifices.

Towards the close of the eleventh century, stone came into general use in large buildings, and even in private houses glass was not uncommon, though it was regarded as a luxury. Arches of stone, called Bows, were in great esteem about the same period. In 1087, the Church of St Mary in Cheapside, London, was built on stone arches, whence it received the name of St Mary le Bow; and near the same time Queen Matilda erected the first arched bridge in England at Stratford in Essex, which procured for it the name of "Stratford at the Bow." The old stone London bridge, with nineteen arches and a drawbridge, was not commenced until 1176, by Peter, a chaplain of Colechurch, when it occupied thirty-three years

in erecting. An interesting account of the rebuilding of Canterbury Cathedral in 1174, translated from the account of Gervase of Dover, is printed in the Gentleman's Magazine for 1772, vol. xlii. pages 259, 312, and 362. At this time London had some few houses of stone, but the greater number were still sheds of wood, called wickes, standing on an unpaved and marshy soil, as was also that of Paris; though the workmen and stone employed to rebuild St Paul's Cathedral in 1187, were from Normandy. The edifice was reared upon arches of stone, and is called by the authors of the period a wonderful work. The few remains of English castles erected before the thirteenth century, appear strong and heavy, with little elegance: but the era of that stately style of architecture called Gothic was now approaching, it appearing under the tasteful Henry III., and his noble successor Edward I. The characters of the Norman castle, and those of the twelfth century, were a lofty keep of three stories, the lowest being for stores, the next for a general room, and the upper, or *Solarium*, for the state-apartments. The next improvement, was the addition of a strong distant gateway, and low walls and offices round the base, to extend the conveniences of the building, and to keep off the enemy, when they approached to undermine it.

The Medical art of this period, as well as the principal practice of the Law, was almost entirely monopolised by the clergy; who, in fact, possessed nearly all the knowledge of the early ages. In neither science do they seem to have excelled; the lawyers were a subject of continual complaint as to their dishonesty, bribery and injustice; and

the physician's want of skill is recorded to have changed the wound of Richard I. in 1199, to a gangrene which terminated his life. The distinction was, however, then existing between the physician and surgeon, as well as the apothecary, which office, Richard de Nigel, who died Bishop of London in 1198, held under Henry II. The profitable practice of medicine, seems to have induced the monks to neglect their convents; since, in 1163, it was ordained at the Council of Tours, that ecclesiastics should not go out as physicians for more than two months at a time.

The agriculture and gardening of this period, were also principally carried on by the monks; though sometimes the Barons improved the cultivation of their estates. Thus, Richard de Rulos, chamberlain to William I., drained marshes, enclosed commons, and changed the fenny banks of the Welland, in Lincolnshire, where he built the town of Deeping, into gardens and orchards. The foreign monks brought many improvements from Flanders, Normandy, &c. and assisted in putting them into practice: and Archbishop Becket and his clergy are said to have assisted their neighbours in reaping their corn and housing their hay. Such employments in the monks, were encouraged by a decree from the Lateran Council in 1179; but William II. levied a kind of land-tax, which is recorded so greatly to have oppressed agriculture, that famine and death of cattle ensued, from the fields being left uncultivated. The ancient English instruments of husbandry, do not appear to have differed so much from the modern ones, as to require a description in this limited work; but it may be remarked, that the Welsh farmers used a

sickle with two wooden handles, and that the driver of their ploughs walked backwards. The art of gardening was most improved by the Normans, particularly the culture of the vine: and William of Malmesbury states, that in the Vale of Gloucester, a sweet and pleasant wine was made "little inferior to that of France."

The Normans, were the most warlike of all the European nations, and William of Malmesbury remarks, that they delighted in war, and were unhappy when not engaged in some military enterprise. They excel, adds he, in attacking their foes when their force is equal; and when they are inferior, they are no less expert in stratagems and the arts of corruption. Such being their character, the military improvements which they introduced into England, were both numerous and important. Their castles were strongly walled, and provided with deep moats or dry fosses, guarded with stakes and piles, so that the soldiers could never get beyond them to fight; and over the gates were chambers, from which boiling oil, and molten lead or pitch, was poured down upon the enemy when they had advanced to the gatehouse. The ordinary way of attacking castles, at this time, was by mining, and by assailants working with pickaxes upon the walls in the ditch below, whilst others covered them with shields. Instead of artillery, they had numerous powerful machines for casting arrows, combustible materials, hot and cold stones, &c. Some of these were the Scorpion, a large stationary steel crossbow, which discharged an arrow; the Onager, or wild colt (an animal supposed to throw stones forcibly by the power of its heels), had, as well as the Balista,

Catapult, and Trebuchet, great power in discharging large fragments of stone; the term Mangonel, seems to have been adapted to every species of war engines, and was probably a diminutive of the Mangona; but Froissart mentions an entire prisoner discharged by a mangonel into the enemy's camp: The Bricolle threw large darts with square heads, thence called Carreaux or Quarrels: the Beugles, or Bibles, and the Perrier, discharged stones: the War-wolf was anciently a frame made of heavy beams to destroy assailants at a gate, by falling on them like a portcullis; though it subsequently became an engine for casting of stones: and the Espringal threw darts which had brass plates instead of feathers, to make their flight steady; but the arrows had sometimes diagonal feathers, to make them turn in the air. Most of these were known under several other names, and there were also numerous other machines, of a similar nature, of which an account, with engravings, may be consulted in Capt. F. Grose's *Military Antiquities*, Lond. 1801, 4to, 2 vols.; and in the *Encyclopædia of Antiquities*, vol. ii., pages 814–819. In the same authorities, also, will be found particulars of those covered machines called Cat-castles, Belfreys, Sows, Boars, &c. by which soldiers were protected in their mining or open attacks. These were sometimes made of osiers and leather, but were generally wooden towers of several stories, occasionally as many as twenty, mounted on wheels; the lower part being occupied by a battering-ram, and the upper floors by archers. The arms of the eleventh and twelfth centuries, were lances and spears; the Gisarme, a bill with a sabre blade and spike; the Martel-de-fer, a ham-

mer with a shelving point, probably first used by Charles Martel of France ; variously formed swords and knives ; flails, slings, consisting of a thong at the end of a staff ; the battle-axe, adopted from the Britons and Saxons ; bows and arrows ; and the cross-bow, which would carry a bolt  $30\frac{1}{2}$  yards. This weapon is said to have been adopted by Richard I. in his French wars ; and his death, by the same instrument, before the Castle of Chalus in 1199, is recorded by a contemporary poet as a providential retribution. The Normans, first introduced into England, the present art of shoeing horses ; for though the Britons had been instructed by the Romans in the use of their Pedolau, it seems never to have been adopted by the Anglo-Saxons. The armour of this time, appears to have been distinguished by the general tunic shape, adopted from the Saxons and Danes, though varying as to its extent and the peculiar form of the mail quilted upon it. The garment itself was made of cloth, skin of the stag or elk, or leather, and the mail consisted of flat rings, or diamond-shaped pieces of iron. The Norman suits, supposed to have been called Haubergeons, cased the whole person in one piece ; but these were supplanted in the reign of William II. by the Hauberk, which was shaped like a frock, with wide sleeves and a hood. Under Henry I., it was extended to cover the hands and knees, whilst the mail was formed of leathern straps, crossing in trellis-work, and enclosing steel studs. It was also worn square, scalliform, and, under Stephen, like tiles, whence arose the term of tegulated armour. The helmets were mostly variations of the conical form, the cylindrical being introduced under Henry I. ; and in

the reign of Richard I., enclosed the whole head with its aventaille, a separate piece covering the face, with horizontal slits in it for sight and breathing. The round or oval Saxon shields were exchanged by the Normans for those of the kite shape, which, under Henry I., were altered into the form of a heart, and charged with the earliest specimens of armorial ensigns. Under Henry II. the shields were highly decorated, and sometimes bore the portrait of a favourite lady; but in the next reign, that of Richard I., heraldical bearings were quite common. Perhaps the earliest instance of their use on a shield which is now extant in England, is the monumental effigy of Geoffrey Mandeville Earl of Essex, in the Temple Church, London, who died in 1148; but Montfaucon gives an example of the year 1109. The armorial ensigns commonly attributed to the first three Norman Sovereigns, are those of the Duchy of Normandy, namely, a red shield with two golden lions, or leopards, passant gardant; but no arms are found on the royal seals until those made for Richard I. about 1190 and 1194. Stephen is said to have borne a red shield with three golden figures of Sagittarius, alluding to the position of the Sun in the Zodiac, at the time when he came to the Crown, December 2. 1135. Henry II. continued to bear the arms of Normandy, but upon his marriage with Eleanor, daughter and co-heir of William V. Duke of Aquitaine, in 1152, he incorporated the ensigns of that domain,—a single golden lion on a red shield,—with his own in one shield without any partition line, according to an ordinary custom in early periods. The royal arms of England, thus became three lions, and have ever

since continued so. The standard introduced by William I., was a gonfannon with three tails, which appears to have been borne near the general in war, to distinguish great personages and frighten the adversaries horses. Those of the succeeding kings, were pennons with forked, or swallow-tails; but at the Battle of the Standard, in 1138, the banner of Stephen consisted of a ship's mast fixed upon a wheeled-carriage, and bearing on the top a silver pyx, containing a consecrated wafer, with three flags, dedicated to St Peter, St John of Beverly, and St Wilfred of Rippon. A very curious and interesting paper on the subject of "Banners used in the English Army," with engravings, is inserted in the New Series of the *Retrospective Review*, vol. i. pages 90-117.

2. *Thirteenth and Fourteenth Centuries.*—The education of this period, continued to flourish in the cathedral, conventual, and other schools already described; and the Universities were enlarged, by the munificence of many private persons, who founded colleges and halls for the promotion of Literature, with endowments sufficient for the comfort of the students, and the support of the retiring master. Not less than seven Colleges at Oxford, and nine Colleges and Halls at Cambridge, were thus instituted; beside 100 private Halls in the former, and perhaps as many more in the latter University. These establishments, put an end to the continual disputes between the students and the townsmen, on whom they before depended not only for their lodgings, but actually for places in which to deliver their lectures; their contests being carried to such an extreme, that in 1231 Henry III. directed two citizens and two



masters of arts to be annually elected, to act as judges upon offenders. The number of students, previous to 1357, was said to amount to 30,000, though at that time they were decreased to 6000; since many persons were unwilling to send their children thither, as the scholars had been seduced away by mendicant friars. Sometimes, too, the society was lessened by emigration, in consequence of dissension. Thus, in 1260, the discontented had nearly formed a new University at Northampton; and forty years subsequent, one was actually established at Stamford in Lincolnshire, which was supported for some time. London itself was a third University, wherein Edward III. erected and endowed St Stephen's College, which existed at the Reformation; and another was founded by John of Gaunt, in St Paul's Churchyard, for the study of Divinity. The Law in particular was, at this period, best studied in the metropolis; where the Inns of Court and Chancery assisted the students in perfecting what they had acquired by attending in the Courts of Law; whilst to each of these Inns there were attached academies, in which they might be instructed in literature and art. Such establishments were called "the Lawyers' Universities," in which the noble youth of the kingdom were often educated for courtiers and statesmen; learning music, singing, and dancing, &c. as taught in the royal palace, whence they are supposed to have been denominated Inns of Court.

The improvement and more frequent use of the English language by men of learning, was probably the cause of the Latin being neglected, as it

certainly was in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries. Roger Bacon, too, when lamenting the darkness of his age, complains that Greek and the Oriental tongues were almost entirely disregarded, not more than three or four persons having turned their attention to them. Logical subtleties formed the principal subject of study; and it was seriously disputed as one of its notions, that two contradictory propositions might each be equally true. Mathematical learning was also greatly neglected, the few who applied to it, or to the Oriental tongues, being suspected of studying the occult sciences, and not unfrequently persecuted accordingly. Roger Bacon, the great light of the thirteenth century, was one of the very few who understood astronomy or optics; but he knew the exact length of the solar year; first suggested that reformation of the calendar, afterwards adopted by Gregory XIII.; was acquainted with the nature of concave and convex glasses; is supposed to have been acquainted with the telescope, spectacles, the camera obscura, and the burning glass; and is said to have spent 2000*l.*, a sum nearly equal to 30,000*l.* of modern money, upon his pursuits in experimental philosophy, in the course of twenty years. He is supposed to have discovered the composition of gunpowder, in 1270; which he concealed under the anagrammatic words, "Luriu mope can ubre," that is to say, carbonum pulvere, or powdered charcoal; but it has been asserted, that he learned the secret from a tract on pyrotechny, by Marcus Græcus; and some have supposed, that it was also known to the ancient Indians, the priests of Delphos, and the British Druids. It is likewise attributed to Ber-

tholet Schwartz, a monk of Friburg, in the thirteenth century, who, however, probably had it from Bacon. There are several other discoveries assigned to this ancient English philosopher, some of which, he probably made in his alchemical pursuits, for transmuting all metals into gold; the delusions of which, have led to the discovery of many valuable medicines, and several improvements in the art of dying. In proper hands, even the deceits of alchemy, thus served to promote and establish real science; and Boerhaave has observed, that no authors have ever treated matters relating to animals, vegetables and fossils, so clearly as those who have written on alchemy. Those great Princes, Edward I. and III. both believed in the power of this art to produce treasures; and the former is called upon by Raymond Lully, a learned ecclesiastic of the thirteenth century, to attest his having, in the royal presence, fabricated a diamond from crystal, in the secret chamber of St Catherine, in the Tower of London. This art, however, at one period, was still farther encouraged, by being made a national profit; since there is extant, a proclamation from Edward III. for the seizure of John Rous and William Dalby, who are asserted to have it in their power to assist the King and kingdom, by the making of gold.

The language of England, in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, was a harsh, though nervous and expressive tongue, which was frequently disfigured by its unintelligible orthography, and almost entirely neglected by the court and gentry, in favour of the French. Even before the Norman Invasion some had begun, in many instances, to

imitate the French manners; the great peers to speak French in their houses, and in French to write their bills and letters. Improved in most other points, by its extensive continental intercourse, upon this, the common people remained wholly unaltered, which gave rise to the popular and contemporary proverb of, "Jacke wold be a gentilman, if he coude speke Frenshe." The nation at large, could never be induced to adopt the tongue; and as the English were far more numerous than the Normans, the injunctions of William I. to establish it, were ineffectual. He ordered, however, that French only should be taught in the schools here; and that the pleadings and laws should be contained in that language. From the want, however, of the national language being encouraged, the kingdom had no settled speech, as the ecclesiastics used a corrupt Latin. On this account, in 1300, Robert Winchelsey, Archbishop of Canterbury, wrote to Boniface II., that he had read his bull to Prince Edward and Council, and afterwards caused it to be explained to them in French; and public speakers were sometimes obliged, to pronounce the same discourse thrice over, to the same audience, in English, Latin, and French, that all might understand it. The Northern provincial dialects, were, however, as at present, more rude than that of the metropolis; since John de Trevisa, a monk of the thirteenth century, who has been already mentioned, says of the English speech, with words extremely well fitted to express its barbarity,— "Some use strange wlaßing, chytryng, harring, garryng, and grysbyting. The languages of the Northumbres, and speycially at Yorke, is so sharpe,

slytyng, frotyng and unshape, that we sothern men maye unnethe undirstonde that language." Ritson refers to an indenture of 1343, as the oldest English instrument known, and to the use of that language, in Parliamentary proceedings in 1388. The pleadings in Courts, were restored to the English tongue in 1362, under Edward III.

The writing of the thirteenth century, was so considerably altered from the ancient Saxon characters, that scarcely any resemblance of them remained; since the Norman letters, were used in all public instruments, from the invasion of William, though in writing their own language, the English ecclesiastics continued to use the corrupted Saxon. To prevent, however, the ancient character from being completely forgotten, towards the close of the eleventh century, some young monks were directed to learn it, as, even then, it was known only to a few elders. About the middle of the fourteenth century, began the use of the written character called the Old English, or black-letter. The monks, or Librarii, as they were termed, wrote books in Latin in nearly the same letters all over Europe, from the twelfth to the fifteenth centuries; but the works of the English monks vary, because their characters were derived from the Saxons. The most general letter, was that called the modern Gothic,—a sort of mixture of the Roman and Lombardic; which continued to increase in size, from the fifteenth century to the end of the sixteenth. The English poetry of this age, of course, partook of the harshness and strength of the national language; and the repulsive character of the spelling, though

probable that, when some of the most perfect specimens are modernized as to the orthography, and accented as to the quantity, they may be generally read, understood, and even enjoyed, with very little additional illustration. The most famous poets of the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, were Robert of Gloucester, the first native writer in rhyme; Robert de Brunne, both of whom have been mentioned in the Introduction to the former volume; Richard Rolle, hermit of Hampole; Laurence Minot, Adam Davie, John Barbour; Robert Langelande, to whom are attributed the surprising poems of *Pierce Plowman's Vision* and *Crede*, and some others, whose names are not known, but whose works are yet extant, and yet admired. The most ancient English song, now in existence, is believed to be of this period, and at least as early as 1250, though some have erroneously referred it to the fifteenth century. In modernized spelling it is as follows:—

“ Summer is come in,  
Loud sings the cuckoo;  
Groweth seed, and bloweth mead,  
And springeth woode's new,  
Singeth the cuckoo.

Ewe bleateth after lamb,  
Loweth after calf, cow,  
Bullock starteth, buck verteth,  
Merry sings the cuckoo.

Cuckoo, cuckoo,  
Well singest thou cuckoo.  
Mayst thou never cease!”

The musical instruments of England were, by this time, considerably increased in number, though the harp continued to be held in great estimation. In the band of Edward III., there appear five

trumpeters, a citeler, or one who played upon a box with strings, which afterwards became a spinnet; five pipers, a tabret, a mabrer, two clarions, or smaller and shorter trumpets; a fiddler, and three waights or hautbois. Other instruments of the period were the ribible, a small Moorish fiddle with three strings; the gittern or cittern, the modern guitar, the psaltery, a kind of square dulcimer, or small harp, sometimes played with the finger, and sometimes with quills; the rote or hurdy-gurdy, organs, &c. Church-music was now practised with energy; and the clergy of the thirteenth century were able proficient both in vocal and instrumental music; whilst the melodious services of the greater churches were considered as choice entertainments, from the choirs of young voices, and the art with which they were conducted. At this period, were also known, the musical improvements of counterpoint and descant, or compositions in various parts; for which were used voices of different compass of four classes, only a third above each other. From the time of Aretin's invention of the gamut, until the fifteenth century, there were several variations of the musical characters; and the discovery and time of notes are attributed to the fourteenth, though some have supposed it even more ancient. Music delineated in these characters, was called "cantus mensurabilis," or measured song.

The Art of Painting historical subjects, &c. in oil, existed in England in the thirteenth century, and appears to have been used chiefly for the decoration of apartments. The Queen's Chamber, in the Palace of Westminster, was ordered to be painted on the "lambrusca," or wooden wainscot,

“with oil, varnish, and colours,” by order from Henry III., in 1234; and there are many writs extant, of the same Sovereign, for ornamenting rooms in several of his palaces, &c. Some of these, were to be “painted with the same histories and pictures which were there before,” which proves the existence of those decorations early in the thirteenth century, and probably in the twelfth: another was to have “the figures of our Lord and the four Evangelists, with St Edmund and St Edward;” others were to be made of a good green colour, resembling a curtain, with a motto in the window; another was to have two crucifixes, with the Saints Mary and John; and another is ordered to be green with stars of gold: and others were to have the histories of Dives and Lazarus, of Alexander, of the Day of Judgment, and of the exploits of Richard I. at the Siege of Antioch. These writs are dated from 1232 to 1252; and in 1239, is another directing 117s. 10d. to be paid “to Odo the goldsmith and Edward his son, for oil, varnish and colours, bought by them; and for pictures made in the Queen’s Chamber at Westminster to the octaves of the Holy Trinity, (May 25,) in the 23d year of our reign, to the feast of St Barnabas (June 11,) in the same year, namely, for 15 days.” These documents are considered completely to establish a much more ancient claim to the use of oil-painting in England, than that which refers its discovery to Hubert and John Van Eyck of Bruges, between the years 1366 and 1441. A still higher antiquity, however, is assumed by the schools of Florence and Naples, since Guido di Sienna is affirmed to have painted in oil in 1221, and Margheritone of Arez-



zo in 1260, the works of whom are still extant. As some of the writs issued by Henry III. refer to the painting on glass, it may be mentioned, that the art is said to have been first practised in England, under King John; and that specimens, certainly as ancient as 1244, of the mosaic pattern, then recently introduced into this nation by the artists of Italy, are existing in the chancel of Chetwood Church, Bucks, which are regarded as some of the most ancient and beautiful stained glass in the kingdom. The first authentic mention of it, is, however, in a writ of Henry III. 1236. The interesting subject of early British art, is most copiously treated of in the Honourable Horace Walpole's *Anecdotes of Painting in England*, particularly in the splendid and highly improved edition by the Rev. J. Dallaway, Lond. 1826-28, 5 vols. 8vo. A most singularly curious and contemporary account of the artists and materials employed in building and decorating St Stephen's Chapel at Westminster, in the reign of Edward III., and the years 1330 to 1357, will also be found in Mr Smith's *Antiquities of Westminster*, Lond. 1807, 4to, pages 181—221. It consists of an extensive series of extracts, translated from the Latin of the counter-rolls of the several artists, and is one of the most extraordinary documents, ever cited, to illustrate the progress of English painting.

The Art of Sculpture, appears to have been greatly improved, during the thirteenth century; but the zeal of the reformers under Henry VIII. and Edward VI., and during the Civil Wars of the seventeenth century, have left but few perfect reliques of it to the present time. Matthew Paris speaks of William de Colecester, a monk, his con-

temporary, as an admirable sculptor; and Richard de Ware, elected Abbot of Westminster in 1260, when he went to Rome to have his election confirmed, brought back with him workmen, and rich porphyry stones for the pavement of Edward the Confessor's Chapel, then erecting. The sumptuous shrine contained in this chapel was the work of a native of Rome, who is sometimes supposed to have executed the crosses which Edward I. caused to be erected in memory of his Queen. The statue of Eleanor, was modelled from herself, after her death; and it has been asserted, was used as the prototype of the numerous images of the Virgin Mary, executed for a century afterwards. Of English sculptors it may be mentioned, that a writ of Henry III. in 1259, directs Master John of Gloucester, his plasterer, and the masters of his works at Westminster, to "make five statues of kings carved in free-stone, and a pedestal for the image of the Blessed Virgin, to be delivered to the masters of the works of St Martin's Church, London, as the King's gift." Another writ of the same Sovereign, in 1250, orders three oak trees to be given out of Periton Park to the Sacristan of Glastonbury Abbey, for images to be made of them, for the royal gift. Under Richard II. also was living John Sutton, a carver, who was employed by Thomas Beauchamp, Earl of Warwick, to alter a statue of the famous Guy, standing in the church there, and to cut on it the arms of the ancient Earls. Two other artists of this kind, were those employed upon the tomb which Richard II. had erected at Westminster for himself and his Queen. They were B. and Godfrey of Woodstreet, goldsmiths, and they made and cast the

royal effigies, still extant in Westminster Abbey, which cost 400 marks, 266*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.* for gilding. Before quitting the arts of this period, it should be observed, that in working in gold and enamelling, there were several splendid specimens executed; and in the reigns of Edward I. and II. there were Greek enamellers in England who both practised and taught the art. The thirteenth century produced that extremely beautiful golden cup, enamelled with figures in the costume of the period, which King John gave to the Corporation of Lynn in Norfolk, and still preserved there. In the next century was executed the sumptuous golden crosier belonging to William of Wykeham, Bishop of Winchester, yet exhibited at New College, Oxford. It is of silver gilt, about seven feet in length, very richly enamelled, and in the crook where there is commonly a figure of the Holy Lamb, is introduced the Bishop's effigy kneeling.

The thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, produced the truest and fairest models, of what is most properly called the "lighter Gothic style of architecture." In those periods, were erected, many of the most admired English cathedrals, as York, Salisbury, Winchester, &c. whilst the number of abbies, priories, and religious houses built in the reign of Henry III. alone amounted to 157. The steeples with spires and pinnacles, the sharp pointed arches, the groined, ribbed, and pendant roofs, the pillars formed of a cluster of light and lofty columns, the lofty windows, sometimes towering up to a lancet point, and sometimes—especially at the eastern and western extremities of churches—considerably enlarged, divided into various lights by stone mullions, and decorated with

richly stained glass, are the beautiful characteristics of the time. A general rule in judging of Gothic architecture is, that the arch is ancient according to its acuteness. The splendour of the English churches, under Edward I., has been described in the first volume. This rapid progress in architectural elegance, was principally facilitated, by a band of ingenious architects and workmen of various countries, who, formed into society under the Papal sanction, and calling themselves "Free Masons," offered their services to opulent princes, and were much attached to Henry III. and Edward I. of England. They were distributed into classes, every tenth man was called a warden, and overlooked nine others, whilst a master in chief directed the whole. They dwelt in huts near the building on which they were employed, and conversed with each other by private signals. With respect to the civil and domestic architecture of this period, it may be remarked, that the Tigel-geworc, or brickwork of the Anglo-Saxons, was of the Roman character until the time of Henry II. In the French and Flanders wars, under Edward I. and II., the Flemish manner of brick-making and building, with high gable ends rising like steps, and terminating in a chimney, were introduced; the edifices being ornamented with bricks of various forms, and sometimes curiously put together. The castles of the thirteenth century, were strengthened by towers and a court of high double walls, which appear about 1241, the garrison of a besieged fortress, retreating to the keep, upon their demolition. In the interior, the great arched common room was exchanged, about the reign of Edward III., for a hall opposite the gatehouse. The

fourteenth century, was principally distinguished by the rise of that stately kind of buildings, between palaces and fortresses, called castellated mansions, which came into general use in the next century. The square court, embattled gateway and towers, and the low round keep, semicircular walls and round towers, continued, however, to appear through the whole of the fourteenth century. The ancient architecture of this country, both ecclesiastical, martial and civil, will be found copiously and interestingly illustrated by Captain Grose's *Antiquities of England and Wales*, Lond. 1773-1787, 4to, 6 vols., a work of great beauty and information; Edward King's *Munimenta Antiqua, or Observations on Ancient Castles in Great Britain*, Lond. 1799-1805, fol. 4 vols.; and in Mr Britton's very numerous and splendid volumes of the *Architectural Antiquities*, the *Cathedral Antiquities*, and the *Chronological Illustrations of the ancient Architecture of Great Britain*. An excellent and very useful abstract of the characteristic features of great English architecture of all classes, from the earliest periods to the sixteenth century, with engraved illustrations, will be found in Vol. I. Chapter VI. pages 72-124 of the Rev. T. D. Fosbroke's *Encyclopædia of Antiquities*; of which the same author has made a very convenient abridgement in his *Tourist's Grammar*, Lond. 1826, 12mo.

The Medical knowledge of England, at the beginning of the fourteenth century, appears to have been in a very imperfect state. Richardus Anglicus, a physician who flourished about 1233, the oldest author on medicine in England, is said to have derived all his knowledge from the Arabian

writers. John de Gaddesden, was an ecclesiastic, and the first Englishman who was made royal physician, which he was to Edward II. His *Rosa Anglica* contains all the medical practice of his time in England. He was consulted by princes, and commended by Geoffrey Chaucer; but some of his remedies are at the least, strange and superstitious. He states that he cured a son of Edward II. of the small-pox by wrapping him in scarlet cloth, and hanging scarlet curtains round his bed. As a remedy for the epilepsy, he orders the patient to be carried to church, to hear mass four times during the fast, and afterwards to wear round his neck the Gospel for the day written on a scroll by the priest. But notwithstanding these superstitions, his work describes the method of rendering salt water fresh by distillation, which has been claimed as a modern discovery. A treatise of surgery written in 1363, by Guy de Cauliac, an anatomical author of France, born in the beginning of the fourteenth century, and physician to Clement VI. and Urban V., gives a curious view of his art at this time. He states that there are five classes of surgeons, each of which follows the practice of some particular professors. The first, after Rogerius and Rolandus Parmensis, applied poultices to all wounds and abscesses; the second, used wine only; the third, as disciples of the Saliceti and Lanfranc of Milan, dressed wounds with ointment and soft plasters; the fourth consisted chiefly of Germans, who attended the armies, and promiscuously used charms, potions, oil, wool, &c.; and the fifth were old women and ignorant people, who in all cases have recourse to the ministry of the saints. Two very curious

and interesting works on the origin and progress of medicine, which will farther illustrate the subject, are Dr John Friend's *History of Physic from the time of Galen to the beginning of the 16th century*, Lond. 1750, 8vo, 2 vols., and Dr T. Aiken's *Biographical Memoirs of Medicine in Great Britain*, Lond. 1780, 8vo.

The slow progress of agricultural improvement in England, in the earlier centuries, is perhaps certainly marked by the frequency of famines; whilst the feudal tenure, which bound the inferior farmers to leave the culture of their own lands, and transfer their labours to the fields of their lords, proved an effectual obstruction to any improvement of the soil. Gardening, however, in some degree prospered, since it was more immediately protected and practised. Almost every large castle and monastery had its kitchen-garden, physic-garden, or orchard, and not unfrequently its vineyard; and it is supposed on good authority, that a superior wine was at this time made in England, and in considerable quantities.

The military forces and the art of war in England, experienced a considerable change in the fourteenth century, by the invention of gunpowder, and by the formation and distinction of the several kinds of soldiers employed in the reign of Edward I. and III. Artillery is supposed to have been known as early as the reign of Edward II.; and Cannon, called "*Dolia Ignivora*," or fire-flashing vessels in Spain, were known in Italy as early as 1351. They were also used by Edward III., and were termed by the French, *Gunnæ*. At the first invention of cannon, the smaller sorts were used to eject darts and bolts, and the larger

stone shot, a ball of 195 pounds being discharged from a bombard in 1388. The first bombards were short pieces with large bores, made of iron bars, and surrounded by hoops of the same metal, welded together. They were wider at the mouth than the chamber which contained the can or canister holding the charge, whence some have derived the word cannon, though it more probably comes from the Latin, *canna*, a cane which it resembles in being a long hollow tube. That destructive composition, the Greek Fire, was also occasionally used at this time; and Edward the Black Prince burned Remorentine with it. It was first employed by Nicetas, Admiral of the Eastern Empire, in 882, when he burned 20 of the Saracen ships; and it was probably invented by the Arabian chemists, though it is commonly attributed to Callinicus, an architect of the seventh century. The principal article in its composition, which was kept as a solemn secret, is supposed to have been Naphtha. It was darted through long copper tubes, which in sea-engagements were fixed on the prows of the vessels, but in land battles were blown by the soldiers; or it was discharged in balls from projectile engines. In appearance it resembled a large tun, with a tail the length of a long spear; it made a noise like thunder; burned with a fetid smell, as well under water as in the air, consuming iron and flint, and gave so great a light, that when it was fired in the night the camps were illuminated as much as by broad day. It was used in 1190-91 by both parties at the siege of Acre, when it seems to have been discovered that vinegar would quench it, and cloths steeped in that liquid were accordingly spread over the ships. It is supposed also to have



given rise to those romantic tales so general at the time of the Crusades, of knights fighting with fiery dragons ; since the cases in which it was discharged were shaped into the mouths of monsters, which seemed to pour out a liquid and consuming flame. Vast moveable towers, for the protection of soldiers attacking a fortress, were still much used ; and Froissart mentions one used by the English at the Siege of Beole, containing 100 knights and as many archers. It was covered with boiled leather to prevent its taking fire ; and when the ditch was filled up, was wheeled close to the walls, which enabled the forces within it to capture the place. The principal strength of the English army, consisted in the " Men-at-arms," or " lancers," as Froissart frequently calls them, who were completely enveloped in armour, consisting of steel helmets, a tunic stuffed with wool, tow, or old cloth, with a shirt of iron rings over it, the joints of which were defended by plates ; and to slay such an one, was the labour of six or seven persons, even after he was prostrate. They were seldom mounted on horseback, unless to join in a pursuit. The English archers and cross-bowmen were armed with light hauberks of chain mail, to leave their limbs free for using the bow ; but before them hung a brigandine, or piece of cloth or leather, plated over with steel scales. The term brigand, arose from the notorious outrages of the wearers of this kind of armour. The Bill-men and Glaive-men, were defended chiefly by a coarse cloth or leathern doublet, stuffed with cotton, the latter kind being called Jacks, from the jacked or boiled leather. These soldiers derived their names

from the weapons which they bore, as also did the Pavissors, from the pavises or large shields of wood, decorated with arms and bound with iron, which they carried. Some of the cavalry were called Hobbilers, from the hobbys on which they rode, chiefly as messengers. This active kind of horse was also named Haquence, whence is supposed to have been derived the modern term of hackney. The principal commander of the English army under the King, was the Lord High Constable; next to him was the Lord Marshal, whose duties and claims were very numerous. The Standard-bearer was to carry the general's banner before him with a proper guard; and an engagement was frequently begun by the command of "Advance your Banner, in the name of God and St George!" To these succeeded the Knights-Bannerets, or those who were made in the field, and bore banners of their own; and the other knights, who formed the cavalry of the army, were next in rank according to their individual degrees.

With respect to the armour of the thirteenth century, it consisted in general of various kinds of hauberks, and padded and quilted pourpoints, &c. with iron rings set edgeways upon it. King John is the first English sovereign who appears in a surcoat; which habit being worn over the hauberk, seems to have originated during the crusades for the purpose of distinguishing so many different nations, &c. and also to shade the iron armour, rendered so excessively hot by the sun. The surcoats were originally of one colour, and were without any distinguishing marks. Under Henry III. appeared the great improvement of chain-mail from Asia, brought over by the crusaders, which con-

sisted of four rings joined to a fifth, and all rivetted, though occasionally it was double. In the reign of Edward I. it was made in the form of shirts and corsets, and was almost universally used; it being impossible for any bow to send an arrow which could wound the wearer of it. The mixture of plate armour at the arms, had partly appeared under John and Henry III.; and under Edward I. there were guards added to other parts, as the knees, &c. they were at first made of leather or quilted linen with flat iron rings, but were soon after turned into plates. The surcoats of tilting armour in this reign were decorated with armorial ensigns, and the armour was of gilded leather. The mixed mail and plate armour, however, properly commences at the reign of Edward II., when to the former guards were added pieces of plate-iron up the front of the legs, and sometimes over all the legs and feet; and other pieces on the breast, to which were suspended chains rivetted to the sword and scabbard. The armour of the reign of Edward III., was derived chiefly from the Italians, and was so exceedingly rich, that it caused many knights to be killed to procure their suits. The plate-mail was in general limited to the limbs; the body and throat being enclosed with quilted or iron mail. Surcoats had been relinquished from their length entangling the wearer, and a close garment called a cyclas, made of embroidered silk or velvet, was introduced to cover the body armour, and receive the armorial bearings. The principal alterations of armour under Richard II. were the use of the Jaque, a chamois leather habit stuffed with cloth which reached to the knees, and was often worn instead of armour; and the general

adoption of the tabard, decorated with armorial bearings. The helmets of the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries principally vary in the quantity of the cylindrical form, conical tops, nature of the visors, and front and neck guards; but there were also several kinds of iron caps, some covering only the skull, over a hood of mail, others embracing the whole head. Sometimes they were decorated with horse hair, and under Edward II. with heraldical crests and scarfs. The shields of the thirteenth century were at first circular bucklers, though afterwards the heater form was most general: they were usually of wood, covered with a skin, and a broad iron band round the edge. Flowing caparisons of horses, first appeared in 1219, but under Edward II. they were completely armed with flank, breast, crupper, face, and leg-plates, and decorated with crests and quilted heraldical housings. Spurs with rowels, were used under Edward II., but are supposed to have been known under Henry III. The weapons of this period, were an iron hammer with a shelving point, called the *Martel-de-fer*; slings attached to a staff, used with both hands, by the most common persons, who wore no armour and usually began a battle; flails, and two-handed swords, adopted from the Germans; clubs, mallets of iron, &c. several kinds of axes and maces, and very numerous variations in the swords, daggers, knives, arrows, and spears of former periods.

It is supposed, that Henry III. had a standard of his own arms, and he is also said to have caused to be made, a banner of red satin, bearing a dragon, embroidered in gold, with sapphire eyes, and his tongue to seem continually moving. It

was fixed near the royal tent, on the right of the other standards, where the guard was kept; it was used only when there was a positive intention to fight; was expressive of destruction to the enemy, and of safety to the weary and wounded. Beside the royal standard, Edward I. used others in his army from religious motives; namely, the banner of St George, white, with a red cross, which has since become the national ensign; the banner of St Edmund, King of the West Saxons, blue, with three golden crowns; and the banner of St Edward the Confessor, blue, a cross flory between five martlets, gold. To these was afterwards added a red ensign, with an heraldical device, in honour of the Holy Trinity. To these notices, it may be added, that the royal arms of England were first permanently quartered with those of France, in the first quarter in 1340, when Edward III. first assumed the title of King of France.

3. *Fifteenth and Sixteenth Centuries.*—Notwithstanding the terrors which characterized the fifteenth century, by the famous civil wars between the Houses of York and Lancaster, there is not any period in the ancient history of Great Britain, more distinguished for the encouragement of Literature and the Arts. The establishment of institutions for learning still continued; those called the Publick Schools at Cambridge being formed in 1475, and the similar foundations at Oxford in 1480. In Scotland, also, the celebrated Universities of St Andrews and Glasgow, were endowed by the Kings James I. and II. in 1411 and 1450. Learning, however, does not appear to have been generally respected, since church preferments were often conferred on the illiterate;

and the best scholars wandered about the country as mendicants, with certificates from their chancellors, exposed to all the rudeness and hostility of the times. Although the Latin tongue was still used by the chroniclers of the fifteenth century, they had almost entirely lost, the purity and classic character of the former ages ; and the monks did not hesitate to coin such words as they could not discover. The Greek language was not to be found in the north of Europe ; there was no book in it in the library of the King of France in 1425 ; and the earliest printed Greek appeared in 1465. The siege and capture of Constantinople by the Turks, in 1453, by dispersing the exiled Greeks, had provided many instructors of the tongue ; but as they retreated only to Italy, for a long time it was not studied in any other country. Mathematical learning was also neglected, but judicial astrology was encouraged at the courts of several sovereigns.

The diffusion of literature by books, was also still extremely limited ; since the art of printing, which in this period first began to be practised, did not for some considerable time either extend its circulation, diminish the price of volumes, or increase their number sufficiently, to render them more easily procured. The merit of introducing the typographical art to England, undoubtedly belongs to William Caxton, a mercer and citizen of London ; though it has been claimed for a press previously erected at Oxford, which is said to have printed books as early as 1468, under Frederick Corsellis, who was bribed to escape from Haerlem, where he had learned the art under John Guttemberg. After considerable discussion, how-

ever, upon the subject, it is supposed by many that the Oxford date of M.CCCC.LXVIII, 1468, has an x omitted, which would make it 1478. This is argued both from numerous examples of the inaccuracy of ancient books, in their dates, as well as from the fact that the next volume which issued from the Oxford press is dated 1479; thus leaving an interval of eleven years, between the first and second books, after which they appeared very rapidly. The merits and arguments of this interesting dispute, as well as a general history of Printing in England, may be consulted in the copious and beautiful volumes of the Rev. T. F. Dibdin's edition of Ames's *Typographical Antiquities*, Lond. 1812-19, 4to, 4 vols.; and the *Typography* by Mr T. C. Hansard, Lond. 1825, pages 74-90. But however the fact might really have been, Caxton is supposed to have erected his printing-press in the Almonry at Westminster, under the sanction of the Abbot Thomas Milling, and probably near one of the chapels attached to the aisles of the Abbey, in the very place devoted to the Scriptorium or writing-chamber. No remains of this interesting spot can now be discovered; but there is a strong presumption that it was taken down in preparing for the building of Henry VII.'s Chapel. Caxton then removed into King Street, Westminster, though the actual part is unknown. He began his typographical labours at an advanced period of life, and his first work which bears a date, was entitled "The Game and Playe of the Chesse: Translated out of the French, and imprinted by William Caxton. Fynysshid the lssst day of Marche, the yer of our Lord God a

thousand four hundred lxxiiij." This is sometimes asserted to have been the first book printed in England; and the earliest which is known in the English language was a translation by Caxton of the "Recuyell of the Historyes of Troye," executed at Bruges in 1471. Sixty-two articles are supposed to have issued from the press of Caxton. The ancient very high prices given for manuscripts have been already referred to; and they seem to have continued down to the invention of printing. There are notices extant of 120 crowns of gold given for a single book of Livy; 100 crowns of gold for a Concordance; and 40 crowns of gold for the satirical poem called the Romance of the Rose. Other literary anecdotes on this subject will be found in the Rev. Dr Dibdin's very rare and curious *Bibliomania*, Lond. 1811, 8vo., and in the Rev. T. H. Horne's excellent *Introduction to the Study of Bibliography*, Lond. 1814, 8vo, 2 vols. The early use of the Charta Bombycina, or cotton paper, has been already noticed; but as the present subject seems again to revert to the material of which books were formed, a few additional particulars may be inserted. Its ancient use in England is ascertained by a registration of some acts of John Cranden, Prior of Ely in 1320; and in the Bishops Registry at Norwich there is a volume of wills, all of paper, dated as far back as 1370, being a century before it is said to have been used in Germany. Montfaucon, however, mentions instruments on cotton and linen paper, dated 1050, 1095, 1102, 1112, 1145, 1153; and supposes that some of those undated were as old as the tenth century. Linen paper was invented in Spain, where flax



was grown, and rags were substituted for cotton, which could be procured only by importation. It thence passed into France, about 1270, and afterwards into Germany about 1312. The linen paper of England, however, which was used for books, was manufactured abroad; and the first English paper-mill is supposed to have been erected in Hertford, near Stevenage, where John Tate, the younger, made the fine and thin material on which Wynkyn de Worde, the second English typographer of eminence, and servant of Caxton, printed the book of Bartholomew Glanville, "De Proprietatibus Rerum." With respect to the appearance of these earlier productions of the press, a very few particulars only remain to be added. They were at first without separate title-pages, which seem to have been printed on detached leaves about 1476 or 1480; though titles to chapters, were first used in Cicero's Epistles, printed in 1470. They were without capital letters at the commencements of sections, large blank spaces being left, to be filled up by the illuminators with a gilded or coloured initial, a small character being inserted by the printer as a guide. Sometimes, these capital letters were formed of several figures, in the shape required; and sometimes, they were ornamented with portraits, or historical subjects, and they occasionally occupied almost the whole page. No points were used by the ancient printers, excepting the colon and the period; but, after some time, a short oblique stroke, called a virgil, was introduced, which answered to the modern comma. In the fifteenth century this punctuation was improved by the famous Aldus Manutius with the

typographical art in general ; when he gave a better shape to the comma, added the semicolon, and assigned to the former points more proper places. The notes of interrogation and admiration were not introduced till many years afterwards. Some other peculiarities of books of the fifteenth century, are the solidity and thickness of the paper ; the number of abbreviations, which were adopted to imitate manuscripts, where they had first been used for expedition ; the absence of date, place, and printer of the book ; the want of signatures and catch-words to the sheets, first used at Venice about 1474 ; and the inequality and thickness of the types, as the foregoing pages, contain several notices of the writing of different periods, it may be observed concerning the ancient letters used in printing, that Caxton's types were made to imitate the mixture of Secretary and Modern Gothic or Monkish English writing, in use in his time ; but the art of typography in England was greatly improved by Wynkyn de Worde, who cut his own letter-punches, which he sank into matrices, and cast his own types. In 1467, Conrad Sweynheim and Arnold Pannartz, the first printers who settled at Rome, printed an edition of Cicero's Familiar Epistles, in a type resembling the character used in ancient Italian manuscripts, which they called Roman. It differed considerably, however, from the Roman of the present day, and it was first introduced into England by Wynkyn de Worde ; but, probably, the earliest work printed wholly in this character was the first edition of Lilly's Accidence, by Richard Pynson in 1518. The Italic letter was invented by Aldus Manutius at Rome, towards the close of the fifteenth cen-

ture, and it was first used in an edition of Virgil in 1501.

The other early printers of England were mostly foreigners. In Scotland, the typographical art was practised so early as the year 1508. When Walter Chepman and Andro Myllar, two citizens of Edinburgh, printed various Poems and Romances; and in the years 1509 and 1510, they also printed the Scottish Service-book, generally known as the Aberdeen Breviary; but it is probable, that many of the productions of these printers were destroyed in the undistinguishing fury which characterised the Reformation in that country.

The schools and colleges founded or brought to perfection in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, were not governed by a system of education which would render their students very eminent either as scholars or as gentlemen: and the monasteries, which were used as seminaries even until the Reformation, taught only the corrupt Latin used by the ecclesiastics. The progress of education was also considerably retarded by the civil wars, as the practice of arms was thought most generally important; whilst those who were desirous of study, were either sent or departed to the foreign schools of Germany, France, Padua, Lombardy, Spain, Athens, or Rome. The time, however, was now approaching when the united efforts of Stanbridge, Linacre, Sir John Cheke, Dean Colet, Erasmus, William Lilly, Roger Ascham, &c. were successful in reviving the Latin tongue in all its purity; and even in exciting a taste for Greek in a nation, the clergy of which, opposed its introduction with the same vehemence, which characterised their enmity to a reformation in its religion. The very learned

Erasmus, the first who undertook the teaching of that noble language at Oxford, met with few friends to support him; notwithstanding it was the seat of nearly all the learning of England. The priests preached against it, as a very recent invention of the arch enemy; and confounding, in their misguided zeal, the very foundation-stone of their faith, with the object of their resentment, they represented the New Testament itself as "an impious and dangerous book," because it was written in that heretical language. Even after the accession of Henry VIII., when Erasmus, who had quitted Oxford in disgust, returned, under his especial patronage, with the support of several eminent scholars and powerful persons,—as the Lord Mountjoy, William Warham Archbishop of Canterbury, and Sir Thomas More,—his progress was still impeded, and the language opposed. The University was divided into parties, called Greeks and Trojans, the latter being the strongest, from being favoured by the monks; and the Greeks were driven from the streets with hisses, and other expressions of contempt. At Cambridge, Stephen Gardiner, Bishop of Winchester, was Chancellor, and he also opposed the introduction of Greek, more on the ground of its novelty than from dislike. It was not therefore until Henry VIII. and Cardinal Wolsey gave it their positive and powerful protection, that this persecuted language was allowed to be quietly studied, even in the institutions dedicated to learning; but aided by Sir John Cheke at Oxford, before half of the seventeenth century had passed away, the neglected Greek and Latin classics were studied with avidity and attention; though Ascham remarks, that, after the

first fervour was over, a bad taste followed, and inferior authors were most preferred. All attempts, however, at the introduction of Hebrew failed at the present. But the attention to classical literature was at first pursued to such an excess, as almost entirely to banish the study of philosophy, the old system being abolished, though no other was established; yet at Cambridge, the ancient scientific learning, was in some degree improved, by the admission of better systems.

The national topography now began to be studied, or at least appears to have excited some attention, since, in a catalogue of furniture which belonged to Henry VIII., standing in a closet at Greenwich, there appear "a globe of paper," "a mappe made like a scryne," and "a mappe of England;" and in Westminster Palace was "a mappe of Hantshire."

The practice of printing, continued to increase and improve in the sixteenth century, as may be seen, in the extensive accounts of typographers and their works, contained in the authorities already referred to. The press of Wynkyn de Worde, in particular, produced several of the most important and beautiful books of the early literature and history of England. He also first printed the statutes, soon after they were passed, though probably not with any exclusive right. They were also printed in Scotland in 1566, though certain portions of the Scottish Statutes, appeared earlier.

The progress of Poetry in the fifteenth century, was not equal to the productions of the very famous authors who wrote at its commencement. In the earliest part of it flourished Sir John Gower, the first native bard who can be said to

have written English, and who is thence considered as the father of the national poetry. The immortal Geoffrey Chaucer, is the first of English versifiers who wrote poetically; though Gower has numbers as smooth and rhymes as easy; and in his works, also, may be found those French expressions, the invention of which have been assigned to Chaucer. After these succeed the names of John the Chaplain, a metrical translator; James, King of Scots, Thomas Occleve, and John Lydgate the monk of Bury; but there are few others worth recording. The chief and most successful branch of poetry of this period, seems to have been with the minstrels, several of whose chants are yet in existence; and may be seen in Ritson's *ancient songs, from the time of Henry III. to the Revolution*, Lond. 1790, 8vo. The principal English poets of the sixteenth century were Alexander Barclay, author of "the Shyppe of Fooles," whose eclogues are supposed to be the first productions of the kind in English; Stephen Hawes, the disciple of Lydgate, author of "the Temple of Glass," &c. who chiefly excelled in the creation of allegorical imagery; Henry Bradshaw, a monk of Chester, who wrote the Life of St Werburga in English verse; Gawain Douglas, Bishop of Dunkeld in Scotland, who translated Virgil's *Æneid* into Scottish rhyme; Andrew Chertsey, author of numerous books printed by Wynkyn de Worde; Lord Vaux; John Skelton, poet-laureate to Henry VIII.; William Dunbar, who has been called the chief of Scottish poets; Sir Thomas Wyat; Henry Howard, Earl of Surrey;\*

\* The poetical works of these authors were published under the care of the Rev. Dr G. F. Nott of Winchester, Lond. 1815, 4to.

Sir Thomas More; and several anonymous authors of great merit.

The English language in the fifteenth century was gradually refined and settled by the productions of the poetical and prose writers of Great Britain; and the works of Gower and Chaucer, of Pecoock, Bishop of Chichester, Sir John Fortescue, Chief Justice of the Common Pleas under Henry VI., and of Anthony Widville, Earl Rivers, is much more interesting and intelligible than that of their predecessors. The same improvement, however, was not observable in the speech of the common people; for as labourers had no legal power to send their children to school until the beginning of the fifteenth century, their dialects became even more corrupt and uncouth, and it is therefore scarcely surprising that the men of Kent were unable to understand the inhabitants of London. A curious instance of this is recorded by Caxton; who mentions of his own knowledge the ridiculous distress of one Master Sheffielde, a mercer of London, when he landed at Kingsgate in Kent on his passage from Zealand, and asked for refreshment, and particularly for eggs. The hostess replied, that she spake no French, and knew not what he meant; upon which the citizen, who knew nothing but English, grew angry, until some one explained his wish by the Anglo-Saxon word *eyren*. Orthography was also greatly neglected, no standard for correct spelling being established, and the same word in the same page is frequently formed by several different combinations of letters. The native speech of England was, however, more generally encouraged at this period, the French tongue having declined both

in its use and purity : but the custom still continued of recording the statutes in Norman, until it was abolished by Richard III. in 1483. Some of the few fragments of its use which now remain, are the usual corrupt proclamation-cry of " O yes ! " for " Oyez ! " hear you ; and the phrases already mentioned as connected with the passing of bills in Parliament. In the sixteenth century, the national language was in a great degree formed and settled to its present character ; and when the spelling is modernised, the writing of the time becomes perfectly intelligible to any reader of the present day. The works of Sir Thomas More were then considered as models of purity and elegant style ; and with this admitted fact, very well accords the remark of the Hon. Daines Barrington, when he says that it was not the English translation of the Scriptures which established the tongue, but rather the Statutes, which were recorded in a better dialect. For it may also be observed, that the Scriptures always appear to have presented certain words and phrases, which seem to have been considered as untranslatable. Even in the present improved version, the Hebraisms of the Bible are kept, though the words are English ; but the Scriptures were in the greatest danger of being rendered wholly unintelligible when Henry VIII. first ordered their translation, since Bishop Bonner to render them obscure, artfully proposed that certain words, 99 in number, should be left in Latin, or translated as little as possible, both for the majesty signified by them, and their genuine and native meaning. Many of them involved, however, some of the most important doctrines of the Romish Church,



as is exemplified in the terms *Pœnitentia*, *Pontifex*, *Olocausta*, *Simulachrum*, *Ceremonia*, *confiteor tibi pater*, *Sacrificium*, *Confessio*, *Hostia*, &c. The whole list may be seen in Lewis's *History of the Translations of the Scriptures*, already cited, page 146. When Cranmer found that the Romish bishops were thus resolved, either to impede the new translation, or obscure the text, he ceased not from his steady opposition and exertions until he procured that famous version to be established, of which an account has been given in the former volume of this work. Though French had long been the Court language, and continued to be such under Henry VIII., most of whose letters to Anne Boleyn are in that tongue, yet some care appears to have been taken of the native speech of England; since every priest possessed of a living near Calais,—then considered part of this kingdom,—is expressly enjoined to teach English to the children of the inhabitants. Some of the most learned men and eminent authors of the sixteenth century, beside those already mentioned on a former page and in the Introduction, were Nicholas Grimoald, chaplain to Bishop Ridley; Sir Thomas Elyot, John Leland the Antiquary, John Bale, Hugh Latimer the martyr; Archbishop Cranmer, and Dr Wilson. The English tongue was also prepared for its great improvement under Elizabeth by Roger Ascham, Sir Thomas Smith, Sir Philip Sidney, Edmund Spencer, and Sackville Lord Buckhurst, who wrote *Gorbudoc*, the first regular drama, which is supposed to have been finished early in the reign of Queen Mary, and was first printed in 1565.

Of the national written character, it may be ob-

served, that the modern Gothic letter was discontinued in the fifteenth century; and that in the sixteenth, the lawyers introduced their own peculiar species of writing called Secretary, Engrossing, and Court-hand, a deformed kind of Norman, the use of which was abolished by law under the Parliament in 1650; and finally under George II. in 1733. This engrossing character anciently signified a neater and smaller kind of writing; and in the sixteenth century the English lawyers engrossed their conveyances, &c. in the letters called Secretary, the use of which is not yet obsolete.

King Henry V. was both a patron and performer of music. He maintained at his court twelve minstrels giving 100 shillings yearly to each; and he took a sumptuous band of musicians with his army into France, including ten clarions, which played before his tent for an hour every night and morning. On his victorious return to England, the minstrels celebrated his triumphs by the sound of instruments, and songs and anthems sung by children in white surplices ranged along the streets of London; but this the modest sovereign issued an ordinance to prohibit. In 1463 such respect seems to have been paid to music, that Thomas Saintwix, a doctor in that science, was elected to be provost of King's College, Cambridge, then recently founded by Henry VI. The art was also royally patronised in Scotland, since James I. is not only celebrated as a performer on eight different instruments, but is supposed to have been the inventor of that beautiful pathetic melody which is so peculiar to the airs of Scotland. The misguided attachment of James III. to the arts of music and architecture, proved his ruin; since he made

their professors his familiar companions to the exclusion of his own nobility, and the haughty Scotch Barons regarded them in disdain as "masons and fiddlers." One of his favourites in particular, called Sir William Cochran, an excellent musician, was executed by them at Lauder Bridge, with Robert Cochran an architect. In the magnificent alterations which this King made in Stirling Castle, one was a splendid royal chapel, in which he established a double band of musicians and choristers; one to perform divine service constantly in that place, and the other to attend him wherever he should progress. The introduction and early use of counter-point, in the English music, has been already mentioned; though it is said to have been first practised about the beginning of the fifteenth century, and to have been an invention of this country. The oldest song with musical notes now extant, is that in praise of the cuckoo, which has been inserted on a former page. The names and compositions of some of the very eminent musicians, who graced the sixteenth century, are still extant; and Taverner, Shepherd, Parsons, Dr Bull, and numerous others, are yet famous and familiar in the annals of music. Henry VIII. himself, too, was both a performer and composer, his large and splendid illuminated Psalter with notes, is yet preserved in the British museum; and beside his poetry, there are extant a motet and an anthem attributed to him, one of which is supposed to be genuine, though the other is considered to have been beyond his abilities. The character of the music of this time, partakes, however, more of strict correctness and of learning, than of grace or any pleasing quality. As

such, it seems to have been extremely difficult to perform; since Dr Burney remarks concerning Queen Elizabeth's original book, which is yet in existence, that some of the tunes composed by Tallis, Bird, Giles, Farnaby, &c. are so hard, that it would scarcely be possible to find a master in England who would play any of them at the end of a month's practice. The origin of this excellence, was the constant practice and use of church music; for even when masses, &c. had wholly ceased, Queen Elizabeth retained on her establishment four sets of singing boys attached to St Paul's, Westminster Abbey, St George's Chapel, Windsor, and that of the Royal household. For the support of these bands, she issued out warrants, like the other English sovereigns, for taking up "suche apt and meete children, as are fitt to be instructed and framed in the art and science of musicke and singing." The musical instruments introduced in the sixteenth century, appear to have been the Regal, a sort of small organ; the Virginals, an inferior sort of spinnet, continually referred to even for a century after; the Cittern, an improvement of that already mentioned; the Spanish viol; chests of six viols, of six strings each, for concerts of that music only; the Crumhorn, a curling horn with finger holes; the Recorder, a wind-instrument resembling a clarionet; the Polyphant, a viol on which Elizabeth is said to have played; the Cornet; the Shalm, or psaltery; the Dulcerisse; and the lute or modern guitar, which remained in fashion until the time of Charles II., when it declined, from being thought to occasion deformity in the ladies who practised it. The church music of England was violently opposed by those rigid re-

ligious reformers named Puritans, though a dislike to it appears to have existed in the nation long previous to their introduction. One of the "seventy-eight fautes and abuses of religion," complained of in the protestation of the clergy of the Lower House, presented to the King in 1536, was, that "Syngyng and saying of mass, mattins, or even-songs, is but roryng, howling, whistelyng, mum-myng, conjuryng, and jogelyng; and the playing att the organys a foolysh vanytye." Hugh Latimer, also, was opposed to the use of religious music, since in 1537, he ordered the Prior and Convent of St Mary's Winchester, that "Whenever there shall be any preaching in your monastery, let all manner of singing and other ceremonies be laid aside."

It is probable that the first and principal improvements in English painting in the fifteenth century, were in the illuminations of manuscripts, both religious and otherwise, which had then arrived at a wonderful degree of beauty and delicacy in their gilding and colouring, and of care and precision in their drawing and finishing. Many receipts and directions for this art are yet extant; but the information derived from its productions are of far higher value, since they frequently afford the best intelligence as to the dress and manners, the buildings, weapons, utensils, &c. of former ages. It has been already noticed, that the invention of oil-painting is commonly attributed to John Van Eyck in the fourteenth century; but from the strong proofs before given, that oil had been long previously used in England as an ingredient with colours, it has been suggested,

that the supposed discoverer came into this country early in the period referred to, and carried hence the secret, which, whether his own or not, has rendered his name immortal. Two ancient historical pictures in oil, representing Henry V. and his family, as an altar-piece at Sheen, and the marriage of Henry VI., are referred to this time, as having been executed in the reigns of Edward IV. and Henry VII. Painting on glass was by this period well understood and practised in England; and, as it appears, to a considerable extent, even by ordinary tradesmen. The contract between the Dean and Chapter of York, and Master John Thornton, glazier of Coventry, which, however, belongs to the preceding century, sets forth, that he was to paint the fine east window of York Cathedral, which is still preserved. His payment was to be 4 shillings weekly, 100 shillings sterling every year, for three years, and 10*l.* at the termination of the work. Portrait-painting was so far practised in France in the fifteenth century, that Henry V. had the portrait of the Princess Catherine sent him from thence, "done according to the life." About the same time, too, the use of crayons was known in that nation, though they appear not to have been adopted in England. The best painters of the sixteenth century in this country, were those foreigners whom Henry VIII. invited and encouraged to improve his Court; but there appear at least to have been two English serjeant-painters, Anthony Wright and John Brown, though there is no record of their productions. There are, however, numerous notices of paintings, or "tables," as they were anciently called, from their broad and flat figure,

belonging to this period, and especially to the King. In the inventory of Henry VIII., a picture is called, "a table with a picture," a print, "cloths stained with a picture;" and models and bas-reliefs, "pictures of earth." One of the earliest painters patronized by this Sovereign, were John Mabuse, a Fleming of great merit in his art, and great profligacy in his manners. His performances are in the style of Albert Dürer, and his most famous painting was an altar-piece, for the Abbey of Grammont, which was seven years in hand; but he also executed the first successful attempt at portrait, which had appeared in England at the end of the fifteenth century, in a picture of Prince Arthur, Prince Henry, and Princess Margaret, when children. The protection and encouragement which Henry VIII. afforded to Hans Holbein, did real honour to the Sovereign; and a multitude of pictures and portraits painted during his residence in England, are yet preserved as memorials of his talent. Other foreign artists, though of less merit, were also attracted from their homes by the munificence of Henry, of whom one of the best appears to have been Lucas Cornelius of Leyden, a painter in oil and distemper colours. In the privy-purse expenses of the King for June 13th 1532, there is also mention of another in the entry, of paid "the same day, to one Ambrose, paynter to the Quene of Navara, for bringing of a picture to the King's Grace to Eltham, xx coron. iiijli. xiijs. iiijd." Under the reign of Edward VI., a minor prince, and in the fever excited by the Reformation, but little was to be expected either as to the improvement or the history of the arts, since few were at leisure either to patronize or to

record them. Holbein, however, was still living, and had been employed to paint the apartments in Bridewell, celebrating its institution; and he also drew the young King more than once after his accession to the Crown. But even the short reign of Mary was more than her brother's with regard to painting, since it could boast of Sir Antonio More and Joas Van Cleeve; who, however, were the only artists of eminence known to have visited this country in the twelve years of those Sovereigns. The long and prosperous reign of Elizabeth was, of itself, an encouragement to the arts, though there is no evidence that she was possessed of much taste for painting. There are still preserved many fine portraits of herself, and almost all the eminent persons of her time; and though the artists who painted them were not always equal to the subjects upon which they were employed, they were close imitators of nature, and probably delineated more faithful representations than would have been done by men of greater talents. The most eminent names of this period are Cornelius Ketel, Frederico Zuccherò, Marc Garrard, Henry Cornelius Vroom, who made the designs for the tapestry of the House of Lords, to commemorate the defeat of the Spanish Armada; Nicholas Hilliard and Isaac Oliver, famous for miniatures; and Ralph Aggas, Anthony Vanden Wyngaerde, eminent for views, maps, and prospects,

The productions of early English Sculpture, experienced so much spoliation, and even utter destruction, from the reformers and their followers, that the progress of the art in this nation, is scarcely to be traced, and many of the remaining speci-



mens are half defaced. The ancient artists, however, appear to have been well esteemed and liberally paid; since in 1408, three English Sculptors, named Thomas Colyn, Thomas Holewell, and Thomas Poppe, carried over to Bretagne an alabaster monument, which they had executed to the memory of Duke John IV., and erected it in the Cathedral of Nantes. The monument, also, of Richard Beauchamp, Earl of Warwick, with the Chapel in which it was erected in St Mary's Church there, amounted to a sum nearly equivalent to 24,800*l.* of modern money. Though the arts under Henry VII. were not fostered either by his taste or his liberality; yet in the sumptuous Chapel which he began to erect at Westminster, the execution of his own tomb was committed to Pietro Torregiano, a Florentine Sculptor, whom he had invited to England to execute the finest parts of the edifice, and to whom that portion was committed by Henry VIII. The English sculpture, notwithstanding, appears to have made nearly an equal progress with architecture, during the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries; which is perhaps most evident in the sepulchral monuments of this kingdom. These were generally executed in fine stone, alabaster, &c. though they were sometimes carved in wood, covered with metal plates, to which succeeded the art of casting entire effigies in metal, the faces being wrought from masques taken from the dead subject. The first of these cast in England, was the figure of Henry III. in 1272, in gilded copper, for Westminster Abbey; which was followed by those of his Queen, Eleanor of Provence, in brass, in 1290; Edward I. and

and III., in gilded copper, in 1307 and 1377; and Richard II. and his Queen, in bronze, in 1395, all for the same church. The figure of Henry V. was of Oak, plated with silver, and a head of solid metal, executed in 1422; and those of Edward II. at Gloucester, Queen Philippa of Hainault, and Henry IV. and his Queen, at Canterbury, were carved in alabaster. The sepulchral monuments, both in metal and stone, down to the sixteenth century, are very numerous and beautiful, and specimens of them, as well as of the sculpture and other arts of the several periods, may be seen in the copious embellishments of Mr R. Gough's *Sepulchral Monuments*, Lond. 1786-96, fol. 5 vols.; J. Carter's *Specimen's of the ancient Sculpture and Painting of this kingdom, down to the reign of Henry VIII.*, Lond. 1786, fol. 2 vols.; and in the far more beautiful publications of *The Monumental Effigies of Great Britain*, by the late C. A. Stothard, Lond. 1817-23, 4to.; and *The Monumental Remains of Noble and Eminent Persons*, by Mr E. Blore, Lond. 1826, 8vo. Beside noticing the perfection to which England had attained in the art of casting in metal; it should be observed, that it was probably unknown in France at the same period; both from the mention of so many monuments of black or white marble or alabaster, almost without a single exception, and from the existing contracts with English copper-smiths, chasers, or gilders, for executing the royal effigies of that country. The sculpture of the sixteenth century, as exhibited in sepulchral monuments, was obscured by the tasteless, though interesting practice, introduced about the time of Elizabeth, of painting the armorial ensigns, and of colouring

and gilding the effigies, to represent the armour or habits worn during life. The style of the monuments themselves was also completely altered; the tombs being then placed beneath an open arcade, with a rich entablature, supported by massive columns of variegated marble. Sculpture at this period was also used to a considerable degree, both in stone and wood, in the decorations of mansions, both internally and externally; and even in the more ancient cities and towns, houses of timber frame, in a peculiar and elaborate style of carving, were very frequent, their fronts towards the streets being decorated with sculptured brackets, and the wainscoating of the apartments carved with extremely whimsical forms.

The goldsmiths' art of embossing and chasing rich plate for standing-cups, daggers, flasks, &c. flourished in the sixteenth century in England, under the exquisite designs of Holbein, several of whose original drawings are yet preserved in the print-room of the British Museum. The glass-painters of England, were also eminent and numerous, and the designs of the most excellent masters were sought for, and applied to windows by the artists of this country. In other branches of the fine arts, there occur engravers of seals, lapidaries, arras-makers, and medalists, particulars of whom will be found in Walpole's volumes already referred to; and the reader will be especially gratified and informed by the original and interesting remarks of the editor on the state of the arts in England added at the end of each period.

The fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, are yet farther to be noticed, in regard to the fine arts, as having witnessed the rise and progress of engrav-

ing in this country. The introduction of engraved wooden blocks, printed with the letter-press, may be considered as contemporary with the art of typography, and of nearly the same age in France and England. In Caxton's Golden Legend, printed in 1483, there are a large cut of an assembly of saints at the commencement, an heraldical device on the first page, and several small engravings of saints scattered throughout the work. Numerous other illustrations occur in the other productions of his press. His successor, Wynkyn de Worde, adorned his collection of statutes, in 1491, with a magnificent display of the royal arms and badges of Henry VII., occupying the whole page; and the large and spirited woodcut portraits of the English Sovereigns in Rastell's Pastime of the People, executed about 1530, and the decorations to Grafton's Chronicle in 1569, have been already mentioned in the introduction to the former volume. The art of printing from engraved metal plates was derived from Italy, of which the ordinary narrative is, that in 1460, Tomaso Finiguerra, a Florentine goldsmith, when casting an engraved plate in melted brimstone, observed that an exact impression of the design was left upon the sulphur in black lines. He then repeated the experiment on moistened paper, rolling it gently with a roller, and again succeeded; after which he communicated his discovery to Baccio Baldini, also an eminent artist, who cultivated the art with success; and in a short time brought it to some perfection with the assistance of Andrea Mantegna. It is probable, however, that this invention was only a gradual improvement of the Italian practice of taking impressions in clay or sulphur,

from certain small silver plates, deeply engraven with the outlines of some subject, and afterwards filled up with a black composition called Niello: a mixture of lead, silver, borax, and sulphur. An impression taken from one of these on damped paper, probably gave rise to copper-plate engraving and printing: Such ancient impressions are in existence, and the art of the Niello was practised in 1452. Engraving however invented, soon passed from Italy into Flanders, where it was successfully practised and improved by Martin Schoengaur of Antwerp; but it is not known when it was first introduced into England. The earliest work with copper-plate prints at present known in this country, is Thomas Raynalde's "Birth of Mankind, otherwise called the Woman's Book," published in 1540; in which are inserted several small engravings, though without a name. The first engraver known here is considered to have been Thomas Geminie a foreigner, whose anatomical plates appeared in 1545, and who is also said to have introduced the rolling-press for printing. Engraving, however, did not become very generally practised in England until the reigns of Elizabeth and James I.; but its progress, its professors, and its productions, from its original to the eighteenth century, may be seen in volume V, of Walpole's Anecdotes, already cited.

The architecture of the fifteenth century, is remarkable for being some of the lightest and most beautiful specimens of English Gothic; the finest instances of which may be seen in the Schools at Oxford, the Collegiate Church at Fotheringay, St George's Chapel, Windsor, and King's College, Cambridge. This period, however, distracted as

it was with civil wars, could scarcely be a favourable time for the improvement of architecture, since they are said to have destroyed sixty villages within twelve miles of Warwick, beside numerous castles which were dismantled or demolished. It is probable, however, that this very dilapidation of the national fortresses, was the perfecting of that far nobler and more useful style of architecture, namely, that of castellated mansions, wherein the form of the palace had been improved by Edward III. The character of a fortress soon began entirely to disappear, and the gloomy baronial castles, which were so frequently the scenes of cruelty, extortion and blood, gave place to the noble and spacious English mansion, retaining the warlike battlements only as decorations. They then enclosed a spacious court of large and splendid apartments; and though the ancient towers, at the angles were preserved, they were surmounted by rich parapets and ornaments. The narrow and suspicious-looking gatehouses were expanded into superb entrances and portals in the centre of the building; and the small and lofty windows and loopholes were changed into capacious and elegant bay-windows, extending even to the outer walls. These edifices, however, at first consisted of vast combinations of ill-matched apartments which appeared to have been erected at various times and by chance: for when any extensive alteration or addition was effected in an ancient noble residence in the fifteenth century, that fashionable style of civil architecture, was adopted, which was introduced under Philip the Good, Duke of Burgundy, between 1419 and 1497. This is supposed to have been the origin of the

early Tudor style of building. In ecclesiastical architecture, the arch gradually became more and more obtuse in its angle, until it was at last nearly flat. The richness of the decorations was now extremely great; the ribs of the vaultings, divided into a great variety of parts, were enriched with a profusion of sculpture and pendent ornaments. The side-walls were very frequently covered with rich tracery to the heads of the windows; whilst the windows themselves were no longer in various forms, but were more uniform, and were divided into compartments with trefoil heads and perpendicular mullions. The chapel of Henry VII., in Westminster Abbey, is a magnificent specimen of the splendour to which the Gothic style had arrived; and it was executed at an expense of 14,000*l.*, or about 80,000*l.* in modern money. The sixteenth century, which beheld the change quite completed between the castle and the mansion, also witnessed that confused kind of architecture, which appeared in the reign of Elizabeth and James I. The interior of these buildings, had likewise experienced some alterations and improvements; and whilst referring to them, it may not be wholly uninteresting, to take a short view of some of the principal features of an ancient English mansion.

The general plan was, that the great hall, that interesting and well-known apartment, was nearly opposite the gate-house; at the head of the hall was the parlour; and at the lower end the buttery, pantry, kitchen, pastry-house and larder, connected together; the entrance into the mansion itself, was directly opposite the gate-house; and in the Anglo-Saxon times, had a curtain to part it.

At the upper end, an elevated part of the floor was called the dais, whereon stood the high-table, which persons of inferior rank were not to approach. The fire was anciently made at the rere-doss, a sort of screen or funnel in the centre. This apartment was also provided with perches for hawks ; oriel windows, having stones for leaning on, where a cloth was sometimes spread for persons of rank ; rushes on the floor ; escutcheons of the arms of visitors in painted glass, set up in those windows, and the royal arms as a usual ornament. The hall was generally connected with all the adjacent chambers of the mansion ; and there was a window opening into it from within, for viewing it at divers times. Annexed to it were the household offices and kitchen, the latter being at one period an octagonal building, entirely of stone with a conical roof for the escape of the smoke and steam, as it had no chimney during the middle ages ; though there were occasionally funnels and vents below the roof. In the Anglo-Saxon period, chimneys were confined to castles, monasteries and mansions ; in the fourteenth century, they were shaped like forges ; and they were very rare until the time of Elizabeth, when they greatly increased. But even in her reign, they seem to have been considered as an indication of greatness, since excuses were made to visitors, and especially to ladies, if they could not be accommodated in an apartment with a chimney. The Saxon and Norman chimney pieces were formed of arches, with pilasters ; in the fifteenth century, such places were decorated with escutcheons of carved stone ; and afterwards became very richly adorned with sculpture both in wood and marble. The bed-



chambers of the fifteenth century, were sometimes carpeted instead of being strewed with rushes; but they appear to have been characterized by nearly the same articles of furniture as those found in the apartments of the Anglo-Saxons. These were commonly a chair and cushion by the bedside, hung with tapestry; the great chest containing the owner's property, fire kept in through the night, either in an iron pan or on a brass dog; shelves with cups &c. covered with a cloth; images either for decoration or devotion; rich curtains and hangings to the bed, and locks and bolts to the door. Sometimes, these chambers were used as sitting-rooms, and at others, were occupied by a whole family; and it may also be noticed, that the ancient Britons used to sleep on the floor on mats, in the common area of the house. This was generally the clay soil on which it was erected, till the Romans introduced wooden floors, and the Anglo-Saxons stone ones; the small inlaid floors of carpenter's work in patterns, were an improvement of the seventeenth century. A very general and stately characteristic of the old English mansions, was a long and splendid apartment called a Gallery, which name is supposed to have been derived from its resemblance to a galley. They are found even before the thirteenth century, and were used in all the varied forms of external sheds; courts surrounded with bed-chambers, as still exhibited in modern inn-yards; walking-places in great houses; spacious landing places to stair-cases; and state-apartments for withdrawing into after dinner, for dancing, music, hanging pictures or placing statues, conversation or private discourse, for viewing

of hunting and other sports in parks, and numerous other occupations of ceremony or of pleasure. The more sumptuous apartments of the Anglo-Saxons, were covered with hangings on the walls, either because they were imperfectly constructed, or to hide the stone and be moveable. They were silken, woven, and plain; some being decorated with golden birds in needle-work, and others with "the tale of Troy divine," or some other martial story. Of tapestry hangings it is recorded, that they were invented in Flanders about 1410, and that Henry VIII. attempted to introduce the manufacture into England, though it was not effected until 1619, by Sir Francis Crane. It appears, that in the sixteenth century, there were few houses without it; and in the reign of Elizabeth, the common patterns for it were the figures of men in fantastical postures, or habited like morris-dancers. About the same period, also, the hangings of chambers, were suspended over their doors to prevent a draft of air, which was probably taken from the Anglo-Saxon over-door; and in the sixteenth century, also, the entrance projected far into the room, with double doors. Halls and chambers of the middle ages, were likewise frequently guarded by false doors, made to slide into the walls, some of which had a kind of spring, to make them shut when a person had passed through.

The houses appointed for royal residences began, with the decay of castellation, to assume more of the form and splendour of palatial buildings; and Henry VIII. possessed several of great magnificence; as Nonesuch, Whitehall, and Richmond. These exist no longer to display it; but Hampton-Court Palace still remains, a memorial of the taste

and abilities of Cardinal Wolsey. One of the regal dwellings erected by Henry VIII., was that ancient edifice in London, still bearing the name of St James, because it stands upon the site of an hospital for lepers, dedicated to that Apostle. It was instituted by some inhabitants of London, as it is supposed, long before the Norman invasion, for fourteen females and eight brethren to perform divine service. The establishment was settled in this place, as being proper for keeping an infectious disease at a distance from the city; since the building stood in open marshy fields, eight hides of which, as well as other property, it was endowed with. In the reign of Henry III., when this hospital was rebuilt, it was under the government of a Master, though the abbots of Westminster claimed its jurisdiction, until Henry VI. granted its perpetual custody to Eton College. It remained with that institution, until the 23d year of Henry VIII., 1532-33, when it was surrendered to the King in exchange; and on the suppression of monasteries, when its yearly revenues amounted to 100*l.*, pensions for life were granted to the sisters. The greatest part of the old fabric, was taken down by Henry, who drained and planted the park behind it, and erected the Palace of St James; a representation of which, as it appeared about his time, is copied from an ancient original, as the vignette on the title-page to this volume. The view appears to have been taken, on the east side of what is now St James's-Street, in that spacious meadow, anciently called the Doune, belonging to the parish of St Martin in the Fields. In front, in the centre, is an ancient tessellated conduit, for supplying the district

with water; from which the field where it stood was named Conduit-Mead, and it was also commemorated in the present Conduit-Street in Hanover-Square, erected early in the eighteenth century. Its exact site, however, is supposed to be about St James's Square. On the right appear the ancient brick gateway and towers of St James's Palace, with the buildings containing the state-apartments, stretching out behind them. They are all on one floor, and the whole character of the building is that of the castellated mansion. Beyond are seen the trees of the Park, to which is now added the vacant space to the left, bounded by the Abbey, Hall, and part of the city of Westminster; whilst Park-wall indicates the south-west side of Pall-Mall. St James's Palace does not appear to have been the actual seat of royalty until Whitehall was burned, January 4th 1697; when it became the winter residence of the English sovereigns, who have greatly improved it. In particular the Park was considerably enlarged by Charles II., who added to it several fields, planted the lime-trees, and laid out the Mall.

The architectural peculiarities of the reign of Elizabeth, are best observed in those splendid buildings which her favourites erected for their own residences; as her foundations are confined to the gallery at Windsor Castle. The principal characteristics of edifices of her time, are described by the Rev. James Dallaway, in his very valuable sketches of English architecture under the several sovereigns, inserted in the recent edition of Walpole's Anecdotes of Painting. He states, that the principal deviation from houses erected in the earlier days of the Tudor family, was in the bay-

windows, parapets, and porticos; and internally in the halls, galleries, state-chambers, and staircases. The two latter were extremely rich in grotesque carving; the ceilings were fretted with roses, and heraldical devices; the fronts of the porticos were ornamented with sculptured entablatures, armorial ensigns, &c.; the wide and lofty galleries generally exceeded 100 feet in length; and the staircases were so spacious as to occupy a very considerable part of the house. The Roman style of building also began now partially to extend itself; groups of clustered chimnies like columns, and parapets made of Tuscan scrolls, were adopted; and the ornament was sometimes wrought into a Latin inscription, containing the name of the founder and date of the erection. Where brick or stone were deficient, the large country manor-houses were generally constructed of timber frame-work; the carved pendants and weather-boards of the gables and roof being carved in oak or chestnut, with good execution and great richness of fancy. The best time of this particular style of domestic architecture was in the reign of Elizabeth, curious and beautiful examples of which are still to be found in the counties of Chester, Salop and Stafford; and many others are preserved only in engravings.

The progress which the fifteenth century made in the knowledge of Medicine, was extremely limited, though it formed a part of the established studies of the Universities. The plain and methodical systems of physic, however, were too often abandoned for the discovery of some charm

against disease, as a speedier and better means of cure: for about 1454, Dr John Falseby, Physician to Henry VI., and a pretender to the occult sciences, received a commission from the King to discover the "Elixir of Life," which was to cure all wounds and diseases, and to prolong human existence. The art of surgery, though it could never have been entirely neglected, appears at least to have been of very limited and singular practice. In 1417, Henry V. authorized John Morestede to press as many surgeons as might be required for the French expedition, with persons to make their instruments. With the whole royal army at Agincourt, however, this John Morestede appears to have been the only surgeon who landed; though he engaged to find fifteen others, three of whom were to serve as archers. The payment of medical talent, however, appears to have been liberal for the time; since a yearly salary of about 200*l.* in modern money, was allowed in 1446, to a physician entitled, "Master in Medicine to the King and Queen." One important surgical discovery, at least, belongs to this century, though to another nation. In 1474, a French archer, much tortured by the stone, and condemned to die, offered to submit to the operation of cutting to save his life. It succeeded, and others followed his example; but it does not appear that, during the fifteenth century, the secret extended beyond France. Perhaps the neglect both of physic and surgery in England was caused by the general pursuit of alchemy by the learned, as appearing to them a readier way of acquiring wisdom, fame, wealth and longevity; since its delusions had not as yet been either sufficiently ex-

perienced or exposed. Its professors, too, were encouraged by the government; and protected both from the legal penalties and the fury of the people, who regarded them as sorcerers, to which they were continually liable. In 1449, Henry VI. granted a protection to Robert Bolton, "for transubstantiating imperfect metals into pure gold and silver, by the art or science of philosophy." It may be observed that, in that year, the crown revenue amounted to only 10,000*l.* in modern money. In 1452, John Mistleden, another alchemist, was protected during his life, with his three servants: a license was also issued to thirty-three Hungarian miners, to visit England for improving the royal mines. In 1456 and 1458, commissions for the transmutations of metals, and composing the vital elixir, appear to have become common, as several are extant permitting the practice of such delusions. At length, in 1511, the science of medicine was protected and encouraged by an Act of Parliament, that in consideration of the ignorance of many who practised physic or surgery without any proper knowledge or qualification, being frequently common artificers, as smiths, weavers, and women, who often used sorcery and witchcraft,—that no person should act as a physician or surgeon in London, or within seven miles, without the examination and approval of the Bishop of London or Dean of St Paul's, and a medical council, under the penalty of 6*l.* per month. This regulation was afterwards extended to the rest of England. This was followed, in 1518, by another Act of Parliament, procured by Dr Thomas Lynacre, under the patronage and encouragement of Cardinal Wolsey, to establish the College of Physicians in

London; of which he became the first President. The art of medicine was then practised by innumerable empirics and conjurors, against whom some severe laws of this establishment were directed: an act for restraining which, was passed in 1543, since it was asserted, that they had been malevolently exerted against such, as administered to scalds and bruises of poor persons gratuitously. Accordingly, a list of minor diseases was inserted in the Act, for which any having "knowledge and experience of herbs, roots, and waters," are permitted to administer remedies. The number of pretenders to physic were, however, considerably decreased, and the regular practitioners became wealthy: so that Erasmus was accustomed to say, that the study of medicine was, of all the arts, the best security against poverty. Two farther encouragements to the art of surgery remain to be noticed. The first was, that in 1513-14, its professors were, by an especial law, exempted from serving on juries, that they might be always in their duty; and the other was that in 1540, an Act of Parliament,—supposed to have been the first passed in any country for the promotion of anatomical knowledge,—allowed the United Companies of Barbers and Surgeons to have yearly, for dissection, the bodies of four criminals. A similar permission was given by Elizabeth in 1565. These ordinances, it may be remarked, differed widely from the bull of Boniface VIII. in the fourteenth century, which prohibited the maceration and preparation of human skeletons.

The civil wars of York and Lancaster, the destructive influence of which has been mentioned in almost all the preceding notices of British arts,



effected also a considerable change in the national agriculture, from the want of labourers, occasioned by the numbers who fell in those contests. This defect appears to have been so greatly felt, that the Sovereign, finding his fields uncultivated, from his tenants having been called out to battle, after several unsuccessful attempts to enforce an agricultural improvement, was obliged to resign his arable lands, enclose them, and convert them into pasture. The great demand for English wool, however, brought every desirable commodity into the nation; and corn appears to have been so particularly cheap and plentiful, that the farmers suffered from its low price. In 1444, wheat was 8s. 8d. per quarter, of modern money, its medium value being 10s. 8d.; and in 1463, a law was made, prohibiting the importation of grain when the price was below 6s. 8d. the quarter for wheat, 4s. for rye, and 3s. for barley. In bad seasons, however, corn rose to a very considerable price; as, in 1434, it was sold as high as 2*l.* 13s. 4d. the quarter. The great quantity of imported grain, had a very extensive effect in lowering the value of land in England; for that which was worth twenty-five years purchase in the reign of Edward III., came down to ten in that of Edward IV., a century afterwards; and the proclamation, offering a reward for the apprehension of the Duke of Clarence or the Earl of Warwick, places 1000*l.* and 100*l.* yearly in lands as equal in value. Agriculture was thus reduced to so low a state, that ordinances were issued for the North of England compelling farmers to till and sow their own lands, and even directing that every one should plant at least "fortye beanes." Horticulture appears to have

been in a somewhat better state; for, during the confinement of James I., the young Prince of Scotland, at Windsor Castle in 1405, he thus poetically describes the gardens belonging to it.

“ Now was there made, fast by the touris wall  
 A garden fair; and in the corners set  
 An arbour green, with wandes long and small  
 Railed about; and so with tree-is set  
 Was all the place, and hawthorn hedges knet,  
 That life was noné, walkynge there forbye,  
 That might within scarce any wight aspye.

So thick the boughés and the leavés green  
 Beshaded all the allies that there were,  
 And middés every arbour might be seen  
 The sharpé, greené, sweeté junipere;  
 Growing so fast with branches here and there,  
 That, as it seemed to a life without,  
 The boughés spread the arbour all about.”

The confinement of James in England was probably not the greatest misfortune which he could have encountered. He received so excellent an education at the expense of Henry IV., that he became a poet, a politician, and a philosopher; and in horticulture, in particular, he appears to have carried with him such improvements to Scotland, that, it is recorded of him, that he would at his leisure times instruct those about him in the arts of cultivating kitchen and pleasure gardens, and of planting and engrafting different kinds of fruit-trees. Even in the commencement of the sixteenth century, the agriculture of England was still suffering from the evils of the last, when arable lands had been for the most part converted into pasture. Husbandry was enforced by statute, though in vain; and individuals were in vain restricted to the keeping of 2000 sheep, instead of

20,000, which was not an uncommon amount for a grazier's stock; but no prohibitions could prevent the owners of estates from employing them in the way supposed to be most profitable. In time, however, the manufacturers of woollen cloth being forced to quit the Netherlands, the demand for English wool declined, and the practice of agriculture was again resumed. Wheat, however, in 1494, was as low as 6s. the quarter; but in 1497, hay brought the very high price of 10s. the load, in consequence of a severe drought. About this period the culture of hops was revived or introduced in England, and used in malt-liquors here in 1525; and hemp and flax were first planted here in 1533, though not with much success. To the sixteenth century also belongs an agricultural treatise, printed by Richard Pynson in 1523, and called "A new tratte or treatyse, most profytable for all husbandemen." It is attributed to Sir Anthony Fitzherbert, Chief Justice of the Common Pleas to Henry VII. There appear in it no very remarkable deviations from the present practice of farming, excepting a deficiency in those improvements of land which modern experience had produced by a change of crops and a variety of manures. The agricultural instruments, also, appear to have been very similar to the modern ones. Another work by the same author, and printed at the same time, may also be mentioned as connected with this subject, entitled "The Boke of Surveying and Improvements;" but neither of them appear to contain any very valuable information. The horticulture of England seems to have been improved, by the bringing back of many fruit-trees and vegetables, which had for-

merly been common in the English gardens, but had been lost in the late civil contentions. This story has nevertheless been disputed; since one of the fruits thus restored, is said to have been the cherry, though a notice of it, as if common, occurs in a work printed in 1496; and Holinshed states, that the north side of London, without Moorgate, had been occupied, time out of mind, by gardens, which in 1497 were changed into fields for the Civic Archers. Andrew Borde, physician to the Princess Mary, in speaking of the roots, herbs, and fruits common in England, mentions most of those at present known; and Sir Thomas Elyot repeats them in the Castle of Health. Potatoes, in particular, were not uncommon; though they are described by John Gerarde, an eminent botanist, who was born in 1545, as a food; and also "a meate for pleasure, being either rosted in the embers, or boiled and eaten with oile, vinegar, and pepper, or dressed some other way by the hand of a skilful cooke." The introduction of one splendid flower in this period may, however, be noticed, which was the Damask Rose, said to have been brought into England by Dr Thomas Lynacre, not long before his death in 1523. The parks of the nobility of the sixteenth century, were both extensive and numerous; and there were an hundred in Essex and Kent only.

The fifteenth century, appears to have discovered to the Sovereigns of England, the imperfections of an army, raised by the feudal military tenures of the Normans, in its undisciplined character, and its liability to speedy separation. This led to contracts between the princes and their nobles, or the raising of considerable bodies of soldiers;

who again went to their own tenants for levying the troops : by which plan, a slow but sensible improvement was made in the English army, since a person, proportionally paid and bound to serve for a certain time, was more easily induced to become a well-trained soldier, than one taken from the plough, whose precarious recompense was only his free quarters. The military tenures were, however, a far less costly method of raising troops ; and the above-mentioned system, was found too sumptuous for the limited revenues of the ancient English sovereigns. When Henry V. was raising his forces, &c. for his French expedition, in 1415, he effected it by contracts. His successes and renown, were in a great degree attributable to the excellent discipline of this army ; but to provide for the cost of it, he pledged his crown jewels, and used every other means of raising money, in addition to the sum granted him by Parliament. Full particulars of this army, and the whole expedition, will be found in Mr Nicolas's very curious volume on the battle of Agincourt, cited in the Introduction to this work ; but some notion of the expense of it may be formed, by remembering, that the daily pay of an archer was sixpence, a sum fully equal to five shillings of modern coin. By the sixteenth century, the feudal service had become still more obsolete, and warrants, called Commissions of Array, were granted, to raise a sudden force against invasions ; when every male person appeared under arms, and those most fit for service were arrayed according to their rank and weapons. The system, too, of raising forces for foreign service by contract, between the king

and the nobility, was still continued, the agreement for which seldom extended beyond a twelve-month. The soldiers were soon raised, and equally soon disbanded, though they were frequently liable to commit disorders in returning when discharged. And, on the return of the English troops after the invasion of France by Edward IV. in 1475, such ravages were committed by the disbanded soldiers, that the King was obliged to attend in person with the judges, to see the laws enforced; not screening, as it is stated by a contemporary historian, his own servants from the halter, when convicted of felony. Before proceeding to the armour and weapons of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, it may be observed, that under Henry VII. the daily pay of an archer was still sixpence, which would scarcely be more than half-a-crown in modern value.

The reign of Henry IV. and V. commenced a new style of armour, consisting almost entirely of plate; though chain-mail hauberks were sometimes used, and their being cut up and added to plate-armour, is one of the principal causes of their present rarity. Under Henry IV., the English armour was extremely splendid; the helmet was still of a conical form like a hood, though several other kinds of steel caps were in use; the shield was wider in the lower part; collars of knighthood were introduced; the bridles and necks of horses were ornamented with bells, a fashion brought from Asia; the stirrups were footed, and the sword was worn at the left thigh, attached to a baldrick or embroidered belt. The entire adoption of plate for armour, appears to have been viewed at the time with considerable admiration; and in 1401,

a Persian author describes as a wonder, the cavalry of Europe being all clothed in steel, from head to feet, so that nothing could be seen but the eyes, —the armour being fastened by a padlock, without opening which, the helmet and cuirass could not be taken off. Armour of this time was begun to be put on at the feet. The character of armour under Henry V. was globose breast-plates, introduced from the Netherlands; helmets with crests and feathers; hoods with openings for the face; scull-caps with various forms of visors and beavers; flexible armour of overlapping plates; gauntlets without fingers, and rests for lances; the horses heads enclosed in iron. Under Henry VI. the armour was wholly of plate, guarded with several additional standing-plates called tuilles, which were sometimes fluted and ornamented with rich borders. Many of the helmets were flattened scull-caps, but there were also some of a loftier conical shape, and others called casquetils, furnished with ornamental plates for the eyes and ears. The shields were made either like long hearts, or were circular targets, and the weapons were long two-handed swords, having various punishments delineated on the blades, used for beheading; with maces, feathered javelines, pole-axes, glaives, and spears of great variety. In the reign of Edward IV. the armour frequently consisted of round and sharp projecting pieces for the breast and back, called a pair of plates, and the arm pieces extending at different parts; cuirasses of scale-work, and the brigandine, or jazerine jackets of square pieces of iron quilted on linen, were also in use. Black armour, both for mourning and for battle, was also used in the fifteenth century; splendid

and fantastic armour for tilts and tournaments; armour was exposed at the funerals of knights, and some great persons were buried in it. The helmets of the time of Edward IV. are decorated with those leathern scrolls, which are considered to have been the origin of the modern mantling surrounding armorial ensigns; but which were at first intended to imitate torn scarfs, called cointises. The chief variations in the body-armour, were in particular parts, and not in the general character; but the suits became most splendid under Richard III., when their outline was most elegant, and their ornaments most elaborate and tasteful. The globular and cylindrical form of the cuirass continued to the reign of Henry VIII.; and the breast-plate remained the characteristic and varying feature in armour until its final disuse. Under Henry VII. and VIII. appeared the beautiful fluted and embroidered armour from Germany, sometimes stamped with arms of the place where it was manufactured, and sometimes with those of the owner. Raised armour also appeared in the latter reign, consisting of a black suit, with raised and polished foliage, which was afterwards succeeded by embossed armour. There was likewise white armour of polished steel. In the latter part of the reign of Elizabeth was introduced heavy armour of thick plates, made bullet-proof.

But beside these complete suits of plate, which properly belonged to knights and men at arms, there occur, under all the above sovereigns, separate dresses of cloth, &c. stuffed or strengthened with iron, which usually formed the half-armour wore by the common soldiers; though cloaks, jazerine jackets of velvet with brass studs, stuffed



arming doublets, or jackets reaching down to the thighs with sleeves of chain-mail, and brigandines of leather or cloth, quilted over small iron plates, —appear also to have been worn by the higher ranks. The archers of Henry VII. were clothed in a shirt of chain-mail with wide sleeves, under a small vest of red cloth laced in front, with tight hose on their legs, and bucklers, and bracers or plates on the left arm. At this period the English cavalry consisted of men-at-arms, demi-lancers, and horse-archers; and the infantry of bowmen, billmen, and halberdiers, the last having been introduced under Henry VII. The clothing was white with a red cross. Under Queen Mary the name of men-at-arms, as applied to the knights, &c., was changed to spears and lances; the former term being transferred to the demi-lances, who supplied their place, and wore steel fronts. Of her foot-soldiers, the pikemen wore breast-plates, with kirtles called tassets, gauntlets, gorgets, and steel hats; the archers had brigandines of light blue stuffs, quilted over iron back and breast-plates, a steel scull-cap, a bow, and a sheaf of twenty-four arrows: and the black-billmen, or halberdiers, were habited in a steel hat named a morion, and what were called almaine-rivets, or armour of small bands of plate laid over each other. Under Elizabeth some part of the armour seems to have disappeared, the suits seldom reaching below the legs; and the horse-armour which had long continued very rich and full, was in this reign disused in Germany.

The characteristics of the very numerous offensive weapons used in the fifteenth and sixteenth

centuries, are too many to be inserted within the present limits. A few of the principal weapons, however, may be mentioned, omitting the countless varieties and multitudes of swords, knives, daggers, axes with crescent blades, blades on staves, maces, quarter-staves, lances, pikes, flails, and javelins. Under Henry IV. appeared a large martel, or hammer, called the Besague, apparently intended more for throwing than combat. In the reign of Edward IV. are found garnished spears, having a head called a coronal, a vamplate, or round piece of iron to protect the hand, and gripers or coverings of velvet to hold by. A curious weapon of the time of Henry VIII. was named a Sword-breaker, having a pommel, hilt, guard, and scymitar blade, jagged like a saw. It contained a spring which held fast the enemy's sword, whenever it entered the teeth, and by moving the spring it was soon broken. At this time were also used the pole-axe, said to have been originally brought from Poland, which consisted only of a hammer and axe with a spear. The mall, or mallet of lead, bound with iron, which was used by the archers; and the partisan, a kind of long and broad-bladed spear, were also now introduced. Under Edward VI. are found holy water sprinkles, or staves with cylindrical heads, covered with spikes, and a spear at the end; but the mace was now exchanged for the pistol, which was also inserted in bucklers instead of a spike. There was, however, as yet, no very strong desire for the general use of fire-arms, the long-bow being considered as fully equal.

The badness of the roads, and the strength of the castles in Europe, when added to the extreme

weight and inconvenience of the ancient artillery, and the cost of gunpowder, formed the reasons for the long-continued preference, given to the projectile engines used in the old English wars. Even the first employment of the Bombards in the fourteenth century, were upon the same principle, namely, to throw balls of lead or stone over the walls of a town to demolish its buildings, but their range extended to little more than 300 yards. In the fifteenth century, the ammunition of these pieces continued to be of the same material, since an order is yet extant of 1418, for making at Maidstone, in Kent, 7000 stone bullets for the King's ordnance. Through the whole of this period, too, there appears to have been no invention for raising or depressing the bombards, as they were fixed nearly upright in a wooden frame; but they were sometimes of a very considerable size, as, in 1478, one carried a ball of 500 pounds weight from the Bastile at Paris to Charenton. Cannon were not used in the field until the fifteenth century, when the English appear to have employed several kinds of pieces. Some were small bombards on carriages, raised or depressed by a wooden block; and these were frequently transported in machines called Carts of Guns, or mounted on battlements, whence they fired stone balls, iron bars, and quarrels headed with brass. The culverine is generally understood to signify the larger kind of cannon; but it also implies a light artillery, carried by one, and sometimes two men; since it was used thus at the battle of Morat, in 1470, when 10,000 Swiss were armed with such pieces. In this form the culverine seems to have been the original of the match-lock, it being

an iron tube embedded in a flat piece of timber, the end of which formed a handle; and it was sometimes supported on four legs, and sometimes hung between the points of an iron fork, like a swivel. The general form of the earliest cannon, was that of mere cylinders fixed on sledges, being often composed of rolled iron plates, iron bars, or even of jacked leather hooped, which could nevertheless be fired, because they were loaded by chambers fixed in at the breech. The ancient artillery was all of foreign manufacture; but though Henry VII. and VIII. engaged Flemish gunners to teach the art of firing it, their knowledge was very imperfect; and even in the sixteenth century, the ordnance in a battle seldom made more than one discharge, the cavalry being able to attack them before they were reloaded. In 1543, aliens were employed in casting great brass ordnance, though one John Owen is said to have done so in 1521; and in 1626, Arnold Rotespen had a patent for making guns in a manner unknown in England. Balls of iron, lead, and stone, ladles and sponges, are of the time of Henry VIII.; in whose reign also commenced the distinction between field-pieces and battering pieces, or those above twelve-pounders. In the same period were known the numerous grotesque and sanguinary names of Sacars, Scorpions, Falcons, Murtherers, &c. assigned to the old artillery, which were from those monstrous tubes already mentioned, as employed in ejecting the Greek fire. To this class of fire-arms it remains only to be added, that bombs were invented in the fourteenth century; and were at first of brass, opening with hinges, being intended to beat down buildings in its fall, breaking

and destroying everything around it by the broken metal scattered in its explosion: that carcasses for burning a town with fire-balls, were contrived soon after bombs: grenades, for the same purpose of conflagration, are said to have been first used in 1594, when the howitzer was invented by the Germans: and that the peterd, for forcing open castle-gates, was devised in France a short time before 1579, soon after which it was introduced into England.

The use of portable fire-arms in this nation, appears to have been known in 1440 or 1446, when they were called hand-guns, and made of brass; but they are said to have been first employed at the siege of Lucca in 1430. The earliest kind used in England appears to have been the scorpion, named a hand-cannon, and consisting of a tube for firing gunpowder. Towards the end of the reign of Edward IV. appeared the harquebuse, with a trigger and cock holding the match; and in the time of Henry VII., its strait stock was first formed into a broad butt-end, for holding it steadily against the shoulder. When the butt was hooked or turned downwards, it was called a hackbutt, and the smaller sort demi-hags. In 1512, these pieces were fired by a lighted cord or match, but without a rest; and it was ordered by statute in 1541, that they should not be under three quarters of a yard long. The demi-haques, being smaller pieces, gave rise to pistols; which were invented during the latter part of this reign at Pistoia in Tuscany, by Camillo Vitelli. For the invention of the Musquet, several different periods have been assigned; though it is generally allowed to have been adopted from Spain in the sixteenth

century. Some refer it to the battle of Bicoigne in 1521; others to the reign of Francis I, though they did not become common until about 1567; and others to the Duke of Alva in the Netherlands in 1569. Soon after its invention, however, it was adopted in England, where it speedily supplanted the harquebuse; and small wooden arrows called Spirites, were shot from it with great success. The length and weight of these early pieces introduced Rests, a kind of fork stuck into the ground before the soldier when the musket was fired, and carried in the right hand in marching. Some of these were armed with a sword-blade, called a Swine's feather, for keeping off the cavalry; which in the time of Charles II. was used as a separate weapon to fix on the muzzle of the gun, and became the origin of the bayonet, so called from being manufactured at Bayonne. They were first introduced into the French army in 1671, and in England superseded the pike. In addition to the previous notice of the Pistol, it may be observed, that it is mentioned in 1544; that it was used by the Germans before the French; that the most ancient are of iron, excepting the ramrod, very thick in the barrels, and having iron hooks to hang them to the girdles; and that a second pistol was given to horse-soldiers in the reign of Elizabeth. Of the means used for discharging fire-arms, the match-lock and separate match, have been already mentioned. In the time of Henry VIII., was invented the wheel-lock in Italy, for producing sparks of fire by a notched wheel of steel grating against a flint, the wheel being wound up by an instrument called a Spanner. This contrivance lasted until the time of Charles II., when the

wheel was exchanged for a steel hammer, which formed the Snap-haunce lock; about 1669, the modern firelock is supposed to have come into use. To this very extended article it remains only to be added, that until the invention of cartridge-boxes, belts called Bandoleers were worn over the left shoulders; consisting of twelve small cylindrical tin or leathern boxes, each holding a charge of powder. Flasks were also carried for priming-powder, and a bag for bullets: cartridges were generally adopted about 1680, and the first cartridge-boxes were worn round the waist.

With respect to the banners of the fifteenth century, it may be noticed, that the principal one used by Henry V. at Agincourt, preceded the Royal presence on a car; it being too heavy to be otherwise carried. The armorial ensigns of the same Sovereign, are remarkable for being the first wherein the Fleurs-de-lys in the Coat of France are reduced to three, as they have ever since remained. Henry VI. adopted the present motto of "Dieu et mon droit;" under Henry VIII. the golden lion was first assumed as the dexter royal supporter; and the Lion Crest was re-established by Elizabeth.

## CHAPTER III.

## LITERATURE AND ARTS OF ENGLAND, IN THE SEVENTEENTH AND EIGHTEENTH CENTURIES.

THE extent of the Antiquarian notices upon these subjects, contained in the former Chapters, have left but a very limited space for the continuance of the subject in the present. This, however, is perhaps of the less importance; since, if there be more to narrate, the information is more copious, and more easily to be procured than the memoirs of ancient times contained in the preceding pages.

If the literature of the reign of James I. were of an imperfect character, it was certainly more from the prevalence of a bad taste, than from the want of eminent and learned authors. The best erudition of the age, was the study of the ancients; which, however, probably tended to introduce the pedantry, and forced conceits and sentiments, so prevalent in the writing of the time. The English language, after having been improved by Spenser, and Sir Philip Sidney, and almost rendered perfect by Richard Hooker in his immortal books of the Ecclesiastical Polity, had begun, after the middle of the reign of Elizabeth, to lose some of its own native stamina, being moulded by every



writer according to his own fancy. The Latin idiom, which had made some of its innovating progress in the last reign, greatly increased under James I., who was himself infected with the bad taste of his time. The prose composition has been considered to be more imperfect than the verse; for the purest language spoken in the Courts of Elizabeth and James I., is thought to have differed but little from the best of modern times; and therefore the unpolished and Latinised prose of the seventeenth century, has been attributed to the imperfect knowledge of the authors. But the English tongue could still boast of Shakspeare, Ben Jonson, Edward Fairfax, the translator of Tasso; Sir John Harrington, who rendered Ariosto into British verse; Dr Donne, whose wit and deep feeling thrown into his lines, are almost entirely obscured by an uncommon harsh and uncouth expression; Dr Joseph Hall, Bishop of Exeter, the first author of satires in English; Sir Walter Raleigh; Burton, who wrote the curious and learned Anatomy of Melancholy, Beaumont and Fletcher; Owen Feltham, and Lord Bacon. The last was one of the greatest glories of the literature of this period. He wrote more in Latin than in English, and perhaps had more strength than elegance in either; but he is rendered famous by the great variety of his talents as a public speaker, a statesman, a wit, a courtier, an author, a philosopher, and a companion. The Civil wars of the seventeenth century, were but little more favourable to the interests of literature, than those of the fifteenth; though learning was more generally and more accurately esteemed. Charles I. was a lover and promo-

ter of letters,—he was himself a good scholar,—wrote well in English for his time, and has even been strongly accused of having more regard to the purity of language, than actually became his exalted station. Nor was Cromwell himself wholly insensible to literary merit. Archbishop Usher received a pension from him; Andrew Marvell and Milton were in his service; and the latter always affirmed of him, that he was not so illiterate as was commonly supposed. He gave 100*l.* yearly to the Professor of Divinity at Oxford; and it is said, that he intended to have erected at Durham a college for the northern counties of England. The literary characters of the period were, in many instances, great and eminent; the most splendid of whom was Milton, though he received not in his life the reputation he deserved. Edmund Waller was the first refiner of English poetry, or at least of rhyme; their principal features being gaiety, wit, and ingenuity. Cowley was more admired during his life than Milton, and more celebrated after his death; he possessed great force of thought, but he was corrupted by the bad taste of his time. Sir John Denham had a loftiness and vigour, which had scarcely been attained by any previous poet who wrote in rhyme. The *Oceana* of James Harrington was political romance, well adapted to an age when the systems of imaginary republics occupied so much attention; and even to the present day, it is admired as a work of considerable genius. There was also much fine writing in the English language, both under Charles I. and II., by William Chillingworth, in his “*Religion of Protestants, a safe way to Salvation*;” in Cleveland’s noble letter to Oliver Cromwell; in

the famous histories of Lord Clarendon, and the eloquent piety of Jeremy Taylor; in the abstract philosophy of Dr Henry More; in the orthodox and learned divinity of Isaac Barrow; in the perennial exposition of Bishop Pearson; in the still popular works of Tillotson, in the courtly volumes of Sir William Temple; and even in the wild and ill-minded philosophy of Thomas Hobbes. The time of Charles II. has sometimes been considered as the Augustan age of English literature, though, perhaps, that honour belongs rather to the eighteenth century; as having still greater purity and simplicity of language, divested of much of that coarseness of expression, and that extravagance and folly, which seem to have been almost naturally produced by the sudden removal of that long restriction of theatrical amusements in England, when freedom was again given to wit and ingenuity, and men were so desirous and willing to be pleased, that they accepted all which was offered them with less taste than avidity. The absurdity and wildness of such productions, were exposed and ridiculed, by the Duke of Buckingham's Rehearsal; which at length partly succeeded in reforming the national literature, though it was still defective in correctness and delicacy. The authors of the period exhibit much fine genius, corrupted by the bad taste to which they were forced to conform, as may be observed in the eloquent and spirited works of Dryden, the energetical satire of Lord Rochester, the comic talent of Wycherley, and the pathetic powers of Otway. There were other authors of the time, who wrote with good taste, as the Marquis of Halifax, and the Earls of Mulgrave, Dorset, and Roscommon,

though their productions are more limited in extent, or slighter in the character of their composition. It is thus evident, that the most painful parts of the view of the literature of this period, are the false but powerful taste of the age which produced it, and the melancholy fate of some of its most eminent geniuses. Samuel Butler, whose pleasant and learned *Hudibras*, is written for all times, whilst in its own, it had so prodigious an effect in advancing the Royal cause,—lived in obscurity, and died in want. Dryden, was to the last, only supported, and supported only, by his writings. And Otway, had not even that good fortune, but experienced the singular fate of dying literally of hunger.

The very high excellence of the literature of the eighteenth century, is so generally known, admitted, and esteemed, that it would be lavish of the limited space of these volumes, to enter into that, which requires so considerable an extent, properly to display it. The language of the country, now became rapidly improved to its best and purest style, by the compositions of Addison, Swift, Pope, whose verse carried it almost to absolute perfection, Dr South, Locke, Hume, Bishop Berkeley, Dr Johnson, and his famous contemporaries, including the malevolent, though splendid and unknown Junius. The best means for judging of the progressive improvement of the tongue, and the character of the literature of the several periods, is evidently by a perusal of the works which they have produced. But without entering upon so extensive a course of reading, a copious and correct general view may be obtained, by consulting the poetical collections already cited, and the following authorities used

in compiling the preceding notices. Hume's character of the arts and manners of England, under its several sovereigns, introduced in his history. Dr Johnson's History and specimens of the English Language, prefixed to his Dictionary, with additions, by the Rev. H. J. Todd, Lond. 1818, 4to, vol. I.; Mr George Burnett's *Specimens of English Prose Writers, from the earliest times to the close of the seventeenth century, with sketches biographical and literary, including an account of books as well as of their authors*, Lond. 1807, 8vo, 3 vols.; and Dr Southey's *Specimens of the Later English Poets, with preliminary notices*, Lond. 1807, 8vo, 3 vols., extending from Otway to Cowper. That well known selection from the works of the English Authors, entitled *Elegant Extracts*, in Prose, Verse, and Epistles, may also be consulted with advantage, as well as the collections of the Poets and Essayists, edited by Mr Alexander Chalmers, and the series of *British Prose Writers*, published by Mr Sharpe in 25 volumes, 1819-21, 18mo.

Sir John Hawkins considered, that the best age of music in Europe, was from the middle of the sixteenth to the beginning of the seventeenth century; when, a vicious taste was introduced with a variety of treble instruments, and vocal harmony was almost irrecoverably wounded. In this period, flourished some of the most eminent Italian masters, as Luca Marenzio, Monteverde, Orazio Vecchi, Cifra, the Prince of Venosa, Palestrina, &c. For the honour of England, too, their contemporaries were Thomas Tallis and William Bird, organists to Elizabeth's Chapel, the latter of whom

composed the famous canon of "Non nobis, Domine!" beside the celebrated musicians mentioned in the preceding chapter. These were followed by Wilbye, Weelkes, Bennet, Morley, Bateson, and others, whose works exhibit deep skill and fine inventions in the more elegant kinds of composition as madrigals, canzonets, &c. In the seventeenth century, appear John Wilson, Charles Colman, Thomas Mace, John Playford, the elder Milton, Nicholas Laniere, and Henry Lawes, the Purcell of his age, whom Charles I. called the father of music, and who had not been surpassed by any musician before him. At the same period, too, music was so well and generally understood, that a person who had either voice or ear, and of a liberal education, was supposed to be able to sing his part at sight, and play it on the viol or lute. These appear to have been some of the principal instruments of the seventeenth century, when the violin was but little known in England. The Bass-viol, called also Basso-da-Gamba, or Leg-viol, was a Neapolitan invention, having, in 1683, six strings, and frets made of gut, dipped in warm glue tied round the neck, to be pressed by the finger behind, it was played in fantasias, and alone, to accompany the voice. After the practice of singing madrigals had ceased, concerts of viols were the usual entertainments; and gentlemen in private meetings played three, four, or five parts with viols, as treble, tenor, counter-tenor, and bass, accompanied by an organ, virginal, or harpsichord. Even after the introduction of the violin, it was long abandoned to ordinary fiddlers, and not admitted into the viol-concerts, though at length it wholly superseded them; and after they declined, the

King of France and Charles II. had a concert of 24 violins playing to them during dinner. The whole cathedral-service was first set to music by John Marbecke, Organist of Windsor, in 1550; and in the end of the same century, Palestrina introduced the present noble style, by reducing the ecclesiastic chant to the most extended notes in music, called the long, the breve, and the semi-breve, after which the introduction of the violin and other instruments gave a new character to church music. Having been wholly suppressed by the Puritans, when it was revived after the restoration, few could perform it; and Charles II. introduced into it certain solo anthems, and movements in advancing measure, called courant-time, the taste for which, he had acquired in France. The performance of music in England, was long confined to the service of the church, theatrical entertainments, or private practice; and with the exception of a music meeting at Oxford, during the Interregnum, there appear to have been no assemblies in England, for improvement of the art, until after the Restoration. The first in London, is believed to have been those, held in the coal-loft of the celebrated Thomas Britton, at Clerkenwell, which began in 1678, when the famous Henry Purcell flourished; after which, the practice and understanding of music both increased, so that by the commencement of the eighteenth century, many persons of distinction, were great proficient on the viol-da-gamba and flute. The latter instrument was long carried and played upon by gentlemen, but about 1710 it began to be abandoned to inferior persons. Italian music also had, by that time, made some considerable progress in England; in

that year, arrived Handel, to reside in the nation, and in that year, first assembled an eminent musical society, which met at the Crown and Anchor tavern in the Strand. It has been supposed, that the entertainment of the opera was established in England soon after the Restoration; and Evelyn in his Diary, January 5th 1673-74, mentions, that he saw "an Italian opera in musique the first that had been in England of this kind." Sir John Hawkins, however, knew nothing of this evidence, and affirms that the first opera, truly so called, was *Arsinoë*, performed at Drury-Lane in 1707, and composed by Thomas Clayton, one of the band of William III. In the subsequent early performances of this entertainment, the words were English and the music Italian; and who was the first writer of Italian operas in England, is now known only in the instance of *Etearco*, which was composed by Haym, and represented in 1711. The first attempt at an English opera, was made by Sir William Davenant, in 1656; and consisted of several orations in prose, interspersed with vocal and instrumental music. It is probably the piece mentioned by Evelyn, May 6th 1659, as "a new opera, after y<sup>e</sup> Italian way, in recitative music and sceanes; much inferior to y<sup>e</sup> Italian composure and magnificence." In concluding these notices, it remains only to be added, that music, and especially Italian composures, were greatly encouraged in England, both from the institution of gardens and public concerts, and from the talents and exertions of Bononcini, Dr Pepusch, Dr Greene, Martini, Anastatia Robinson, afterwards Countess of Peterborough, Senesino, Cuzzoni, Faustina, Geminiani, &c.



In the commencement of the seventeenth century, the art of Painting in England did little more than maintain the reputation, which it had acquired under Holbein, Zuccaro, and Mr Antonio More ; but it was still chiefly supported by foreign artists, as Paul Vansomer and Daniel Mytens, though Cornelius Jansen, a lively colourist and faithful portrait-painter, was a native of London, and foreign only in his extraction and name. Miniature-painting, was also practised in perfection, by two British Artists, Hilliard, who has been already mentioned, and Peter Oliver, the gifted son of Isaac, who flourished under Queen Elizabeth. Their works became popular, not less from excellence, than from their convenience of size, and the ultimate ornamental appearance, when the carved ivory or ebony casket, which at first enshrined them, was changed into a rich mounting of gold or brilliants. Before the civil wars, learning and the fine arts, were highly esteemed in the English Court, and a good taste began to prevail in the nation. Charles I. loved pictures, and, it is said, sometimes painted ; but was certainly an excellent connoisseur. The works of eminent masters, were bought up at a high rate, by the emulation between the King of England and Philip IV. of Spain ; and Rubens and Vandyke, were most honourably employed, caressed and enriched, in the tasteful Court of Charles I. This reign was the school of portrait-painting in England, which their transcendant talents improved to an astonishing degree ; in which were formed those famous artists, William Dobson, the English Tintoret ; George Jameson, the Vandyke of Scotland ; and James Gandy, whose

works have been considered as little inferior to Vandyke. The reign of Charles I. is also famous for the high improvement of portraits in enamel, which, if not invented, were at least brought to perfection, by John Petitot; and it is remarkable that for this, he was indebted, partly to England, since the chemical knowledge of Sir Theodore Mayerne, physician to Charles I., communicated to him, the more secret colours and process of vitrifying his work, which he was then travelling to improve. In thus incidentally mentioning that eminent physician, it will be illustrative both of the Arts and Science of England; at this period, to observe, that he was probably the first chemist of his time; one of the earliest practitioners, who ventured on the use of mineral medicine; and an experimentalist, who highly benefitted the arts, by communicating his knowledge of colours to Vandyke, Petitot and Rubens. Historical painting, with the exception of the allegorical compositions of Sir Peter Paul Rubens and Orazio Gentileschi, was almost unpractised in England at the close of the reign of Charles I.; but Dobson, is said to have been the first British artist, who introduced real portraits into historical pictures, and to have painted portraits, so as almost to raise them into history. In connexion with this subject, it is also to be observed, that several collections of pictures were made under Charles I., particularly the Royal, the Arundel and the Buckingham. The most eminent artist of the Interregnum, was Robert Walker, who was repeatedly employed to paint Oliver Cromwell. The character of the painting introduced under Charles II. has been censured quite

as much, as the literature or the morals of the same period. The false taste derived from France, of overpowering quantities of hair and drapery, forced and affected attitudes, and strange dresses and disguises of heroes, deities or sheperdesses,—all combined to destroy the truth of the portraits then executed, of which they were almost universally the leading characters. Sir Peter Lely was the most capital painter of the time, and experienced much of the court-patronage of Charles II. Though he wandered considerably from nature, he yet evinced less false taste, than many of his contemporaries; and his great excellence in delineating the beauties of his time, has perpetuated his name with unfading honour. Of English painters of this age, one of the most eminent was Samuel Cooper, who first gave miniatures all the strength and freedom of oil. One costly feature of the time, which must have encouraged, if it did not improve the fine arts, was the very costly custom of painting staircases, ceilings, and saloons, in imitation of the French, in which art Antonio Verrio was the most extensively employed, and the most famous. An account of the sums paid him by Charles II. for paintings at Windsor Castle, is yet preserved, the amount of which is 5545*l.* 8*s.* 4*d.* Beside these classes of art, the King was partial to those pictures of minute finishing, usually called Still-Life, of which so many are remaining belonging to this period. He also liberally encouraged the painters of them, as well those Flemish artists who excelled in highly-wrought delineations of sea-pieces, landscapes, and flowers. From this period to the middle of the succeeding century, the art of painting experienced a gradual

but a melancholy decline ; historical pictures, were almost entirely confined to the decoration of stair-cases and state-apartments ; and resemblance, appears to have been almost the sole test of merit in portraiture. The remains of the classical taste of Vandyke's, and even of Lely's time, were carried away by the false style, to which Sir Godfrey Kneller submitted his fine pencil. Art was neither generally understood, nor properly appreciated, even by persons of superior rank and education ; and its true principles, were neither communicated by any national academy of instruction, nor any standard of taste, supported by literature. The first attempt at establishing a school of Painting in England, was commenced by Sir Godfrey Kneller and a few artists, in 1711. In 1724, Sir James Thornhill, one of the most admired ceiling and saloon painters of his time, endeavoured to procure the incorporation of a Royal Academy, at the upper end of the King's Mews, with apartments for the professors, which he had estimated would amount to 3139*l*. As this proposal made to the Government, through the Earl of Halifax, was refused, he opened an academy in his own house in Covent Garden, which however, was limited equally as to duration and extent ; and it was not until the accession of King George III. that the arts of England, revived from the obscurity, in which they had been so long and so completely involved. In the midst of this darkness, appeared Sir Joshua Reynolds, who became the great founder of the English school, the restorer of portraiture from the depraved mannerism by which it was characterised, and the general improver of the higher branches of art.

The first attempt at an association of artists, connected with a public display of their works, was in 1759, when a society was formed which assembled in St Martin's Lane, and opened its first exhibitions in 1760, under the sanction of the Society of Arts. This effort having proved sufficiently promising to induce the associated artists to procure a permanent establishment, after a few more exhibitions of their talent, the King incorporated them by a Royal Charter, dated January 28th 1765, under the name of the Society of Artists of Great Britain. The union of the two establishments, however, was not lasting, since they separated three years after; the present Royal Academy being founded in 1768. It consists of a President; Professors of Anatomy, Painting, Sculpture, and Architecture, who each deliver a course of six lectures every winter; and three classes of members, entitled Royal Academicians, of whom there are forty associates, twenty in number, and six associated Engravers. The election of each, requires the King's sanction, and the new member, presents a specimen of his talent, to be preserved in the Academy. There are also students admitted on the establishment, to draw from the life and plaster models, which it provides; and to encourage the practice of art, prizes of gold and silver medals, are yearly distributed, for the best drawings of academy figures, architectural designs, historical compositions in painting, and pieces of sculpture. Those who succeed in gaining the gold medal, have the farther privilege of becoming candidates in rotation to be sent abroad with the King's pension; which allows 60/.

for travelling to Italy and back, and 100*l.* yearly for three years. The annual exhibitions of this noble Institution are well known. They comprise original productions in every branch of art, and generally contain between eleven and twelve hundred pieces. Indeed, from the time when the Royal Academy was instituted, the improvement of the arts and the increase of artists have been progressive; and it was calculated, that in 1818 there were 931 professional artists in and around the metropolis. Of these, 532 were painters, including 43 ladies; 45 sculptors; 149 architects; and 255 engravers of various kinds; but every class has now very considerably increased. The nineteenth century, has witnessed the establishment of several other associations, for the practice, improvement, and exhibition of painting, sculpture, and engravings. One of the most important of these is, the British Institution, opened, in 1806, for the display and sale of the works of living artists; their farther encouragement, by offering high premiums or commissions, for such large paintings, as might exceed individual patronage; and the improvement of taste, by allowing painters to study from the annual collection of pictures of established merit, of all ages and nations. There are, beside these principal establishments, the society of Painters in Water-colours, formed in 1804, whose branch of art, has been brought to the highest perfection in England; and the society of British Artists, instituted in 1823. To enumerate the eminent English painters, produced in the eighteenth century, would exceed the limits of the present sketch, which is already too far extended; but the original and admirable Hogarth, Richard

Wilson, the Claude of Britain, Thomas Gainsborough, Sir Joshua Reynolds, and Ozias Humphrey should never be forgotten. Numerous others of great merit, will be found in the concluding volumes of Walpole's Anecdotes, and the continuation, by Edward Edwards, Lond. 1808, 4to.

It does not appear, that the English sculpture had produced any very considerable improvement, from its Gothic features and system, before the middle of the reign of James I.; though a better taste had been long previously introduced in France under John Gougeon and Germain Pilon. The character of the monuments of this period was one or more lying or kneeling figures, on a slab of white marble or alabaster; the effigies, being frequently taken from good portraits, and beautifully carved as to the armour and habits. The other ornaments consisted chiefly of large and rich entablatures, Corinthian columns, lofty arches, and emblazoned armorial ensigns. These were the most stately works, approaching to sculpture; which were sometimes farther embellished, by the addition of other whole-length figures, attending the dead, as in the famous instances, of the monuments of Sir Francis Vere and Lord Norris, both in Westminster Abbey. The collections of ancient pieces of sculpture, formed by Charles I. from the Duke of Mantua, the Duke of Buckingham from Rubens, and, above all, by the famous Arundel from Italy, itself at an unlimited expense,—began to infuse into England, a better taste for sculpture, and an entirely new acquaintance with the best classical models. Of these collections, the first, including some small bronzes, brought together by Henry Prince of

Wales, was dispersed by the Parliamentary Commissioners, who sold them to the Spanish Ambassador. The second was sold at Antwerp; but nearly the whole of the last, still adorn the gallery at Oxford, for which they were procured by the solicitation of Mr Evelyn in 1667. The family of Stone, produced some of the best and most eminent sculptors of the period; but their works were more distinguished by their elaborate finishing than their improved taste; and the chief alteration in monumental effigies was, that the figure was sometimes seated, instead of being represented recumbent. The reign of Charles II. produced that famous sculptor, Gringling Gibbons, whose wonderful talent in carving wood, Mr Evelyn accidentally discovered in 1671, and soon after introduced him to Royalty. Another eminent artist of the same period and profession, was Caius Gabriel Cibber, whose most capital works were the two figures of madmen, erected at Bethlehem Hospital, the earliest specimen in England exhibiting so much talent. Both these sculptors, however, if not foreigners, learned their art under Dutch instructors; and having nothing from France or Italy, did not advance the grace or purity of the English school. Indeed the principal use of sculpture in their time, was the decoration of buildings and apartments; in the latter of which, however, Gibbons arrived at the utmost perfection, and excelled all his continental contemporaries. The general adoption and improvement of sculpture in England, in the eighteenth century, were principally effected by two foreigners, John Michael Rysbrach, and Louis Francis Roubiliac; the latter of whom, possessed consider-



able talent, and great delicacy in his productions. The first, was most excellent in his busts, which were accurate portraits, and, indeed, his great characteristic was correctness. The monuments of this period, are distinguished by allegorical figures and dresses, groups of statues and medallions, bearing profiles of the deceased persons, &c., and the almost continual use of the Roman habit and armour. These peculiarities, were chiefly French; and it may be observed, that though sculpture, had undoubtedly made some considerable progress in England, by the eighteenth century, it was still very far from the classical character of the ancient art. In the reign of Charles I., the removal of any very excellent piece of sculpture from Italy was positively prohibited; and Mr Dallaway states, that the first virtuoso, who brought a statue of high merit into England, was Thomas Coke, Earl of Leicester, in the last century; who is said to have been imprisoned at Rome for a short time by order of the Pope, for having negotiated the successful removal of the celebrated Diana, now at Holkham. The reign of George III. was characterised by an improving taste, which influencing the possessors of rank and wealth in England, has rendered it almost equal to Rome and Florence, in the honourable acquisition of the finest and most interesting Greek and Roman sculptures. These, and other causes, produced those splendid collections made by Charles Townley Esq., and the Earl of Elgin, now preserved in the great National Gallery of the British Museum.

To pursue the progress of the art of engraving

in England, in as circumstantial a narrative, would occupy too great a space, and certainly not prove gratifying to the general reader. The first Englishman who distinguished himself in the art, was John Payne; before whose time the best artists were, George Hoefnagle, Theodore de Brie, Reginald Elstracke, Francis Delaram, the Pass family, by one of whom Payne was instructed. In the reign of Charles I., however, appeared the eminent and beautiful works of William Marshal and George Glover, British engravers; with those of Vander Voerst, Lucas Vorsterman, and above all, the admirable etchings of the indefatigable Wenceslaus Hollar, whose prints are supposed to have amounted to 2400, executed in 52 years, many of them being very large and elaborate. Under Charles II. engraved Francis Barlow, of wonderful skill in the delineation of animals and birds; Robert Gaywood, the pupil of Hollar; the laborious Robert White, and William Faithorne, one of the most capital engravers who have appeared in this country, to whom may be added the excellent Parisian, Peter Lombart. In this reign, and in this nation, Prince Rupert, Palatine of the Rhine, improved and introduced the peculiar and effective art of Mezzo-tinto engraving; invented, as it is supposed, by L. de Siegen, a Lieutenant-Colonel, in the service of the Landgrave of Hesse in 1643. It was carried to its utmost perfection by J. Smith junior, and John Faber the younger, in the commencement of the eighteenth century. The distinguishing character of the early engravers of England, was that of minute finishing and neatness; but it was not until the times of Sir Robert Strange, Woollett, J. K. Sherwin,

Sharpe, and other eminent artists of a later period, that the legitimate art of line-engraving was rightly understood, or had made its most effectual advances towards perfection.

Of other arts practised in England, about the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, the following may be noticed in brief and general terms. Seal engraving, had been practised in England under Henry VIII. by John de Mayne and Richard Atsyll, probably a native, a graver of precious stones. In 1552, the sixth of Edward VI., a patent was granted to Anthony Deric, of the office of capital sculptor of King's coins. The seventeenth century possessed several very eminent medalists, as Thomas and Abraham Simons, and Nicholas Briot, who first introduced stamped, instead of struck money, into France. Under Charles I. Martin Johnson was a celebrated seal engraver; Christian Van Vianen, eminent for chasing and embossing of plate; and Francesco Faneli, for casting statues and groups in metal. Until the beginning of the civil war, Thomas Simon was the King's medallist; but as he revolted to the Parliament, he was succeeded by Thomas Rawlins, who became engraver to the King's mint, and was also known as a cutter of precious stones. The money of the commonwealth, was beautifully coined by Peter Blondeau. The medallists of the reign of Charles II. were the famous brothers John, Joseph and Philip Rotier, who were employed after the discharge of Simon at the Restoration; in consequence of their father, a goldsmith and banker, having supplied the King with money during his exile. They were all engravers of seals and coins, and were placed in the

Royal mint, where they were allowed 200*l.* for executing every broad seal; and they are said to have gained 300*l.* yearly by selling great numbers of medals abroad. John Rotier was considered the best artist; but Simon presented the King with so exquisite a crown-piece, having a petition engraved on the rim, that his own salary was restored. There were others of the Rotier family who excelled in coining; and John and his son Robert remained in the Government service until the Revolution, soon after which they retired, though the former lived until after the accession of Queen Anne. Charles Christian Reisen, was the most celebrated seal-engraver of the next reign; and in that of George II. appeared the beautiful series of English Kings struck in copper, and other medals of the famous John Dassier. Contemporary with him, was Laurence Natta, who engraved the coronation medal of King George III.

London in the time of King James I. was built almost entirely of wood, and was remarked as a straggling unpleasing city, badly paved with small sharp stones, which caused barges for water-carriage to be generally employed instead of coaches. The erection of stately and extensive mansions, was, however, the architectural character of this period; which may be distinguished, by the exchange of angular or circular bay windows, for very capacious square ones, unequally parted by a transom, and placed in long series in the several storeys. The parapets also, lost what remained of their embattled character; and the building appeared one solid mass, with a central square turret more lofty than those at the corners. The names and works of English Architects of this time, may

be seen in Walpole, and especially in Mr Dallaway's most valuable additions, which are decorated with some of the finest specimens of mansions in the different periods, most exquisitely delineated and engraven on wood. This splendid and extensive scale for large mansions, was more general under James and Charles I., than it had been in the reign of Elizabeth; of which several fine evidences are yet remaining. Of these may be mentioned the quadrangle of the magnificent Schools at Oxford, built by Thomas Holte; Hatfield in Hertfordshire, the seat of Lord Salisbury, erected in 1611; and Audley Inn, Essex, the mansion of Lord Suffolk, built in 1616, by Bernard Jansen. A very stately house, was also erected at Campden in Gloucestershire, by Sir Baptist Hicks the Court mercer, at an expense of 29,000*l.*, which was burned down during the civil wars; but when perfect, it occupied eight acres, was of the most splendid architecture, and a very capacious dome arising from the roof, which was regularly illuminated every night, for the direction of travellers. Before the extensive changes in English architecture, effected by Inigo Jones, there was little decided alteration in its character; though there were some buildings in the Italian style, in England, before his erection of Whitehall. And even in the works of that very eminent artist, there was a marked distinction and improvement, between his earlier designs and those which he made after his entire adoption of the manner of Palladio. The talents and genius of Sir Christopher Wren, threw a sudden and brilliant lustre on the latter part of the seventeenth century, especially in his Ashmolean Museum at Oxford, the Church of St

Stephen Walbrook, in London, the multitude of other churches designed by his hand after the great fire, and the crown of his fame, St Paul's Cathedral. The character of the domestic architecture of this time, in the rebuilding of these houses which had been destroyed in the Civil Wars, was chiefly adopted from the French; and consisted of saloons, spacious staircases, and long suits of state-apartments. Under Queen Anne, Sir John Vanbrugh, introduced a style of building into England, which is generally represented as equally devoid of rule or precedent. Its main feature was massiveness, with varied decorations above, and numerous bold projections of different heights, to relieve the solidity of the immense pile. The great merit of his works, is their picturesque effect, when surrounded by the improved style of landscape-gardening, which was adopted after his decease. Two of the most fashionable architects of the next reigns, were James Gibbs, who erected the Radcliffe Library at Oxford; and William Kent, who was almost equally encouraged in erecting of mansions and monuments, designing of embellishments for books, and furniture for houses, and the disposition of plantations and the improvement of gardens. The names of Batty, Langley, Thomas Ripley, and Charles Labelye, who erected Westminster Bridge, also belong to the Annals of Architecture in the eighteenth century.

Some notices of the English gardens, have already been given, but the period of their greatest state, was probably the end of the sixteenth, or commencement of the seventeenth century; when they were characterized by numerous terraces, with

steps leading from one to another, guarded with stone balustrades, and decorated with vases, sculptures, and metal statues; and by canals, and a thousand devices of water-works, both open and concealed, to play off suddenly and wet the spectator, or form a cool walk of arches of water. The parterres were made in fantastic shapes, with patterns like embroidery; and names and inscriptions in box, or trees trimmed into singular forms, called Topiary works, some being cut like animals and castles, and one is mentioned in the form of a wren's nest, large enough to receive a person to a seat within it. Labyrinths, both square and round, conducting after an intricate walk to an arbour, or bower in the centre, were features of an English garden at a very early period: since it was in such a place at Woodstock Palace, that Henry II. concealed Fair Rosamond in 1172, and their frequent allusions to "herbers" in the works of the oldest English poets. The ancient gardens also, sometimes contained decoys for waterfowl, bowling greens, and alleys for shooting at butts with bows and arrows, having beside them short trees, the tops whereof were cut into seats for ladies to view the sport. These were called stands, and were also made in parks to overlook the deer-shooting. Several very curious particulars on the culture and disposition of the old English gardens, will be found in Evelyn's *Miscellaneous Works*, Lond. 1625, 4to. The period of the Revolution, only brought an increase of Dutch taste and additional formality into the gardens of Britain; and in that of William III. at Kensington, the hedges were shaped into the figures of fortifications, one part being known by the name of the Siege of Troy.

The first attempt at a reformation of this system, was made by a fashionable designer of gardens, named Bridgeman, early in the eighteenth century. He banished the sculptures of box and holly, and though he still retained strait walks and high clipped hedges, he abandoned the former precision and squareness, made his divisions irregular, and diversified his grounds by wilderness and loose groves of oak. In the Royal gardens at Richmond, he introduced cultivated field and fragments of wood, and, at length, is supposed to have introduced the sunk fence for boundaries instead of walls: an attempt, says Walpole, from whom these notices have been abstracted, considered so astonishing, that the common people called them Ha! Ha's! to express their surprise at the sudden termination of their walk. He was followed by Kent the architect, whose ability as an artist, enabled him to give a fine perspective and picturesque effect, as well as to adorn the termination of his walks with seats, temples, &c. either delineated by the pencil, or erected in stone. He was also peculiarly skilful in his management of water, which he led through the pleasure-ground with easy and natural streams; and he gave all its value to forest scenery, only rendering the approach to it more gradual and pleasing. The art of landscape-gardening is, however, at the present time still better understood and valued; the errors by which Kent's labours were disfigured, are now avoided; and artists succeeding artists, have at length brought the practice almost to perfection.

In the commencement of the seventeenth century, both sciences and polite literature must be



considered in a very young and imperfect state : since scholastic learning and polemical divinity, retarded the increase of almost all other branches of knowledge. Geometry was almost totally abandoned and unknown in England, until its revival was encouraged by Sir Henry Savile, who annexed a salary to the mathematical and astronomical professors at Oxford. During the fanaticism of the Commonwealth, a few sedate philosophers, in the retirement of that University, continued to cultivate experimental philosophy, and established meetings, for the mutual communication of their discoveries in physics and geometry. They consisted of the Hon. Robert Boyle, Sir William Petty, one of the first of political economists ; Dr Matthew Wren, Bishop of Ely ; Christopher Wren, his famous nephew ; and Lawrence Rooke, a very eminent mathematician ; and they assembled at the apartments of Dr John Wilkins, of Wadham College, a clergyman of a mechanical, but singular genius, who had married Cromwell's sister, and who afterwards became Bishop of Ely. The members of this little association, afterwards renewed their scientific intimacy in London ; and on August 13th 1662, a charter passed the Great Seal, incorporating them, with several others, the most eminent of their time, into that famous institution called the Royal Society. It cannot be denied, however, that the pursuits of philosophers, of this period, were frequently very similar to those of the alchemists of a much more unenlightened time ; and often as visionary as the delusions of natural magic.

Sir Kenelm Digby and Elias Ashmole, were both experimentalists of this kind; and even the early proceedings of the Royal Society itself, were not wholly free from singular inquiries, which could answer no very valuable purpose; such as the question, if horns would take root in the earth, and vegetate like a tree? Boyle, however, was a searcher into the secrets of Nature, of quite a different character; and, some time after his death, Evelyn observes of him, that nothing ever came under his examination, but he made it disclose all its properties. In Sir Isaac Newton, England may boast of having produced the greatest genius, which ever arose to instruct and adorn mankind. He was equally cautious in admitting no principles but those founded on actual experiment, and resolute in adopting what he had proved; but he was long, both from his modesty and simplicity, unknown to the world, though he at last shone out with a lustre, which scarcely any other person attained during his own lifetime. Several of the members of the Royal Society, directed their studies towards astronomy, and the investigation and improvement of that science, became one of its principal objects. Even before its incorporation, some of them attended the King in May 1661, to show him Saturn's belt nearly eclipsed by the moon, through his Majesty's great telescope, 35 feet long. But whatever the Society was engaged in, seemed to excite a strong interest in Charles, who is affirmed to have carried on a series of similar experiments in his own palace. The original meeting place of this association, was Gresham College; but in 1711, it removed to

Crane Court, and, upon the re-erection of Somerset House, had permanent apartments assigned to it in that building. The Society publishes an annual volume of its proceedings, &c. entitled *Philosophical Transactions*, which now extend to 116 in number, from 1665 to 1826. Some of the earlier papers, are certainly of a character, wholly inconsistent with the present enlightened state of science; but many others, contain the most valuable and important information. It should also never be forgotten, that it was in consequence of a memorial from the Royal Society in February 1768, for an expedition to be sent to the South Sea, to observe the approaching transit of Venus over the sun, that Captain Cook commenced those famous discoveries, which have ever reflected so much honour upon the reign of King George the Third.

An account, or indeed a very brief view of the gradual improvement of science in England, from its first encouragement in the seventeenth century, to its almost absolute perfection in the nineteenth, cannot be comprised in these pages. Much of its history, may be collected from the interesting annals of the Royal Society, composed by Bishop Sprat and Dr Thomas Thomson. The discoveries of later times, of Herschell in Astronomy; of Watson, Davy, and Brande, in Chemistry; of Franklin and Priestley in Electricity; of Newton in Optics; and of the giant powers given to Mechanics by the steam-engines of Watt;—are recorded in too many well known authorities, to require or permit of repetition.

The Medicine of the seventeenth century, was studied principally at Paris, Leyden, and Padua;

in which were made several of the most eminent English physicians, though the time of the last pestilence in this nation, 1665, was a period of very general and successful empiricism. The preparation of medicines by the apothecaries, was in this century, placed under the superintendance of the physicians; though the former, were incorporated into a separate association by James I. in 1615, when he parted them from the grocers, and called them his company. They were expected only, to be skilful in herbs, roots, and drugs, and to understand and exercise chemistry; but the physicians complained, that they frequently took upon them to administer medicines, in the preparation of which, they were often very careless. About the close of the seventeenth century, the apothecaries had a physic-garden at Chelsea, near London; and, for a short time, the College of Physicians established three dispensaries in the metropolis, for supplying the poor with drugs at a low rate, two physicians attending at each, to give gratuitous advice. The surgery of this period, was most eminent in Italy, under Cæsar Magatus, and Marcus Aurelius Severinus; but, in England, appeared Richard Wiseman, so famous for his knowledge of the treatment of wounds, and Dr William Harvey, who immortalized himself by his discovery relating to the circulation of the blood in 1652. The improvement which this effected in the practice of the art, will ever rank him high as one of the principal advancers of his profession. He had also the happiness of at once establishing his theory on the most solid and convincing proofs, and posterity has added but little, to the arguments of his industry and in-

genuity. This great man, was much favoured by Charles I., who gave him the liberty of using all the deer in the royal forests, for perfecting his discoveries on the generation of animals. The next century, produced John and William Hunter, and many others of great eminence, by whom the art of surgery was gradually brought to its present state of perfection. In concluding this notice, it will be proper to observe, that the company of Surgeons, which Henry VIII. had united to the Barbers, was separated by Act of Parliament in 1745, though the new charter for erecting it into a distinct college, was not issued until the year 1800.

The sudden transition in the price of agricultural produce, so frequently noticed in the earlier annals of England, is probably a proof, that the harvest depended only on the season, and that art had, as yet, little power either to improve or to defend it. During the reign of King James I., this, as well as most other arts, was considerably improved, and the time produced numerous authors, who wrote upon the subject. A regular importation of corn was, nevertheless, still required from the Baltic and from France; and, whenever it stopped, the nation very sensibly felt it. Sir Walter Raleigh calculated, that 200,000*l.* went out at one time for corn; but its exportation had never been permitted, until the time of Elizabeth, after which agriculture was carried on with additional vigour.

The order upon which the Militia of England is now settled, is founded principally on those statutes, which were enacted soon after the Restoration

of King Charles II., when the military tenures were abolished, and the power of the militia in the crown, was examined into, and ascertained. This question, had been the immediate cause of the rupture, between Charles I. and his Parliament; which, denying the uncertain prerogative of the King, illegally seized the power of the militia into its own possession. The general features of the laws which now govern it, are, that a certain number of the inhabitants of every county, shall be chosen by lot for three years, put into military discipline, and commanded by the Lord Lieutenants, &c. under the King's commission. The office of Lord Lieutenant, was first created in 1549, under Edward VI. by commissions, renewable yearly; and containing in substance, the same military powers, as those commissions of array already noticed. The soldiers which they now embody, are not compellable to march out of their counties, unless in case of invasion or actual rebellion within the realm, nor under any circumstances to go out of the kingdom. They are to be exercised at stated times, and their general discipline is liberal and easy; though, when drawn out into actual service, they are subject to the restrictions of martial law. The custom of retaining standing armies was first introduced by Charles VII. of France, in 1445; and having afterwards spread entirely over Europe, was at length established in England. After the restoration, Charles II. kept up, by his own authority, above 5000 regular troops, for guards and garrisons; which King James II. by degrees increased to 30,000, all paid from his own civil list. Upon this, it was made one of the articles of the Bill of Rights, that the raising a standing army in

the kingdom in time of peace, without the consent of Parliament, is against the law. The general custom of other nations, however, the safety of the kingdom, the preservation of the balance of power in Europe, and the defence of the possessions of Great Britain, have been considered as sufficient reasons, for the support of a standing army in England, under the command of the crown, which is nevertheless, supposed to be disbanded at the conclusion of every year, unless continued by Parliament. The use of complete suits of armour, began to decline soon after the accession of James I. ; and, in the latter part of his reign, the jambes, or steel coverings for the legs, were almost wholly laid aside. The heavy cavalry, called Pistoliers, wore suits which terminated at the knees ; which habit continued through the following reign. Such, too, was the armour of the cuirassiers, harquebusiers, and carabiniers, under Charles I., consisting of different kinds of iron head-pieces, a back skirt of plates, called a *guard-de-reine*, and plates for the body, shoulders, arms, and thighs, with a left hand gauntlet. Dragoons, or mounted footmen, were introduced about the year 1600, and wore an open head piece with checks, and a coat of stout buff leather with skirts. Under Cromwell the cuirass lost its skirt, and was worn over a buff coat by the cavalry, who then left off the use of the lance. Armour on the legs, was also discontinued, being partly supplied by immense boots and spurs, to prevent the effects of pressure in a charge. In the time of Charles II., military officers, often wore no other than a large plate gorget about the neck, which nearly served as a breastplate : and is commemo-

rated in the small metal crescent sometimes worn in the present day. Stuffed armour of silk, proof against steel or musket bullets, was also worn, which gave a strange appearance to the figure ; and an attempt was also made to connect the helmet and hat, by inserting perforated steel caps in the hats of the horse-soldiers. It may be remarked, however, that ordinary hats, lined with iron plates, to prevent assassination, had been in use some time before. The principal weapons of this period, were large cutting-swords and basket handles, brought into general use under Cromwell ; carbines and pistols ; and an unsuccessful attempt was made, to unite the use of the pike and long-bow. Bows and arrows were used by the Highland regiments, so late as the time of William III. In the beginning of that reign, defensive armour was so much laid aside, that in 1690, the armourers of London, presented a petition to the House of Commons, praying for the observance of the law of Charles II., made in 1662, for using certain armour and weapons, and for reviving and encouraging the art of making them. This petition was referred to the committee for amending the militia laws ; and about the same time, most of the defensive armour worn in the English army, was returned into the Tower. It has never since been called for, excepting some breast-plates and plain iron scull caps, occasionally worn by the heavy cavalry, in the last century.

It appears intimately connected with the subject of ancient armour, to notice a very few particulars of the other dresses of the English soldiers. In former times, they were not always clothed by the government, though a provision to that effect



is found in 1337, in the reign of Edward III. They were at one period distinguished by badges, of the sovereign and their captain, like those worn by watermen, to which Henry VIII. added a cross of St George. The general colour of the soldier's habits appears to have been white; though in 1544, a part of the forces of Henry VIII. are ordered to be dressed in blue coats guarded with red, without badges, the right hose red, and the left blue, with a broad red stripe on the outside of the leg. In 1584, Elizabeth ordered the cassocks of the soldiers going to Ireland, to be a sad green or russet; though the cloaks of the cavalry were red. In 1693, the habits of the soldiers were grey, and those of the drummers purple; but the red uniform was probably adopted, when the House of Hanover acceded to the throne.

In closing this chapter, the following great alterations in the Royal arms of England, still remain to be noticed. In the reign of James I., the quarters of Scotland and Ireland, were first regularly incorporated with the national coat; and the white unicorn added, as one of the supporters, from the shield of Scotland, indicative of the union of the two crowns. In 1706, when the kingdoms were united under Queen Anne, the arms of Scotland, were impaled with those of England, in the first and fourth quarters. On the accession of George I., the fourth quarter, was filled with the arms of his own family; namely, Brunswick impaling Lunenburg, and in the base point the coat of Saxony, having over all, an escutcheon charged with the crown of Charlemagne, as a badge of the office of Arch-treasurer of the Holy Roman Empire. On the

Union of Great Britain with Ireland, January 1st 1801, the second quarter of France, was omitted, and the coat of Scotland placed therein, from the first quarter; whilst the arms of England were repeated in the fourth, and the German quarterings removed to an escutcheon of pretence in the centre, ensigned by the Electoral bonnet. The last alteration, was the changing of that bonnet, into the Royal Hanoverian Crown, when the English dominions in Germany were erected into a kingdom, June 8th 1816.

# ILLUSTRATIONS

OF THE

## HISTORY OF GREAT BRITAIN.

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### BOOK IV.

**VIEW OF THE NAVIGATION, COMMERCE, MANUFACTURES AND COIN. MANNERS AND CUSTOMS, SPORTS, PASTIMES AND DRESSES, OF GREAT BRITAIN.**

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### CHAPTER I.

**BRITISH, SAXON, AND DANISH PERIODS.**

**I. *British Period.***—At the time when, from the shores of Gaul, Julius Cæsar first descried the unknown country of Britain, its natives consisted of a hardy race of shepherds, whose simple wants were provided for in their own country, and to whom luxuries were almost equally indifferent and unknown. Even then, however, the com-

merce of Britain was of considerable importance ; since the tin of Cornwall, and the hides of the vast flocks of cattle, had already induced the merchants of Phœnicia to visit and settle on the southern and western shores, who so greatly valued their trade, that it is recorded by Strabo, when a Phœnician captain had his course watched by a Roman galley, he chose rather to run his vessel on shore, than save her by steering for a British port, for which patriotic act he was rewarded by his country. The principal and most ancient exports from Britain, were its famous tin, lead, and copper ; but lime and chalk, salt, corn, cattle, skins, earthen-ware, horses, slaves, and native dogs, which always appear to have been held in great estimation, were also carried thence. The largest and finest pearls, too, are said to have been found on the British coast, and the wicker-baskets of Britain are celebrated by Martial and Juvenal as luxuries in Rome. As the Greeks increased their commerce, they shortened their sea voyages ; and the tin procured after being refined, and melted into small square ingots, was conveyed to them into the Isle of Wight by the native Britons, in carriages at low-water. Thence it was exported to Gaul, after which it was conveyed by land on horses to the mouth of the Rhone, and at length dispersed into all parts of the known world where those merchants traded. Under the Romans, the Britons continued their commerce, though with a slight duty on their imports and exports ; whilst the articles sent from Rome to Britain, were ivory, bridles, gold chains, amber cups, and drinking glasses.

The particulars which are extant concerning the

British vessels, represent them to have been small boats made of wicker, and covered with hides of oxen ; and even in their most perfect state to have consisted only of a strong light timber frame, covered with leather. The smaller boats or coracles, which occupied only two hides and a half to cover them, would hold three men, and a week's provision : but sometimes they held only one person and the rower. The first British port used for ship-building is supposed to have been Sandwich. In these boats the inhabitants of Ireland and Caledonia, would, in the summer time, cross the sea between Britain and Ireland, though it is frequently rough and boisterous : whilst in the southern parts of the island, they were used probably for passing such waters as were not fordable. It is supposed, however, that the Britons possessed still larger and more substantial vessels, built of oak like those of the Veneti, or Gauls in Bretagne : with flatter keels than the Roman galleys, to lie in the shallows ; with seats for the rowers a foot broad, fastened by iron pins an inch thick ; having chains attached to the anchors, and sails formed out of hides. Such are imagined to have been the more effective navies of the British ; since, at the time when the Veneti were about to attack Cæsar's fleet, they sent to Britain for aid, and the united fleets amounted to 220 large ships, which were nearly all destroyed in the conflict ; and this has been sometimes assigned as a reason, why the Britons did not, in the following year, oppose the imperial invader by sea. But whatever their vessels were, it does not appear that the early inhabitants of Britain ever made any long voyages, though the

Druids are said to have been acquainted with the magnet and the compass. The general extent of their navigation is believed to have been the river Garonne in Gaul; but Pliny affirms, that they would frequently go to an island six days' sail from their own: this assertion is, however, supposed to be contradicted by the fact, that when the British sailors began a voyage, they took no food until it was completed. The Romans improved the British shipping; and the Emperor Claudius, by law bestowed several privileges on those who built ships for trade; in consequence of which, about A. D. 359, there were 800 ships employed in transporting corn from Britain to Gaul. These privileges, however, were limited to such persons as built vessels which would contain 10,000 modia, or about 312 English quarters of corn; which gives a very good conception of their size. The Romans had also a squadron to guard the coast, commanded by an officer entitled Chief Governor of the British fleet, whose force was sometimes of very considerable power. But as the Saxon pirates began to renew their ravages on the British coast, after the death of Alectus, who usurped the purple in this island, about A. D. 296, the Romans added forts along those shores where those depredators usually landed, and placed them under the command of an officer called the Count of the Saxon Shore. It has already been shown, in several of the preceding chapters, that the departure of the Romans from this nation, was a more unfortunate event for the Britons than even their first invasion. Nor was it less so with regard to their navigation: since the Romans used their ships to transport them into Gaul, leaving the

inland country open to the Scots and Picts, and the sea-coasts to be ravaged by the piratical voyages of the Saxons.

That the Britons both understood and practised the art of working in metals, is ascertained from the relicks of their weapons, as axes, spear and arrow heads, swords, &c., which are yet extant; and it is supposed, that tin was the first ore which they discovered and refined. They had also lead mines, wherein the metal is said to have been found very near to the surface, and in such plenty, that the natives were prohibited from taking more than a certain quantity for exportation. These metals were exchanged with the Phœnicians for copper and brass; though, when the Emperor Severus invaded the northern parts of Britain in A. D. 207, the inhabitants had round brass balls at the end of their spears, which, however, they probably received from the nations of the South. The British iron was of uncommon occurrence, and appears to have been held in the greatest estimation, since it was used in personal ornaments, and was even formed into rings and tallies for money. Gold and silver were not known to be in the island at the arrival of Cæsar, though they were discovered a short time after; and the art of working them is supposed to have been derived from the Gauls. The manufacture of earthenware in Britain, is also referred to the times of the Romans; but vessels of that material, constituted a part of the merchandise brought hither by the Phœnicians.

The period is disputed, when coined money was first used in this island; for at Cæsar's invasion, the principal treasure consisted of iron rings, brass,

&c., and the introduction of coins is attributed to the merchants of Gaul after his departure. Se-gonax, one of the four Kentish kings who attacked Cæsar's camp under Cassibellanus, on his second arrival in Britain, is the first who appears upon the national pieces; and the latest British money is the gold, silver, and copper, first struck in the time of Cunobelin, of which forty pieces have been discovered, all being of different dies and stamps. These coins are sound, and are sometimes marked with the King's head and name; sometimes with his name and place of coinage; and sometimes with other figures, and the word Tascia, which is supposed to have been the name of his mint-master. On the Roman invasion both the circulation and coining of money was prohibited, and the Imperial money established; though it is supposed greatly to have diminished before their departure from the plunder of the Picts and Caledonians, as from the unfortunate expeditions of the two adventurers, Maximus and Constantine in A. D. 381 and 408, when they collected all the money they could procure, and carried it with them out of the nation. Some particulars of the dresses of the ancient Britons, have been already inserted in the notices of their armour and weapons; and in adding a very few more, it is proper to state, that the most interesting and copious illustration of the subject, will be found in the coloured engravings and text of Meyrick's *Costumes of the Original Inhabitants of the British Isles*, Lond. 1815, folio. The skins of animals were doubtless their earliest habits, and were long worn by the inland Britons. They were called Brych in the British tongue,



and Breach in the Irish, when they were the hide of the brindled, or spotted cow; and Isgyn, if they were taken from any wild beast. The females sewed these skins together with leathern thongs, or fibres of vegetables and bone needles; and their dresses were composed, if possible, of the skin of the brindled ox, fastened together with thorns, and ornamented by a necklace of beads, with wild flowers entwined in their long twisted hair. It is believed, however, that the inhabitants of the southern parts had the arts of dressing, spinning and weaving, both wool and flax, from the Gauls, long before the arrival of the Romans. The inhabitants of the Scilly Islands were clothed in a long black tunic, reaching down to their ancles, with a girdle about the waist, and their beards long, and hanging down like wings at each corner of the mouth. The Gauls manufactured several sorts of cloth, some being woven of fine wool, in different tinctures; which, being spun into yarn, was woven in cheques, and formed squares of different colours, which is probably the origin of the Scottish tartan. Others were of coarser wool, very thick; which, in the winter season, was adopted even by the Romans; and another kind was of wool, driven closely together, without weaving or spinning, and wrought up with vinegar, which made it a good guard against the edge or point of a sword. The part which was shorn off, when it was taken out of the leads and coppers, where it was dressed, were used as flocks for stuffing of couches. The Britons had also a manufacture of linen, which they sold to various nations to make sails for vessels;

and it constituted a considerable part of their trade. Before it was woven, the flax was put into a large mortar, in which it was pounded with water; and after it was sufficiently whitened, it was placed in the loom. The manufactured cloth was then placed upon a large flat stone, and beaten with water and broad-headed staves; by the strength and continuance of which process, the future softness and whiteness of the linen was effected; though these were sometimes assisted by the juice of poppies being mixed with the water. It is also said that soap, made of animal fat, and the ashes of certain plants was used occasionally; and, indeed, the invention of soap has been attributed to the Britons. The art of dying stuffs with very considerable skill, was not unknown in the country, even at this period; and the purple of Tyre, the scarlet and violet, and a favourite colour, to resemble the hide of the brindled ox, were successfully imitated by woad, hyacinth, and the juices of herbs only.

One of the most ancient garments adopted by the Britons, was the mantle, which enwrapped the whole body, and fastened in front with a clasp, and sometimes a thorn. They are supposed to have been of one colour only, smooth on the inside, and covered with long hair on the other, which, however, were at first considered as a luxury, and were worn only by the kings and nobles. The habits of the Southern Britons are commonly supposed to have been the same as those worn by the people of Belgic Gaul; which Strabo relates to have consisted of a tunic ornamented with flowers, and loose garments called *Braccæ*, covering their legs and thighs, like the

trowsers worn by sailors at the present day, but tied close to the shoes, which were large, and of coarse skin with the hair outwards, bound about the ancle with a thong. They had also a cassock or cloak of chequer-work, united by laces on the inside, so as to form the appearance of flowers: which last garment was made light or heavy according to the season. Sometimes, a short woollen jacket was worn without the tunic; and sometimes, it was girded by a belt, or ornamented with gold and silver, from which hung the sword, suspended by brass or iron chains. About the necks and wrists, were worn massive chains and bracelets of gold, and large golden rings upon the fingers. The martial dresses and ornaments have been already described, as well as the costumes of the inland natives of Britain, and of the Cassiterides, or inhabitants of the Scilly Islands, who wore long black mantles, and carried staves in their hands. At this period of history, the Northern parts of the country were unknown to the Romans; and when Julius Agricola first discovered them, about A. D. 80, they appear to have been almost in a state of barbarism. Even so late, however, as the expedition of the Emperor Severus, in A. D. 207, they appear to have been still naked; their necks and waists rudely decorated with large rings and chains of iron, and their bodies marked with those various figures, and those stains of woad, which are probably better known and remembered than any other characteristic of the ancient Britons. Their being without garments, however, arose perhaps rather from pride in the barbarous figures delineated upon their bodies, than from any positive want of the

materials, or actual ignorance of dress. Of those ornamental punctures, it may be observed, some resemblance is certainly to be found in the tattooing used by the South Sea islanders. They were most probably executed with a precisely similar instrument, namely, a sort of small rake of bone, cut into very fine and sharp teeth; and in each country there were persons, whose particular occupation it was to delineate the figures. In Britain they were esteemed the bravest men who best supported the operation, received the deepest punctures, and had the most numerous figures with the greatest quantity of paint upon their bodies. It has been supposed, that these decorations first gave name to the piratical nation of the Picts, from the Latin term *Picti*, used by the Romans; but other authorities affirm, that it was either from the British *Peithi*, the people of the open country, from their living beyond the Roman wall; or from the Celtic *Pictich*, a plunderer. The national name of the Scots is asserted to have been derived from the same source, as *Scuite*, a wanderer; each title being expressive of the characteristic qualities of these two tribes of the ancient Caledonians. The costume of the Druids has been already particularly described in the first volume of this work; and it may be observed, that the Roman dress was not adopted in Britain until about the time of Julius Agricola.

Of the habits worn by the British females, there are very few particulars extant; but those which have been preserved state, that they were ornamented with golden chains, rings, and bracelets, like the men: that they let their hair hang loose upon their shoulders, and, being turned back,

it fell down behind, without either tying or braiding; and that they endeavoured to make it yellow by art, or, if it were so, to increase its colour. In the description of Queen Boadicea, given by Dion Cassius, her hair is stated to have been of a deep yellow, flowing down to the middle of her back: and that she was a large well-made woman, of a severe presence, with a loud shrill voice, having a golden chain about her neck, and being clothed in a tunic of various colours, with a robe over it of a coarser substance, bound round by a girdle fastened with buckles. Such are the very few notices of British costume, &c. which can be condensed into the present limits; whilst of the domestic manners and peculiar customs of this period, no other account can be given, than that which may be collected from the preceding anecdotes of its religion, its laws, and its arts and sciences.

2. *Saxon and Danish Periods.*—The people of these times were derived from a nation of undaunted mariners and pirates, whose vessels were fearlessly launched wherever their skill would guide, or there was plunder to tempt them. Surrounded by the sea in their native countries of the north, they had been gradually training themselves in maritime skill ever since the days of Cæsar; the Romans themselves having contributed to their instruction in it by their expeditions, their wars, and their employment. As, however, they were almost entirely ignorant, or careless of the manual arts, as well as of the advantages of commerce, the principles of justice, and, indeed, of all means of providing for their own subsistence or security, but by a barbarous intrepidity, they naturally at-

tached themselves to acts of piracy, as the surrounding islands began to be inhabited by the Saxons. The spirit of naval enterprise and warfare in the North was therefore at first confined to plundering of the nearest tribes, and capturing the few merchant vessels which sailed through the Baltic ; since Britain and Gaul were too distant, and too well defended, to be the earliest attempts of the Scandinavian ravagers. One of the earliest authors, by whom their more extensive expeditions are mentioned, is Sidonius Apollinarius, who wrote in the fifth century ; and by the ninth, the Northern nations were characterized by a regular system of political piracy. The countries of Norway, &c. were then divided into sovereignties, called Fylki, each of which was a province capable of furnishing twelve ships, each containing sixty or seventy well-armed men. Most of these districts were under separate princes, one of whose male issue was selected to remain at home to inherit the government, whilst the rest were sent to become pirate-mariners, and were entitled to the name of sea-kings, although they possessed no territory. They were also called Vikingr, or Kings of the Bays, because they sheltered their vessels in those havens, and thence darted out upon the passing voyager. The number of these maritime princes was at one period so extremely great, that a King of Denmark is said to have destroyed seventy of them at once ; and beside the sea-kings themselves, every man, of either sufficient property or consequence, fitted out vessels, and roamed the seas, to acquire wealth by his intrepidity. Piracy was thus considered the most successful and honourable employment ; the sons of noble

persons were placed under the most celebrated and ferocious leaders at twelve years of age; and when a prince had arrived at his eighteenth or twentieth year, he usually procured the command of a small fleet, by which he might achieve both spoil and glory, a mutual engagement being made between the captain and his crew, not to return again without having gained them. This spoil consisted in every description of property; as raiment, slaves, domestic utensils, and cattle, which were killed on the shores they plundered; and so desirous were parents that their children should acquire it for themselves, that it is asserted, that they would not permit them to inherit their wealth, but commanded it to be buried with them, leaving them no other course but to perpetuate the national piracy for a subsistence. This employment, too, was usually the summer recreation even of the land-kings. A contemporary poem says of them, that they sought their food by their sails, and inhabited the seas; and it was affirmed that the Danes were more numerous on the sea than on the shore, the whole nation wearing nothing but the habits of sailors, that they might be ready to embark on the first signal. Some of them are said to have boasted that they never slept under a smoky roof, nor drunk their beer in quiet by the side of a hearth. In that ancient Runic poem called the Complaint of Harold the Valiant, who lived about the middle of the eleventh century, and was one of the most illustrious adventurers of his time, he makes his naval attainments and prowess the chief reasons for exciting the attachment of Elizabeth, the daughter of Jarislaus, King of Russia. The nautical skill and courage

of King Olaf Tryggueson, were also very great; and he could walk without a boat on the oars, whilst the men were rowing. These adventurers however, active and ferocious as they were, were exceeded by the actions of a particular class of pirates, who seem to have been influenced by a kind of brutal insanity, for which they were held in great veneration, and were employed by some princes for their valour and fury. They were called Berserkir; and when a conflict was about to commence, they tried to resemble wolves or maddening dogs, biting their shields, howling like terrible beasts, throwing off every covering, and working themselves into an enthusiastic strength, which has been likened to that of bears, they rushed into the battle. Their ferocity was, doubtless, only a savage artifice for intimidating their enemies, which was originally practised by Odin; but it was succeeded by a state of perfect debility. It was at length prohibited by the laws of Iceland, after having been carried to an uncommon extent, by the fearful associations, formed by the monsters who practised it.

The vessels of the Northern pirates were always well provided with offensive weapons; as stones, arrows, cables, with which they overset small ships, grappling irons to board them, &c. The mariners were well skilled in swimming; and as their engagements were seldom far from shore, the vanquished party often retreated in safety, by swimming to land. Every band possessed its own peculiar stations, ports, places of meeting, and magazines; and many cities of the North, owe their present prosperity, to the advantage they had of affording retreats. Such was Lunden in



Scania, which contained considerable riches, laid up there by the pirates; and for a long time, the kings themselves countenanced and shared the plunder, by selling them the liberty of retiring into those harbours. When the piratical policy of Denmark first commenced, the number of ships was inconsiderable; but as it increased, and the chiefs who practised it were enriched, the Northern seas were covered with one or two hundred vessels, or still more numerous squadrons; and a fleet under Harold Blaatand, King of Denmark, and a Norwegian lord, named Count Hacon, consisted of 1400 ships, which was by no means an extraordinary number. They were, however, but of rather a small size, the earliest on record being only a sort of twelve-oared barques; but they were afterwards erected capable of holding 120 men, and were very common in the eleventh and twelfth centuries. The Northern Kings also constructed ships of a much larger size, though they appear to have been rather for display than defensive. Harold Harfrage, had a long ship called the Dragon, which he sent to Æthelstan, King of England; and it had purple sails, a gilt stern, and rows of glittering shields around the deck. King Olaf Tryggueson, also, had one of a similar kind, named the Long Serpent; which is described to have been of a great length, large and high, and of a most durable construction. It bore a wooden serpent carved on its stern, and both these and the prow were gilded; it carried thirty-four banks of rowers, and was considered the finest and largest ship ever seen in Norway. It was probably from that country, that the taste

for such splendid vessels was introduced into England ; for in A. D. 1040, when Godwin, Earl of Kent, desired to persuade Hardicanute that he was guiltless of the murder of Prince Ælfred, he presented the King with a galley, superbly painted and gilded, manned with rowers, whose arms and bracelets glittered with burnished gold.

The Anglo-Saxon ships partook so much of this character, as to have the stem richly ornamented and carved, sometimes in the form of a horse, &c. At the stern, were two oars for steering instead of a rudder : and the cabin was erected in the middle of the deck, in the form of a house. This kind of ship was called, in Saxon, *Ceola*. The keel extended upwards from the stern, growing broader and broader, to the prow, or head ; which, gradually increasing upwards to a point, was the fitter for cutting the water in the ship's course. Over the prow was a curved piece, headed with iron, intended either for fastening the rigging to, sustaining the anchor, or preventing the immersion of the forepart of the ship. The sides of vessels were formed of short wooden planks, occasionally nailed on, somewhat in the order of bricks or tiles ; and when the full burden had been received, they appear to have been as low in the water as the third nailed board from the deck. They seem to have had but few ropes, and only a single square sail, fastened to a yard across the mast. It was held to the mast by a cord called the *roge-streng*, and managed by another at the lower extremity, termed the *fot-trap*.

The art of ship-building in England, is chiefly indebted to King Ælfred for its most important improvements : for, having found that his small

vessels had but little advantage over the long ships of the Danes, about 877 he caused some much larger ones, to be built at the different ports of his kingdom; and as the indolent Anglo-Saxons were inferior mariners to the active Northmen, he manned them with such of the piratical foreigners as he could persuade to enter his service. His scheme was followed by the complete defeat and loss of 120 sail of the Danish fleet, at the rock of Swanwick, on the coast of Hampshire. His next improvement in naval architecture, was in 897, when he caused vessels to be built for encountering the Northmen, almost twice as large as their own; being also swifter, higher, and less unsteady: in some placing 60 rowers, and in others more. They were neither like the Frisic nor the Danish vessels, which at this time excelled all others in Europe; but, says the Saxon Chronicle, they were built upon a principle which he regarded as being better than either. Their first expedition was entirely defeating the intended invasion of Hæsten the pirate. The Anglo-Saxon sovereigns are said to have sometimes steered their ships with their own hands. In particular, the genius of Edgar the Peaceable, in the middle of the tenth century, seems to have been decidedly naval: for he was not only rowed on the Dee by eight tributary princes; but he is also said to have improved the navigation of England, by having completely manned and fitted out 3000 ships of war.

The commerce of Britain, during the Saxon Octarchy, seems to have found but little encouragement. In 777, however, Offa, King of Mercia, commenced an intercourse with the Continent, and held a correspondence with Charlemagne,

which is preserved in Duchesne's *Historiæ Normannorum Scriptores*, and does considerable honour to both. In one of the Emperor's letters, he promises his special protection and legal interference to all commercial adventurers, upon their paying his established duties; greets Offa with expressions of friendship, and sends him a belt, an Hungarian sword, and two silken cloaks. William of Malmesbury, however, relates, that some English merchants, to elude the payment of Charlemagne's customs, put on the habit of pilgrims, and, pretending that they were on a religious journey, asserted that the bales they carried with them, were only provisions for their travel, which were toll-free. The collectors of the Emperor's dues, notwithstanding, frequently searched their packages; and finding them to contain goods for sale, either seized them, or imposed a heavy fine on the owners, which occasioned great complaints, and became a subject of dispute between the two provinces. The learned Alcuinus, who has been already mentioned, was sent as ambassador to Charlemagne, to adjust this difference; but though he established his own interest with the Emperor, he could not bring him to allow that all pilgrims should pass through his dominions without their packs being searched; and he could only procure the following privileges, which form a curious specimen of an ancient commercial treaty.

“ All strangers who pass through our dominions to visit the thresholds of the blessed Apostles, for the love of God and the salvation of their souls, shall be allowed to pass without paying any toll or duty. But such as only put on the habit of pilgrims, and therein pursue their traffic and merchandise, must

pay the legal duties at the appointed places. It is also our will, that all merchants shall enjoy the most perfect security for their persons and effects under our protection, and according to our command. And if any of them are oppressed or injured, let them appeal to us, or to our judges, and they shall receive the most ample satisfaction." For the first effectual encouragement and extension of English commerce, however, the narrative must revert as before, to the reign of Ælfred, who seemed to have bestowed upon his country, every blessing and improvement which could flow from an enlightened mind, and a liberal and active hand. He had enlarged notions of commerce, and knew and valued its advantages ; and his embassy to the shrine of St Thomas in India,—mentioned on page 47 in the first volume of this work,—though it was in consequence of a vow, was, nevertheless of considerable importance in establishing some kind of connexion between Europe and Asia. He sent out rich presents, and he received in return many foreign gems and aromatic liquors ; and As-ser states, that he one day gave him a silken cloak, and a large parcel of frankincence, as much as a strong man could carry. Ælfred also extended navigation and commerce, by encouraging foreigners to enter his service, and his own subjects in making voyages of discovery. One of these latter, towards the North Pole, was undertaken by Ohthere, a Norwegian ; who, on his return, related his travels to Ælfred, by whom they were written. This very interesting narrative is still extant, and translations from it may be found in Dr Henry's History of Great Britain, vol. iv. pages 213-215,

Book ii. Chap. 6, and in Mr Sharon Turner's History of the Anglo-Saxons, vol. ii. pages 83-86, Book v. Chap. 3. In the same authorities, also, will be found a short journal of another voyage written by the same King from the mouth of Wulfstan, an Anglo-Saxon, whom he sent to explore the coasts of the Baltic. Edward the Elder followed the commercial policy of Ælfred; and Athelstan established excellent laws in favour of sea-adventures, by which means the English navy had increased to the extent already noticed under Edgar the Peaceable. Even in the seventh century, London is mentioned as a port which ships frequented; and during the unhappy reign of Ethelred the Unready, its commerce still continued unshaken; and several humane laws were made under that prince, for the protection of distressed foreign merchantment. There was also a company of German traders, called "Emperor's men," who even at that distant period lived in London, and paid the King an annual tribute for his protection. Wine was at this time imported from Normandy, &c. and the most noted quay in London was Billingsgate, [where all vessels paid toll, according to their size, on approaching the bridge. The seamen of the metropolis are likewise particularly mentioned by more than one historian, during the reign of Æthelred II., as taking an active part with the citizens in disposing of the crown when he deserted the throne in 1013. The great fleets, too, which were more than once fitted out during his unhappy reign, sufficiently prove, that experienced sailors must have abounded at the time; though the contentions and treachery of their leaders rendered their

skill and their valour equally useless. Merchantships at this time traded to Rome, and such vessels sometimes went out together armed for their mutual protection. This was effected by associations called Gilds, which were instituted in some mercantile towns and sea-ports, for carrying on more successful commercial enterprises, having sometimes a guildhall for assembling in. Generally speaking, however, the Anglo-Saxon gilds were established on the principle of the modern clubs and benefit-societies; their name being derived from the word *gildan*, to pay. The subscription was one penny at Easter from every hearth or family, and one penny at every member's death. Their intention was to generate mutual good faith, to support the members under the numerous pecuniary penalties of the laws, and principally to provide for the burial and religious rites of the dead. Such was the general history of commerce under the Anglo-Saxons; and it remains only to add a few notices concerning the articles in which they traded.

The narrative of *Ohtheres Voyages*, proves that it was undertaken, both for the purposes of trade and of discovery: since it states, that they pursued whales for their teeth, and made their skin into ropes. Merchants from Ireland landed at Cambridge with cloths, and exposed their goods for sale; and in these invaluable familiar colloquies, which were composed by *Ælfric*, to instruct the Anglo-Saxon youths in the Latin tongue, the occupation of a merchant of the period is thus recounted. "I say that I am useful to the king, and to ealdormen, and to all people. I ascend my ship with my merchandise, and sail over the

sea like places, and buy dear things which are not produced in this land, and I bring them to you here with great danger over the sea; and sometimes I suffer shipwreck, with the loss of all my things, hardly escaping myself.—What do you bring to us?—Skins, silks, costly gems, and gold; various garments, pigments, wine, oil, ivory, and orichalcus; copper and tin, silver, glass, and such like.—Will you sell your things here, as you bought them there?—I will not, because what would my labour benefit me? I will sell them dearer than I bought them there, that I may get some profit to feed me, my wife, and children.”

The Saxon markets and their customs have been already alluded to; and some notice must now be taken of the tolls to which the commercial navigation was subject. The laws of Æthelred II. provide, that a small ship coming up to Billingsgate should pay a halfpenny for toll, and a large ship with sails one penny; whilst vessels filled with wood gave one log for their duty. Southwark was a port where no one took toll but the King. At Chester, with the King's permission, ships might lie and their goods be sold, paying fourpence the last; but, if they arrived or departed without the Royal license, or came against the peace, the King and Court were to have forty shillings for every man in the ship, and both ship and crew were forfeited. Another toll, belonging to this port, exhibits another article of the Anglo-Saxon commerce; for the King's governor might order those having marten-skins for sale not to dispose of them until he had seen them; which, if disregarded, incurred a penalty of forty shillings. The port yielded a revenue of 45*l.*, and three timbers,



or bundles of marten-skins. In the same place, also, false measure was liable to a fine of four shillings: and for selling bad ale the offender paid as much, or else was set upon a dunghill.

Before the establishment of the Danes in England, upon the death of Edmund Ironside, in 1017, they appear to have changed their piracies into something resembling a rude commerce. The superior kings of the north had long been endeavouring to restrain them, but the practice was again becoming prevalent, when a part of the people of the north, who had become merchants to supply the many wants which were experienced in those countries, and their success and convenience at length made them wealthy, respected, and numerous. They brought skins for clothing from Iceland to Norway; and the ordinary food of fish, cattle, and corn, were frequently, from partial famines, required to be interchanged. Hemp, seal, and whale skins, were required for ropes; captives and slaves were to be bought and sold; and many articles of war, and even some of luxury, were wanted out of the nearer or more distant nations. These being some of the commodities which the merchants supplied, their places of resort became noted, and their ships and persons protected both by kings and pirates; and at length the latter began also, occasionally, to engage in commerce, though they also carried on their former ravages with nearly an undiminished ferocity. Two of the most famous places for trade at this period, were Tunsberg in Norway, Birca in Sweden, and Dublin in the British Islands. As the value of the merchants labours were more felt, piracy began not only to decline, but to be viewed as a hateful

evil, which many endeavoured to suppress; and maritime associations were formed in the north, to protect the industrious navigator against the Berserkir and the Vikingr, or to deprive those marauders of the spoil which they had already taken. They also entered into a covenant directly opposite to that of the ancient Danish pirates, though it was still scarcely within the bounds of barbarism; its chief features being, that they would protect trade and agriculture, not plunder women, nor force them from their ships if unwilling, and not eat raw flesh. Such was the decline of that famous system of piracy, which, after the tenth century, began to fall into disrepute, and was weakened by every succeeding northern sovereign, until the improved institutions of legal and moral governments, carried away its last relicks into a gradual oblivion.

It is by no means certain, that the Saxons possessed any coined money before their invasion of England, and conversion to Christianity, when it was probably introduced by the ecclesiastics of Rome, since their words to express it are, *mynet* a coin, and *myneterere* a coiner, which are obvious alterations of the Latin *moneta* and *monetarius*. Indeed, most of the particulars which are extant concerning their money, are obscure and unsatisfactory; for though the names of their coins are very numerous, and their value has been very exactly ascertained, it is yet uncertain whether several of them be actual coins or unwrought metal, or only monies of account. The principal reason for supposing that the Saxons brought coins with them into England, is the existence of pieces of the ear-Kings of Kent, some of which must have been

struck in the sixth century ; and there are others so similar to them in device, that they have been referred to the same period, though, from their symbols, they must have been struck before the conversion of the nation. Coins of the Octarchy, and of every reign afterwards, are yet extant ; and the oldest Saxon pieces above referred to, are called Sceattæ, which were of silver, weighing about  $3\frac{1}{2}$ d. of modern money. They bore the moneyer's, or mint-master's names, but seldom that of the place where they were stamped ; and they remained the smallest coin used by the Saxons, down to the end of the seventh century. The penny appears in 688 : it was also of silver, and was probably not known to the Saxons before their arrival in this island ; there were larger and lesser pennies, 5 of the former being included in the Saxon shilling, and 12 of the latter. Half-lings and Feorthlings, were the half and fourth parts of the Saxon penny, and were also of silver ; in addition to which, there seems to have been a piece called Triens, which parted it into three. The Styca was a brass coin, principally used in York and Northumberland, two of which were equal to one farthing. The other Anglo-Saxon monies were the Pound, contained 20 Saxon shillings, and was worth about 2*l.* 16*s.* 3*d.* in modern value : the mark, or half pound, also imaginary, valued at 1*l.* 17*s.* 9*d.* ; the Mancus, supposed imaginary, or of foreign mintage, worth about six shillings ; the Ora, an imaginary Danish coin, amounting to the eighth of a mark, or 4*s.* 8*d.* ; the Scyllinga, likewise supposed imaginary, consisting of twelve Saxon pennies. This coin is mentioned in the laws of Æthelbert, who governed Kent from

561 to 616, the fines being all stated in shillings ; of this king, also, is the earliest Sceatta known. The Thrymsa was also a coin of account, varying between three-fifths and three-fourths of a shilling. It is generally believed that the Anglo-Saxons had no gold coins, though they did not want bullion ; and some small quantities were even procured from their mines. The most ancient coins of brass were cast, but the gold and silver were struck with a hammer ; one die being fixed in a wooden block, and the other held as a puncheon. The Anglo-Saxons employed three or four hundred moneyers in their mints, and they also travelled about with the king to coin money upon any sudden occasion. The most elegant specimens of Saxon coinage are the pieces of Offa, king of Mercia, between 758 and 796, which are supposed to have been executed by Italian artists. Æthelstan, who reigned from 925 to 941, ordered in his laws, that there should be but one coinage throughout his realm ; that no mint should be outside the gate ; and that, if a coiner were found guilty of fraud, his hand should be cut off and fastened to the mint-smithery. In the same code is an enumeration of the king's mints, as well as those belonging to some ecclesiastic persons and places which enjoyed the privilege of coining ; they amount to 36, and it is added one elsewhere in every burg ; all of which paid a duty to the king for the dies whenever they coined.

In addition to the preceding names of coins, the Anglo-Saxons used various peculiar expressions for payments of money ; as, counting by pennies only, eighty acres of land bought for 385 pennies ; giving them by weight, a cup bequeathed with half a

pound of pennies ; seventy shillings of the finest gold ; and phrases applied both to gold and silver, as if they were used in an uncoined state, and weighed out or cut into pieces. The expression is also found, of 15 pounds of gold, silver, and chattles ; which latter probably refers to what the Anglo-Saxon termed “ live money,” or articles given to complete any particular sum, and consisting of oxen, horses, sheep, and slaves.

The money-pound of this period appears to have been a weight brought from Saxony, the same as the Tower pound long in use at the mint, of about three quarters of an ounce Troy, less than the Troy pound. In the time of Æthelred II., it contained 15 ounces. The mark and the mancus, were likewise considered as weights, the former being eight ounces, or two-thirds of a pound, for the merchants reckoned it at 12 ounces ; but of the latter the quantity is not known. To this obscure subject it may be added, that the weights of the ancient Britons were of stone.

Some curious specimens of the prices of commodities, and the value of money in the Anglo-Saxon period, are shown in the following notices.

The best sheep, by the laws of Æthelstan,

was to be sold for	.	.	.	4d.
An ox, in the tenth century	.	.	.	7s.
A cow	.	.	.	5s. 6d.
A hog	.	.	.	10½d.
A sheep	.	.	.	1s. 2d.
A palfrey, in the reign of Edgar	.	.	.	10s.
An acre of land	.	.	.	1s.
A hide of do. 120 acres	.	.	.	100s.

Most of the ancient Northern nations had very

peculiar customs relating to matrimony; and with the Anglo-Saxons, an unmarried female was supposed to have a Mund-bork, or surety for her protection, who was to be her nearest male relation, and who, for a widow, was to be one of the male relatives of her late husband. Of these persons, a lover bought his mistress by a mede or gift regulated by law, which set a higher price by one half, on the maid than on the relict. If, however, a marriage took place without the guardian's consent, a satisfaction was to be made to him; and the person and goods of the ward were to be restored. At the wedding, the Mund-bork gave away his ward to the spouse, who had secured, by a friend, a proper provision for bringing up the children, and supporting his wife in case of death. Pledges were also given, that if he took her away into another thegn's land, no injury should be done to her; and that if she committed any wrong, compensation should be made for it. If the bride were a maid, but not if she were a wed one, she received the nuptial benediction standing under a kind of veil, held by four tall men. The mass-priest consecrated the marriage, and the mutual promises contained in the present form of matrimony in the English Liturgy, are as ancient as the time of the Anglo-Saxons. At the feast which followed, the usual and large presents of gold, arms, clothes, furniture, &c. made by the invited relations, formed the portion of the bride; who had a right to claim from her husband at sun-rise the next day, a morgæn-gyfe, or morning's gift, for her own peculiar property. Hence is supposed to have arisen the modern settlement; the

amount of this present being arranged before marriage, though it was not actually given until after.

The privileges and rank of Saxon women were greater, as being derived from the rude customs of the Gothic nations, than they were in the more refined manners of the East. They possessed, in general, the same station as at present; were allowed to possess, inherit, and dispose of landed property; were entitled to all the benefits of the laws; attended in county courts, and even in the great national assembly; and were protected by special enactments. The earliest institutions concerning the Anglo-Saxon marriages, occur in the laws of Æthelbert, which ordain, that a man might purchase a woman, if the agreement be made without fraud; but if deceit were detected, she was to be taken back to her dwelling, and the money returned. If a wife brought forth children alive, and survived her husband, she was to have half his property; but if there were no issue, his paternal relations were to have his possessions, and the *morgæn-gyfe*.

The ancient British laws appear to have been very liberal with regard to divorces; since a man was allowed to part with his wife for behaviour even inclining towards adultery; and, on the other hand, she was allowed a separation, upon discovering that he had an ill-scented breath. He had, however, so much authority over her, that for calling him disgraceful names, pulling him by the beard, wasting his property, and some other heavier offences, he might give her three blows with a stick on any part of her body, excepting her head. But if he beat her more severely, or for a less cause, he was liable to a considerable

fine. The Anglo-Saxons had also divorces, though little is known of their peculiar features; but adultery was punished by fine. The women, however, were in general faithful wives, and excellent mothers; even those of more noble rank, commonly brought up their own children; and after the father's death, they were ordered by law to remain with the widow. She was to provide them with food, being allowed six shillings, a cow in summer, and an ox in winter; but the relations of the deceased were to occupy the head-seat, until the heir became of age.

By the laws of this period, infants were to be baptized within thirty days after birth, when they used immersion in water; anointing with the sign of the cross, in the chrisome, or holy oil, on the breast; and nearly the same form of words as that still in use. Their names were given by the parents, and were significative in the Saxon tongue; though, at the time they were bestowed, they had frequently little application. A few specimens will be sufficient, though curious illustrations. Of male names, the following are perhaps the most familiar. Æthelwulf, the noble wolf; Ælfred, an elf in council; Æthelred, noble in council; Dunstan, the mountain stone; Edwin, prosperous in battle; Edward, the prosperous guardian; and Heardberht, the illustrious protector. Some of the female names were Editha, the blessed gift; Wynfreda, the peace of man; Adeleve, the noble wife; Deorwyn, the precious joy; Ælfhild, the elf of battle; and Beage, the bracelet.

The first principle of the Anglo-Saxon education, was to render the children fearless and strong, and fitted for war and hunting, which were likely



to prove the most general occupations of their lives. It was, therefore, very anciently usual to make trial of a child's courage, by placing him on the sloping roof a building, to which if he held fast without screaming or fear, he was called a stout herce, or brave boy. Their favourite sports, too, were exercises of muscular agility, as leaping, running, and wrestling, in which the youth of this period seem to have acquired an extraordinary flexibility of limb. The period of infancy ended with their seventh year, the eighth commenced their childhood, and the power of the Anglo-Saxon father was supposed to terminate with the fifteenth; which time appears to have been fixed by the clergy, soon after the introduction of Christianity. When they did receive any intellectual education, it was generally under the ecclesiastics in monasteries; and when they were about fourteen, they prepared themselves for arms. A youth of laborious exercises was, however, so very general with the Anglo-Saxons, that even after the revival of learning under Ælfred, Asser mentions, with surprise, that he caused his youngest son Æthelward to be taught to read before he had made him accustomed to hunting.

The ancient Northern nations were accustomed to burn their dead, which was also done by the ancient Britons, after which the ashes and bones were collected, and deposited in those hilly graves called Barrows, of which so many specimens are yet existing in England. The same custom was practised by the Danes in England, both as to the bodies of those who were slain in their different incursions, but perhaps after their settlement in

this nation, since burial in barrows is not remarked after the eighth century. Sometimes, however, the relicks were placed in a cist or chest, excavated in the native chalk, and in a later age, in a funeral urn ; but the custom of interring their dead had begun to be practised by the Anglo-Saxons when their history was first written by the Christian clergy, and was never after discontinued. The common coffins were of wood, and the superior ones of stone ; in which latter their kings were interred, being wrapped in linen, but the clergy were clothed in their priestly vestments. Out of this class of the Anglo-Saxon manners, partly arose the power of the clergy over testamentary bequests ; for, upon the ground of a satisfaction for any ecclesiastical duties which the deceased had forgotten to pay, they were entitled to claim a mortuary, or saul-sceat ; consisting of the second best chattel remaining after the lord of the tenant had taken out his heriot as already mentioned. The mortuary was anciently brought into the church along with the body, whence it was sometimes called a corse-present, which implied a voluntary gift, but which, in the reign of Henry III., had become an established custom. The saul-sceat of the Anglo-Saxons, occasionally appears very much to have resembled those gifts, which the members of the Romish Church, used to present for the benefit of its prayers. Thus, a dux in Ælfred's reign, gave to a church in Canterbury and Chertsey Abbey, 200 swine for him and his soul ; and several of the Anglo-Saxon guilds or societies, appear to have been established principally to provide a fund for the saul-sceat. If the body were interred out of its own parish, the right

minister still had the saul-sceat; and it was always to be given at the open grave. The funerals of the nobler Anglo-Saxons, were commonly conducted with great ceremony and festivity; and the house in which the corse lay till the burial, was a perpetual scene of feasting, singing, dancing, and almost every species of riot, which was very costly to the relatives of the deceased. In the ancient Northern nations, this was carried to such an excess of barbarous carousal, that the body was forcibly kept from burial by the visitors, until they were certain that all the property which he had left was expended, whilst the church, in vain, protested and commanded against such relicks of paganism.

The Anglo-Saxon hospitality was almost proverbial. On the arrival of a stranger he was welcomed, and water was brought him to wash his hands; his feet being washed for him in warm water, wiped with a cloth, and in one case the host put them into his bosom. The great Saxon luxury of warm wine, sometimes also appears to have been administered to the guest. But from that peculiarity of the law of this period, of universal responsibility which has been already described, if any one entertained a guest of any sort in his house for three days, if he committed any crime, his host was either to bring him to justice, or answer for it himself; and by another law, a guest after two nights residence was considered one of the family, and his entertainer was to be responsible for all his actions.

The food of this period, included both animal and vegetable diet, and the Anglo-Saxon tables appear to have been plentifully, though plainly

provided. Of the former kind there were oxen, sheep, fowls, deer, goats, and hares; but swine were by far the most generally kept, and formed a principal part of the provision. On this account, the liberty of pannage, or feeding of swine in the royal forests of England, made a principal article in the Forest Charter of Henry III.; for salted meat as a winter provision was generally adopted by the people, and even the baronial households of this nation. The introduction of fish has been already mentioned; and it appears that all the sorts now known were taken and bought by the Anglo-Saxons, though they appear to have preferred (which were sometimes as it is stated by Bede, made into cakes and called eel-bread) herrings, and a kind no longer eaten,—the mere-wine, or porpoise. Bread is found in some instances to have been the only kind of food, from poverty; which then seems to have been made of barley, wheaten bread being considered as a delicacy. The corn was thrashed by a flail, and ground in mills, of which both water and wind were used by the Saxons. The baker's art was also well understood, and held in great estimation; and the Anglo-Saxon cookery, was regarded not only as a matter of taste, but of moral propriety; since, if a person ate any thing half dressed, ignorantly, he was to fast three days, and four if he knew it. Roasted meat seems to have been considered a luxury, but boiling or seething was very general; and broiling and stewing were also in use. Ale and mead were the favourite liquors, and wine was an occasional luxury. Honey, wine, and spices made the esteemed and costly beverage called pigment, and that named morat, was com-

posed of honey diluted with the juice of mulberries. Honey was likewise used in mead and metheglin as well as in other dishes, and most of the meals of this period : on which account, added to that of sugar not being brought hither until the fifteenth century, the wild honey found in the English woods, became an article of importance in the Forest Charter. But to conclude these notices, however, it may be remarked, that fruits, beans, and herbs, were commonly eaten, though Edgar ordained that part of the penance of a rich man should be fasting on beans, green herbs and water; that peppered broths and soups were esteemed, with a kind of boulli called sodden syffian; that a liquor named lac-acidum, probably butter milk, or whey, was used in the monasteries; and that salt was used in great quantities, both for preserving and seasoning all sorts of provisions.

Notwithstanding the rudeness of the times, great ceremony seems to have been used in placing the guests at a feast; and by the laws of Canute, a person sitting out of his proper place, was to be pelted from it by bones at the discretion of the company, without the privilege of taking offence. The mistress of the house sat, as at present, at the head of the table, upon that platform called the Dais, under a canopy, and distributed the provisions to the guests; whence came the modern title of lady, being softened from the Saxon *læf-dien*, or the server of bread. It was in their feasts and conviviality, that the richest of the Anglo-Saxon furniture seems to have been exhibited, in the gold, silver, and silver-gilt cups; drinking vessels of wood inlaid with gold; dishes, bowls, and basons of silver, gold, and brass, engraved;

horns wrought with precious metals; benches and seats carved like animals, and covered with embroidery; the richly-wrought hangings of their apartments; and even tables of silver and gold.

It is observed, by William of Malmesbury, that the profusion of the English feasts was greatly increased after the Danish visits; and they are celebrated by Henry of Huntingdon, for having established the custom of four meals a day, which was probably under Hardicanute in 1040. Beside this, they also appear to have introduced the practice of sitting and drinking long together, which often produced quarelling, against which, several Saxon and Norman laws were enacted. They were also accustomed to sing and play on the harp in turn; and to be entertained by the gleemen, ale-poets, dancers, harpers, jugglers, and tumblers, who were wont to frequent the Saxon taverns, called Comen, or guest-houses, ale-shops, wine-houses, &c. The diversions of these places appear to have been so very attractive, that priests were forbidden by law to eat or drink at them; and the Council of Cloveshoe decreed, that the monks should neither receive any of the players who frequented them into their monasteries, nor practice any of their arts themselves. Edgar, however, made it a complaint, that even in those religious establishments, there were dice, dancing and singing, to the very middle of the night. The drinking customs of this period, however, were frequently marked, rather by profusion than by mirth or cordiality; as will be remembered in that singular practice of dividing wooden bowls and tankards into stages by pegs, the distance between each being considered as a legal draught: and by

the treacherous caution used towards the Danes, of requiring one to pledge himself that another should not stab a Saxon whilst drinking. Of both these customs, some popular recollections are yet extant, in the phrases of a person being a peg too low; and in the expression "I pledge you;" but the drinking by measure was discountenanced by Dunstan, and prohibited to priests by a council held in 1102. In addition to the Anglo-Saxon pastimes above alluded to, may be mentioned, that bear-baiting, military dances with swords, and balancing with tossing of cups, balls, and knives, were in general use at this period. Of more noble sports, hunting and hawking, in which Ælfred arrived at great perfection, were the principal; and they had also a sort of silent game called the Tæft-stone, which is supposed to have resembled chess.

A very brief notice will be sufficient for the superstitions prevalent in the Anglo-Saxon period, as the first volume of this work contains so full a description of the system of Paganism which the Northern nations introduced into England. The people of this time believed in magic, as applied to the raising of spirits, and holding communication with them; in philtres for producing love, and effecting secret death; in charms for almost every thing they desired to effect; and in omens, and fatal and unhappy days, all which the clergy repeatedly lamented, preached and condemned.

The conversion of the Anglo-Saxons to Christianity, appears in some measure to have altered the character of their dress, since, in a council held in 785, some of them are still charged with wearing their habits like pagans. The costume of the females consisted chiefly in a long and loose robe,

reaching down to the ground, with long loose sleeves. On the head was worn a hood, or veil, falling down before, but gathered up at the corners, and folded round the neck and over the breast. Religious virgins wore their hair loose, but married women had it artificially dressed with an iron, and it was considered as a distinguishing ornament; they were also decorated with necklaces, bracelets, and rings with gems, and were fond of painting their faces with a red cosmetic. Of colours and materials used in the females dresses, there occur notices of a dun-tunic, linen and web garments, a white cyrtel with cuffs and riband, a golden fly adorned with gems, golden headbands, and a gown of otter's skin. The male sex was not less attached to golden ornaments, as collars set with stones, bracelets, and rings. The materials of their habits were silk, linen, and woollen; though the former must have been both costly and uncommon. A cap coming to a point in front, probably made of skin; a loose robe reaching down to the feet; and another, longer, fastened over both shoulders to the middle of the breast, by a clasp or buckle, were the principal features of the costume of the Anglo-Saxon gentleman. These garments were frequently lined with rich furs, and decorated with gold embroidery. Sometimes the habit was a close coat, with sleeves to the wrists, girded with a belt, and having wide skirts; shoes reaching up to the ankle, a sort of breeches to the knee, and the remainder of the leg protected by close and thick rolls of leather, or cross-gartering of different colours. The dress of the soldiers and common people, consisted of close coats, reaching only to the knees, with short cloaks hanging over



the left shoulder, and secured on the other by a buckle, which were sometimes ornamented by an edging of gold. The hair of the men was worn long and flowing, and the upper lip was covered with mustaches; the absence of which in the Normans, made one of Harold's spies affirm, that they were not soldiers but monks. Their hair was generally divided from the crown to the forehead, and combed down in waving ringlets, whilst the beard was a continuation from each side, meeting at the chin, and terminating in a forked point. Bitter were the invectives of the Anglo-Saxons against William I., for obliging them to forego these favourite appendages. To have a beard, was prohibited to the clergy; who were also, by a council in 785, ordered not to indulge in that favourite feature of Anglo-Saxon dress, the wearing of diverse coloured habits. Boniface the missionary, too, declaimed against the general luxury of the nation in dress; and affirmed, that those garments which are adorned with very broad studs, and the images of worms, announced the coming of Antichrist.

Of the Danish costume, only a very few particulars will be required in this place, since its prevailing character greatly resembled that of the Anglo-Saxon. The Kings in England appear principally to have worn a red habit embroidered with gold, and a purple robe; to which they probably added that cruciform sceptre, called the Hammer of Thor, or Miolner, which measured seven spans in length. The tunic, surcoat, or mantle, fastened with fibula across the body on the right shoulder; and chausses or pantaloons, were worn with

pointed shoes or buskins. In the female dresses, there was also but little difference from those of the Anglo-Saxon women, excepting, as in the former cases, that they were much richer; a short kirtle hanging to the knees, braided hair, golden bracelets, rings, girdles, and torques, or necklaces, being the characteristic features. The materials of these dresses were cloths, silks, and samites, or velvets; which were procured either from Spain, or from the Mediterranean, by plundering the Moors. Furs of various kinds were used for lining these habits; they were frequently richly embroidered, and they were also sometimes decorated with fringes. A loose rock, or tunic, with brochs, or trowsers, and pointed shoes, or buskins of skin, were the general mariner-like garments of the common Danish people; adopted by them in consequence of that devotion to the sea which has been already mentioned. Sometimes these garments were rough or hairy, for keeping off the wet; and sometimes they wore a sort of mantle and pointed hood made together, and of different colours, which hung down only to the thighs.

With respect to the Danish armour of the tenth and eleventh centuries, it was also very similar to that worn by the Anglo-Saxons at the same period, a complete suit of steel lozenges, as already described. The ancient armour, however, was composed of a leathern cuirass, made flexible to the body, adopted from the Romans; a broad collar, or gorget, covering the neck and breast, set with steel rings; and greaves, or leg-guards of leather, which were occasionally gilded. The helmet was shaped like a curvilinear cone, terminating in a ball, and decorated with gilded rays spreading

over the top ; a headpiece ornamented with gold, being a mark of high distinction. Blue tunics were also occasionally worn with armour, and the same colour, with rich gilding, was sometimes used for those shields which the ancient northmen held in such high estimation. A man who had lost his buckler, or who had received a wound behind, durst never more appear in public ; and the Danish shields were also highly regarded for the various noble and interesting purposes, in which they were employed. Thus, they were used for carrying fallen heroes to the grave ; for swimming on in naval engagements, when pressed by the enemy, which might very well be done, as they were commonly made of wood, bark, or leather, though sometimes of iron or brass ; for making a rampart round a party, by locking the bucklers into each other ; for resting under when encamped in the field ; for terrifying the enemy with clashing their weapons against them ; and, finally, when the war was over, for suspending them against the walls of their dwellings, as monuments of their own valour, and as the noblest decorations with which they could adorn them. When a young warrior was at first enlisted, he received a white and plain buckler, called " the shield of expectation ;" which he carried, until, by some signal exploit, he had permission to have the proofs of his valour delineated upon it ; since none but princes, or persons distinguished by their prowess, presumed to carry shields adorned with any symbol. It was, however, the most noble occupation in which a hero could be employed in the intervals of war, to burnish his shield, and to represent upon it some emblem by which his valour might be commemor-

ated, or his person distinguished. The size and shape of the ancient northern shields, varied considerably in different countries; the Scandinavians wearing them of a long oval form, the height of the bearer; and the Anglo-Danes having them smaller, like bucklers, of a lunated, or crescent shape, whence the poetical phrase of "moony shields," painted red and decorated with gold. Concerning the offensive weapons of the Danes, it will be sufficient to remark, that the principal were bows and arrows, with which the Scandinavians were very skilful; scimitars, and long powerful swords, inscribed with Runic spells; javelins and lances, also engraven with mystic characters on the blades, and having handles plated with gold; slings, clubs armed with iron spikes; and the bipennis, or double-battle axe, which was always used by those who carried the lunated shields.

Some of the authorities used for these notices of ancient costume and armour have been already cited in the works of Meyrick, Fosbroke, and Strutt; and it remains only to add the following:—*A Series of Engravings of the Ancient Costume of England, from the Ninth to the Sixteenth Century*, Lond. 1812, 4to. An extremely beautiful work by Hamilton Smith, the decorations to which are all from ancient and authentic sources, many of them being supposed portraits, copied into good drawing and picturesque effect, heightened with the proper colours. Another work, whence much valuable information has been derived, especially concerning the Danes, is the learned *Illustrations of Northern Antiquities*, Edin. 1814, 4to: to which may be added, the meritorious though solitary at-

tempt at rectifying the theatrical dresses of this nation, Mr J. R. Planche's *Dramatic Costume*, Lond. 1823-25, 12mo. The latter work contains coloured representations of the habits proper to be worn in several of Shakspeare's historical plays, with many curious and interesting biographical, critical, and explanatory notices, arranged in chronological order. The work, as far as it is already published, contains the following dramas:—Hamlet, supposed to be at the close of the tenth, or commencement of the following century; King John, 1199 to 1216; Henry IV. 1399 to 1413; As you Like it, supposed to be under Charles VIII. of France, between 1483 to 1498; Othello, at the Turkish invasion of Cyprus in 1570; and the Merchant of Venice, supposed to be 1594.

But, to conclude this view of the interesting periods contained in the present chapter, the general character of the Anglo-Saxon nation, was that of a devout but indolent people; whose personal courage and qualities depended chiefly upon the leader who conducted, and the Sovereign who ruled them. Under Egbert and Ælfred they evinced the courage of their German ancestors, and a love for learning and the sciences; but under Æthelred I. they appear to have declined into the darkest state of ignorance; and under Edgar and Æthelred II., to have been guilty both of cowardice and treachery. They must, however, have undergone a very important improvement by their acquisition of Britain, both in their moral, political, and intellectual character; since they ceased to perpetrate their northern piracies, and became attached to agriculture, commerce, and several

arts and manufactures. That they also suddenly acquired considerable wealth, which enabled them to become yet more prosperous, is certain, from the testimonies of Gildas and Bede. These ancient authors state, that the Saxons found in Britain twenty-eight noble cities, and innumerable castles, with their walls, towers, and gates. Productive veins of copper, iron, lead, and even silver, had been opened. A great supply of shell-fish, yielding a beautiful scarlet dye; and muscles with pearls, mostly white, but some of other colours, abounded on their shores. The marine animals, whales, seals, and dolphins frequented the coasts; salmons and other fish, their rivers; and eels and waterfowl, their lakes and marshes. Vines in some places, and useful forests in all, increased their general resources of natural wealth. The invasions of the Danes, destructive as they were, had certainly the ultimate effect of improving the Saxon navy, and leading them to distant voyages of intercourse and commerce. But of the general Danish character in England, with the exception of Canute the Great, there are few amiable features recorded. The chief quality appears to have been a disposition to festivity, though it was often rather uncivilized excess; whilst the pride of the Danes was so excessive in England, that it is recorded, if a Saxon met one in a narrow lane, or on a bridge, he was obliged to throw himself prostrate, until the Dane had passed. A slight commemoration of their indolence and haughtiness is even yet preserved in England in the term of Lurdane, used for an idle and insolent fellow, of which the words Lord Dane are commonly supposed to have been the original.

## CHAPTER II.

FROM THE NORMAN INVASION TO THE END OF  
FIFTEENTH CENTURY.

1. *Anglo-Norman Period.*—The commerce of England, which the former chapter has shown to have been considerable, began rather rapidly to increase in the eleventh and twelfth centuries; and the cities of York, Bristol, Canterbury, Exeter, &c. grew wealthy and reputable by their attention to trade and navigation. In London, some of the streets were exclusively inhabited by the richest Jews in Europe; and the most eminent traders were denominated Barons; which title, however, was also conferred upon the merchants of the Cinque Ports in Kent and Sussex, which they still retain. These towns were bound, in return for the immunities they enjoyed, to furnish the King with fifty-seven ships, at forty days' notice, and to pay their crews for fifteen days. The most disgraceful part of the English commerce at this time, was the dealing in slaves, which were exported to foreign parts, and particularly to Ireland, notwithstanding the decree issued against it by the Great Council sitting at Westminster in 1102. The general exports, however, were leather, corn, tin, and lead, which is said to have been used for cover-

ing most of the cathedral and abbey churches, palaces and public buildings, in France and on the Continent. English horses were likewise exported, and held in great estimation; for King John demanded of a Baron named Amphotill Till, as his ransom, ten horses, each worth 30 marks, which may be calculated at nearly 300*l.* of modern money. The articles imported to England consisted of gold and precious stones, silk and tapestry, furs, dying materials, some corn, and drugs and spices, which were in general use in the food, the liquors, and the medicines of the time. "The Sabæans," says Fitz-Stephen, "import to London their frankincence and other spices; and from the rich country about Babylon, they bring oil of palms." Wines were also an import of this period, from Anjou, Auxerre, and Gascoigne; and so important did their regulation appear to the English, that a jury was appointed in every city to examine into their merit and settle their value: by which means, observes the contemporary Roger de Hoveden, "the land was filled with drink and drunkards." It must not be forgotten, that wool and cloth are likewise to be included in the list of English exports; for the ancient national manufacture of woollen cloth,—introduced, or at least highly improved in England by colonies of Flemings,—seems to have been most flourishing in the eleventh and twelfth centuries. In Ireland, too, a similar manufacture was already established, with the making of serges, says, friezes, &c. which were celebrated on the Continent, in the reign of Henry III.

The Norman ships, as they are represented in that famous monument of art, the Bayeux tapestry,



are long galleys, with a high scroll at the stern, surmounted by a figure ; and by a similar crook at the prow, with a bust above it. The rudder appears on one side, and there is a single mast, with a sail attached to an ornamented yard, whilst the ropes of the vessel are fastened to the head and stern, and the anchor is carried at the stern over the side. The vessels of this period are found delineated of several different kinds ; some, being long boats, surrounded with a broad iron band, pointed at the prow, to be used in battle for carrying soldiers and cross-bowmen : others, fitted up with castles for slingers and archers, whilst men with heavy flails stood on the prow : others, were small vessels for sailing, and some of the Danish and Norman era were capacious enough to contain provisions for two years, of corn, wine, bacon, bread, cows, calves, &c.

The principal alteration which the Anglo-Norman period made in the Saxon coin, was the disappearance of some of the lesser pieces, the silver penny being the smallest coin of the time. The Anglo-Saxon custom, of giving "live money" to make up particular sums, was still continued ; but the want of a sufficient quantity of coins of small value, must have been found an inconvenience, since both Henry III. and Edward I. enacted penalties against those who should cut or break silver pennies into halves and quarters. The mark was still used in the account of large sums, although only an imaginary coin ; and in modern weight and value it was nearly 2*l*. The pennies of William I. are supposed to be known by their wanting a star on the reverse, which figure is ascribed to those of William Rufus. Halfpennies

and farthings were coined by Henry I.; but the numerous peculiarities of the ancient national money, are most copiously displayed in the Rev. Roger Ruding's *Annals of the Coinage of Britain*, Lond. 1818, 8vo, 5 vols. Its comparative value is shown in a very curious work by Dr William Fleetwood, Bishop of Ely, entitled *Chronicon Preciosum*, Lond. 1745, 8vo, whence some of the following articles have been extracted:—1073. Rates paid to the King's Purveyors for finding provisions for his Court and Army.

	Bread for 100 men . . . . .	1s.
	One pasture-fed ox . . . . .	1s.
	One ram or sheep . . . . .	4d.
	Provender for 20 horses . . . . .	4d.
1091.	For watching the sick, yearly, with board . . . . .	4s.
	At the death of a sick man, a coat, or . . . . .	4s.
	For watching by the dead, each night allowed at Croyland Abbey.	2d.
1125.	(A time of great dearness in England)	
	Wheat, per quarter . . . . .	6s.
	King Henry II. allowed his worn-out servants 1½d. daily, for which they could procure rather more than for a modern shilling.	
1184.	33 Cows and 2 bulls . . . . .	8l. 7s.
	Sheep and hogs in droves, sold under 1s. each.	
	15 Breeding mares . . . . .	2l. 12s. 6d.
	11 Heifers . . . . .	2l. 14s.
	Fowls, for each . . . . .	½d.
	A ram . . . . .	8d.

1197. In a scarcity of wheat the quarter  
sold for . . . . . 18s. 8d.
1198. Paid to Hugh de Bosco for stocking the  
King's lands of Mienes,  
For oxen, each . . . . . 3s.  
For sheep, each . . . . . 4d.
1200. The best French wine, per ton 1*l*. 6s. 8d.
1205. Allowed by King John to Stephen  
de Turnham, for the custody of  
his niece, per day 1 mark, or 13s. 4d.

The dress of the Anglo-Norman nobles and gentry, consisted of a long and close gown reaching to the feet, the lower edge being frequently embroidered with gold. Over this hung an equally long cloak, generally buckled over the breast; and in walking or riding abroad, a hood hung behind it. The close gown was put on over the head like a shirt, and fastened round the waist by a girdle, which was frequently embroidered, and set with precious stones. The nether stock and stockings were of fine cloth, and were sometimes very costly. Under William II. were introduced remarkable long-toed shoes, by a person who thence received the name of De Cornibus, or Robert with the horns, and the fashion at length grew to such a height, as to call down the censures of the pulpit. The Queen and noblewomen of the Anglo-Normans, wore loose gowns girdled round the waist, and trailing on the ground; but married females had also an additional robe over the gown, hanging down before like part of a priest's dress, with a purse or pouch hanging to the girdle.

For more than a century, the Anglo-Normans wore no hair on their faces, and it is said to have been an exception to this custom which first in-

troduced the name of Algernon into the Percy family; since William de Percy, who attended Robert Duke of Normandy to Palestine in 1096, received the surname of Alsgernons, or William with the whiskers. The hair was in general worn long; but when Henry I. was in Normandy in 1104, Serlo, an eloquent prelate, preached against long hair with such energy, that he moved the king and his nobles to tears of repentance; upon which the orator drew forth a pair of scissors from beneath his robe, and shortened the locks of his audience on the spot. A somewhat similar instance is mentioned in the first volume of this work, page 64; and another which appears to have terminated the custom, is related in the anecdote of a young knight, who in 1129 dreamed that he saw himself strangled in his own locks by a spectre; whereupon he awoke in a fright, cut off his hair, and was imitated by the courtiers, though the custom was but of short duration.

The Anglo-Normans appear to have made but little alteration in the ancient marriage ceremonies of this nation, though the introduction of putting on the wedding-ring is attributed to them; but there are relics of its use in the Saxon times, and the Episcopal ring was an emblem of union to the church. The feudal tenures which introduced guardianship, were, however, a powerful restriction upon voluntary marriages; since an ancient chronicler laments "that wardes are bought and solde as commonlye as are beastes," and that "they are forced to see with another manne's eye, and say yea with another manne's tongue." But even in these cases, the noble heir had a right to be married without disparagement, which consisted prin-

cipally in uniting him to a lunatic, one of an inferior degree, of a deformed person, or a widow; which until 1547 was considered as bigamy, without benefit of clergy. In thus mentioning widows, it may be noticed concerning them, that before the Norman invasion, they had no power to marry again until their year of mourning should have expired; which was a custom derived from the ancient Northern nations. But this was set aside by Magna Charta; and a widow was permitted to marry and enjoy her dower,—which was all her fortune,—provided she remained forty days in her late husband's dwelling, if it were not a castle, which would require being kept by a man; and gave security that she would not marry without her lord's consent. This was done to prevent an union with the king's, or the baron's enemies, or with strangers, who might carry away the treasure of the realm; whilst the residence or quarantine, in the dwelling of the deceased, was to prevent the very common substitution of counterfeit posthumous issue. The relicts of those barons who held in chief of the sovereign, were called the King's widows. Henry I. made a law, that contracts of marriage without witnesses should be void; and which restricted matrimony to the seventh degree of consanguinity.

The Anglo-Norman form of baptism was nearly similar to that of the modern church of Rome, and that adopted by the Saxons after their conversion.

The funerals of the period were sometimes extremely splendid. Matthew Paris relates, that the body of Henry II, was dressed in the royal robes, a

golden crown set on the head, and shoes of wrought gold on the feet ; in which habits it was exposed to the people with the face uncovered. The ancient histories of England contain numerous accounts of similar spectacles at royal, baronial, and ecclesiastical funerals ; the custom of lying in state being of great antiquity. Chambers were also hung with black ; and for feudal lords who were castellans, or patrons of churches, &c. the walls of the sacred edifices were washed with a broad black border, called Litre, having the ensigns of the deceased painted at certain intervals. In after ages this was succeeded by the funeral-belt, used to surround the standing hearse of Emperors, &c. exhibited in churches. The custom of burying the dead near the high altar is said to have been introduced into England by Archbishop Lanfranc in 1075, when he rebuilt Canterbury cathedral. Several particulars relating to the ancient sepulchral monuments of England having been inserted in the preceding book, it remains only to be noticed here, that the earliest are in the form of a coffin, with a triangular cover terminating in a ridge, to shoot off wet, because they were laid upon the ground. Those of the twelfth century are also of the same shape, but carved on the lid ; and in the thirteenth appear flat gravestones, tombs under arches, with heads or bodies issuing from them, whilst the effigies of the persons upon them begin to be considered as portraits. As these effigies, however, are usually distinguished by particular symbols, it may be useful to notice, that priests are frequently holding chalices upon their breasts ; prelates are habited in their pontifical robes ; and knights in their armour, having their legs crossed

if they were crusaders. Figures of skeletons also belong to the thirteenth century; and the first table-monument is that of King John, who died in 1216.

The chivalric system introduced by the Normans, was certainly a considerable refinement on the manners of the Anglo-Saxons; since the knighthood of the former at least implied valour, blended with something of elegance. The knight, after having been seven or eight years in training as an esquire, bound himself by a solemn oath to be loyal to his king, to protect the virtuous part of the fair sex, and to rescue widows and orphans at the hazard of his life. The tilts and tournaments which he was bound to frequent, especially at Advent and Easter, were splendid, though severe, military exercises, where his prowess and skill were put to a violent and public test; and they furnished perpetual incitements to excellence in courtesy, and the art of war. The duty, also, of a knight selecting a supreme lady, whose virtue and beauty he was bound to be ever ready to defend, covered its absurdity with its elegance, and infused into the chevaliers a kind of haughty courtesy, politeness, and attachment to one object, which were of considerable importance in gradually improving both the manners and morals of society. The tournament was probably originally derived from the Gauls, and was revived in 1066 by Geoffrey de Preuli; but it does not appear to have been used in England until a century afterwards under Stephen. As this diversion was originally practised, the knights were placed at the four corners of an open space, whence they ran together in parties, endeavouring to unhorse

each other ; but as there was considerable danger connected with it, a kind of barrier was invented in France, towards which they galloped and crossed their spears, though without coming in contact. The space in which these exercises were exhibited was called the lists : and was a plain and flat piece of ground of sixty paces by forty, enclosed with railing or boards seven feet high, that a horse might not leap over them. On the outside were seats raised above each other, in the manner of a theatre ; those for royalty, nobility, or principal ladies being covered with a canopy, and decorated with rich hangings : and within the lists were the tents of the combatants, having their shields and devices suspended at the entrance. After the introduction of heraldical bearings, the esquires and pages of the champions who stood by the shields, were often habited in fancy-dresses, like savages, with green leaves about their heads and loins : but after the return of the crusaders from Palestine, these servitors were often dressed to resemble the Saracens, with large and fierce visages. Others were habited like palmers, angels, griffins, &c. ; and others like various animals and birds, whence supporters to armorial ensigns are supposed to have been derived. Tournaments were suppressed by Henry II., and renewed and encouraged by Richard I. and his successor ; though the very great hazard attending them occasioned the sport to be prohibited by the decrees of several Popes, since those who fell in them were denied Christian burial. In the course of years, and by continual practice, the champions became so expert as to avoid much of their danger ; but the most eminent of them seldom terminated



without loss of life, of which numerous instances have been recorded.

These were the diversions of persons of high rank ; and the sports of hunting and hawking were in no less estimation with the Anglo-Normans, since kings, ecclesiastics, and nobles, pursued them with the greatest avidity and delight. The rigorous preservation of the royal game has been already mentioned ; and an instance of the care which was taken to preserve the animals for chasing, may be seen in Edward the Confessor receiving annually from his manor of Barton near Gloucester, 3000 loaves of bread for the maintenance of his dogs. The oppression and eagerness with which the chase was then pursued, is vividly delineated by John of Salisbury, a conventual author who died in 1128. " By these pursuits," says he, " they lose their humanity, and become monsters like the animals they chase ; shepherds and their flocks are driven from their pastures, that wild beasts may range in them at large : should one of these potent sportsmen approach your dwelling, hasten to bring out every refreshment which you have in your house, or whatever you can beg or borrow of your neighbours, lest you should find the fatal consequences of your neglect, and perhaps be accused of treason."

Some of the Norman sports, however, were of a domestic and more thoughtful character. The very ancient game of chess was played by Richard I. on his voyage to the Holy Land ; and ten sorts of games with dice, are recounted by an author of the twelfth century. They also appear to have been warmly and universally played ; since Mat-

thew Paris censures the barons who were in arms against King John, for spending their time in luxury, and playing at dice when they were required in the field: and when the crusade from France and England was fitted out in 1190, the second of the laws prepared for it was, that knights and clerks playing on the voyage, should be restricted to the loss of 20 shillings a day, amounting in the present time to nearly as many pounds. If, however, soldiers or sailors were detected in playing, they were to be whipped and ducked.

The earliest notice of a theatrical entertainment in England belongs to the year 1100, when Geoffrey, Abbot of St Albans, was author of a play of the Life of St Catherine. The religious drama appears to have been first devised at Rome by St Jerome, and to have consisted of portions from the Scriptures as substitutes for the ancient classical tragedies. These received the name of Mysteries, from the sacred character of their subject, and are supposed to have been introduced into England, by the pilgrims who travelled to the Holy Land. Another kind, which exhibited the history of a saint, were called Miracles, and were commonly written and acted by ecclesiastics, in dresses belonging to the church. They were generally performed in or about sacred edifices, always in the afternoon, and were especially attended by females.

The sports of the common people at this time were bull-baiting, cock-fighting, and horse-racing, which were particularly practised in London in the twelfth century; as well as sports on the Thames, of running at a mark, or tilting, in boats with wooden spears. Skating and drawing each

other along upon the ice, were also practised in the winter season, upon the frozen fields without the city.

In comparison with the Saxons, and especially with the Danes, the Normans were temperate and delicate in their meals when they first invaded England; though it was not long before they equalled or excelled their predecessors. A contemporary author censures the Barons when going to war, for having their horses laden with wine instead of weapons, luncheons instead of lances, spits instead of spears, bottles instead of battle-axes. But the Anglo-Saxon custom of four meals in the day, was altered to two; and Robert de Mellent, the prime-minister and favourite of Henry I., used his endeavours to reduce them to one. The principal of these, the dinner, was at 3 o'clock in the morning, and the supper at 5 in the afternoon; in which there appears to have been sometimes a great variety of dishes; since William de Longchamp, Bishop of Ely, is said to have had at his table, all the sorts of beasts that roam on the land, of fishes that swim in the water, and of birds that fly in the air, and there were also many of which the composition is now unknown. The most esteemed kind of bread, was a sort of ginger bread called "peppered bread;" but wastel bread and simnel cakes were part of the allowance of the King of Scots when in England, whence it is concluded that they were made of the finest meal. The wine of this period is supposed to have been principally brought from France, though some sorts, like Rhenish, were also made in England; and there were also in use several sorts of other liquors, composed of honey,

spices, or the juice of mulberries, named hypocras pigment, claret, and morat. There were likewise cyder, perry, and ale.

The Norman period was characterised by a kind of gross hospitality and indiscriminate charity, which, in many instances, covered the despotism of the Barons; and, in general, they were composed of the most opposite qualities. They were acutely discerning, but ignorant and credulous; honourably brave, though atrociously cruel; respectful to the fair sex even to adoration, yet brutally licentious to individuals; and effeminate in their dress and manners, whilst capable of undergoing the greatest fatigues. The Crusades, however, introduced a spirit of Asiatic luxury and softness, with such a passion for splendid habits, that, a short time after this period, when Sir John Arundel was setting out on an expedition against France, he had 52 new suits of apparel of cloth of gold or tissue.

Another effect of these religious expeditions, which, in treating of the Anglo-Norman period, should not be omitted, was that extreme hatred and cruelty towards the Jews, which was so remarkable a feature in the manners and polity of the thirteenth century, and from which none of the English in the middle ages were free. Many unhappy instances are on record of their oppression, immense sums being levied on them for permission to remain in England: and Henry III. actually sold them for a term of years to his half-brother, Richard, King of the Romans. As it was anciently considered unlawful for Christians to take usury, interest was received only by the Jews, who, however, were not less hated and

oppressed, on account of that very privilege. A separate treasury, called the Exchequer of the Jews, was established for receiving the revenue arising from them, consisting of fines for law proceedings and misdemeanours, ransoms, compositions, &c. which they paid for having the King's benevolence, license to trade, &c. They also paid some of the nobles and ecclesiastics for protection, since the Prior of Dunstable protected many Jews, each paying him two silver spoons every year; and even the livings of the clergy were sometimes mortgaged to them. The enormous sums which they disbursed at different periods, show that they had amassed considerable wealth, by the money-transactions which they effected all over England; for, being a very numerous body, they were settled in almost all the principal towns of the kingdom, and they had paid to the Crown between 1265 and 1273, the sum of 420,000*l.* 15*s.* 4*d.* King Edward I., however, at last determined on wholly abolishing usury; and an Act called the Statute of Judaism, was passed in 1289, by which it was entirely prohibited in England, and the Jews, though not formally banished, left the kingdom to the number of 15,060. By virtue of the King's writs of safe conduct through the country, they assembled in London, where some of the richest of them embarked, with their treasure, on board a vessel of great burthen, and sailed down the Thames to Queenborough. The master of the ship, a man yet worse than the most usurious of his passengers, entered into a conspiracy with his mariners to destroy them: and casting anchor, remained so until the vessel was dry a-ground at ebb-tide. The Jews were then invited to

go on shore with the Captain ; but when they had landed, he attentively watched the flowing of the water, and regained his ship by a rope, whilst the unsuspecting Hebrews perished in the waters. The captain, and all concerned in, or consenting to this detestable act, were afterwards tried and executed for it, by the Justices of the Circuit ; but the whole kingdom granted that tax called a fifteenth to Edward I. for his banishment of usury and the Jews from England.

2. *Thirteenth, Fourteenth, and Fifteenth Centuries.*—The commerce of England began now to be extended, by a treaty of amity and trade, made between Henry III. and Hacho, King of Norway, in 1217. He applied for it through an abbot, and it appears to have been the first made between this nation and any Northern power. About 1246, an association of merchants, called the Brotherhood of Thomas-a-Becket, began to trade with Brabant ; and in 1266, Henry III. granted to Hamburg, &c. the privilege of importing also, as a society of merchants, goods into England, at a moderate duty. The reason is uncertain, though it has been affirmed that it was allowed for service done against France. The imports of wine into England, now appears to have been considerable. Wine guagers were appointed to many English ports in 1272, and a new guage-duty was levied on wines, at the rate of one penny per ton : after which the returns were 3799 tons at London, 3147 at Southampton and Portsmouth, and 1900 at Sandwich. Towards the close of the thirteenth century, the Sovereigns of England appear to have asserted that power of the Flag and Fishery, as it was called, which the

Dutch so much disputed nearly four hundred years after. In 1295, appears the first protection granted to foreign fishermen by the Kings of this country : and the custos of the Eastern seas, and the bailiffs of Yarmouth, are directed not to injure the fishers of Holland. The national commerce continued also to increase, by the company of Merchant-adventurers being established in 1296, when they commenced a regular trade in the woollen manufacture of the country. There was, however, a very dishonest practice carried on in the port of London, which justly occasioned considerable complaints—that of making foreigners liable to arrest for debts contracted by other foreigners. As this custom continued for some time, it was retaliated upon the English by their ships being sometimes detained in foreign ports, to answer for the crimes committed by the crews of other vessels. The statute of Magna Charta was much more honourable towards merchant-strangers in England, since it provided that they should have security in coming to England, in departing, and in remaining and travelling therein ; with freedom from all unjust tolls, and even, in the event of a war, their goods and property were to be in security, until it should be known how the English merchants were treated in the hostile country, unless they had been previously publicly prohibited. The ancient law instituted by Ælfred concerning foreign merchants, limited them to a residence of forty days in England at the four fairs ; and it was not until the national commerce had considerably increased, that they were treated with the liberal spirit of Magna Charta. In 1331, Edward III. commenced the execution of a system

which gradually established the manufacture of cloth in England, by protecting and encouraging such Flemish men as would settle in his realm, and teach the art of weaving. At this period the people of Flanders were discontented with their Earl, and in the same year 70 families of manufacturers left the Low Countries, and came hither on the King's invitation. It was also to preserve this manufacture, that, in 1338, the King prohibited the exportation of English rams; but though, in the following year, several looms were set up at Bristol, the people of London had always an inherent dislike to the Flemings, whom they often insulted, though they were always steadily protected by the King. The importance of the English commerce in 1354, may be estimated by a record in the Exchequer, which shows that the balance of trade in favour of England then amounted to 765,644*l.* in modern money. There were, notwithstanding, several restraints on trade; as in 1363, a statute enacted that merchants, tradesmen, and handicrafts, were to select some one occupation, and follow no other, though this law was in great part repealed in the following year. In 1377, also, Richard II. complied with the desire of the men of London, and prohibited foreign merchants from being housekeepers in, or freemen of the city; but in the next year this ordinance was recalled. Wine still appears to have been one of the most important articles of English trade; though, in 1352, only three taverns in London were licensed to sell sweet wines: one being in Cheap, another in Walbrook, and a third in Lombard Street. In 1372, two hundred English ships were at one time waiting in the port of



Bourdeaux to be laden with wine ; and Kingston-on-Hull traded in the same year with Prussia, by the Baltic Sea, King Edward permitting each ship to carry four pipes of Rhenish wine, provided they brought back bow-staves in return, for the encouragement of archers, and support of the English army. In opposing any branch of commerce, which seemed to interfere with the privileges of the city of London, the lower order of citizens always appear to have been particularly prompt and suspicious ; and beside their continual altercations with the Flemings, in 1379, they procured the murder of a foreign merchant, whom Edward had encouraged to store rich wares and spices in Southampton Castle ; by which the kingdom lost a valuable and newly-projected branch of commerce. A curious notice of articles exported from England in the fourteenth century, for the use of the Pope and the Duke of Bretagne, will show in what articles the nation excelled, and properly close the review of its trade at this period. For the former, in 1382 were sent out many garments lined with beaver skin ; many knives, pewter ware, alabaster images of holy personages, &c. all which were protected by the King's license to the Pope's collector, and paid no duty. To the Duke of Bretagne, in 1393 were sent, with other goods, two pairs of traps, nine pairs of bottles, and 132 pounds of sugar. Whilst the English commerce was in its infancy, and even during the fifteenth century, it was frequently carried on in so rude a manner, that its merchants might almost have been mistaken for pirates ; whilst trading foreigners were too often ungenerously treated on land. Two

Companies of the latter were, however, established at London, entitled Merchants of the Stilyard and Staple, which, in 1458, paid the enormous amount of 68,000*l.* to the customs. This sum contained nearly the value of 136,000*l.* in silver; and, computed in modern money, would furnish a very respectable view of the trade on which it was levied. But the native association already mentioned, called the Brotherhood of St Thomas à Becket, was still existing and successful; and being composed of English and Irish merchants, was so much encouraged by succeeding Sovereigns, that at length it gradually undermined the foreigners. Notwithstanding the hostile character of the fifteenth century, commerce on the whole may be said to have flourished, and the merchant vessels of England increased. Newcastle had ships worth 1000*l.* captured in the Baltic, and Hull complained of the loss of valuable merchantmen. Edward IV., too, seized from one trader alone, William Canning of Bristol, several vessels to the amount of 2470 tons; one of which was 900 tons, another 500, and another 400. It does not appear, however, that ships of any very great capacity, were constructed in England or Scotland, from the praises which are bestowed on James Kennedy, Archbishop of St Andrews, for constructing a large vessel, called the Bishop's Barge; and John Taviner of Hull, was endowed with several privileges by Henry VI. in 1449, because he had built a ship as large as a great carrack. The chief commerce of this period, seems to have been with Holland and Flanders, where a number of English merchants were residing; to whom, in 1406, a charter of incorporation was

granted, similar to that which the Brotherhood of St Thomas à Becket had received in 1402. There also appears to have been an intercourse with Genoa, whence were exported cotton, rock-allum, and gold, in return for English wool and woollen cloths of all colours : and the commodities of Venice and Tuscany were sweet wines, groceries, spices, and apes and marmosets.

By this time the endeavours of Edward III., to rival the Flemings in their woollen manufacture, had in a great degree proved successful ; and the tradesmen of London were not deficient in an active spirit of enterprise. The States of Europe began to be desirous of possessing the English cloths ; yet the whole of the wool produced by the nation could not yet be used, and great quantities of it were still sold to foreigners. In 1413, London exported to Morocco as much as amounted to 24,000*l.* ; but the vessels, from their valuable lading, were seized by the Genoese, for which Henry V. granted reprisals. To show how greatly the wool of England was esteemed abroad, it may be mentioned, that in 1464, twenty ewes and five rams were sent to Castile, by the King's license, from the Cotswold Hills in Gloucestershire ; from which it is said, have been descended, all the sheep which produce the fine wool of Spain. It is probable, that this relation is exaggerated, though the English sheep might be useful in improving the breed. Many acts, however, were passed, to confine the transportation of the English wool to Calais ; but Sir Robert Cotton observes, that for money, the Kings would often grant licenses to extend its exportation, as, in 1470, in consideration of 12,000*l.* borrowed by

Edward IV., several merchants were permitted to miss Calais, and carry their wool to the Mediterranean ports. There appears to have been little or no linen at this period made in England, since, in 1422, the Duke of Bedford, then Regent of France, endeavoured to persuade the Norman Parliament of the great advantages to be gained by sending the linen of Normandy in exchange for the English lead, wool, &c. It is probable, as in a former instance, that a list of articles licensed by Henry VI. in 1428, to be exported to the King of Portugal, contains some of the best productions of this country at the time. Six silver cases, gilt; two pieces of scarlet woollen; one piece of sanguine dyed in grain; two pieces of mustyro devillers, an inferior kind of velvet; two thousand vessels of mixed metal, consisting of plates, dishes, basons, &c.

The alterations of the national coin in the fourteenth century, were not considerable; for though some changes were made by Edward III. in the silver, no new species was added. In 1344, however, he struck golden florins of 6s. with halves and quarters; but finding these pieces too high, he recalled them, and coined the gold noble at 6s. 8d. The art of coinage, however, was still in a very imperfect state, being effected by a hammer, after the metal had been cast into plates or long thin bars, marked into circles and cut by shears. The silver pieces were blaunched by boiling. There were no remarkable changes in the English coin of the fifteenth century; but Henry IV. ordained that a standard pound of gold should make 45 nobles, and that a sort of base money called galley-halfpence, should no longer be payable to the "great deceit of the people." Henry V. di-

rected that 50 nobles should be coined out of the pound, and prohibited other base pieces called the Suskin and Dotkin. Henry VI. made the standard pound of gold to produce 45 rials, of 10s. each; Edward IV. made his gold into angels of 6s. 8d. each, though worth about 15s. of modern money; and the reign of Richard III. was so short, that hardly any coin was produced or issued in the course of it.

The thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, saw the tournament in its greatest lustre, and its encouragement was probably in consequence of the effect which it had, upon the French and English nobility. It was therefore patronised by the Sovereigns, as an important military spectacle, though its expense was always very considerable, and its danger great. This exhibition, is recorded by Knighton the historian, to have particularly, though unhappily, allured the female sex, dissipating their fortunes, and often ruining their reputations. The chase and other field-sports, still continued to engage the higher ranks of society, whilst the inferior were attracted by those already referred to; but in 1363, a proclamation from Edward II. recommends them to apply themselves to archery, instead of "spending their time in throwing stones, wood, or iron; in playing at hand-ball, foot-ball, or club-ball; in bull-baiting and cock-fighting, or in more useless and dishonest games." The religious plays of Mysteries and Miracles, already mentioned, were the only dramatic amusements of the time. They were written in verse by the monks, who were also frequently the actors; but they were sometimes exhibited under the name of pageants, on certain festivals of the church, by

some of the incorporated trades of the ancient English cities, especially Coventry and Chester. Some of these performances have been printed, as a most interesting account of the latter by J. H. Markland, Esq., privately edited for the Roxburghe Club; and a *Dissertation on the pageants or mysteries anciently performed at Coventry*, by Mr Thomas Sharp, Covent. 1825, 4to. There were also Moralities, or serious reflections on human life in verse, which were generally extremely dull, and were probably but seldom understood. That there were entertainments, however, of a more diverting kind, is ascertained from the numbers of minstrels and jongleurs, retained and encouraged by the great. At the wedding of Prince Robert of France, at Compeigne, in 1237, some of them danced on ropes, and others rode on oxen dressed in scarlet, sounding their horns at the approach of every dish. In 1332, a company of men was ordered to be whipped through London, for spreading slanderous reports in ale-houses. These are supposed to have been Mummers, a species of dramatic performers, often of the lowest and most scurrilous kind, who always went about masked, were lawless and profligate, and were at length proscribed by a statute in 1511. There were but few very remarkable changes in the sports and pastimes of the fifteenth century, since those engaged in by the great, were principally the tournament, hunting, and hawking, though the latter appears to have been used by inferior persons—in consequence, perhaps, of that provision in the Forest Charter which allows that every freeman may keep hawks, falcons, &c. in his own woods. The wake, or wakeing, a favourite religious amusement of the commonalty,

was totally abolished by the pious Henry VI., on account of its great abuses. It consisted of a festival held in honour of the Church's patron-saint, beginning on the eve before the holiday; and was originally celebrated by the people coming to church with lighted tapers, and performing their devotions, *waking* the whole night. These ceremonies were also called in Latin, Vigils; but they at length became perverted with singing, dancing, playing on harps and pipes, and, at the time of their suppression, were corrupted by positive crime. The proclamations for inducing the common people to practise archery, and avoid all unlawful games, were still vainly continued; and running, leaping, throwing the quoit, wrestling, and the several games of ball, still prevailed. The stage remained in the same state as before; but one new pastime was probably introduced into England in the fifteenth century, since, in 1453, a statute was passed, prohibiting the importation of playing cards from France. This was enacted on behalf of the London card-makers. It may be remarked, that the desire of seeing strange sights is no very novel feature in the people of England. Matthew Paris, at a much earlier period, speaks of a monk who fell into a pit in running to see a whale; and the old English Chronicles are particular in stating, that whenever a monstrous birth, or strange fish appeared, it was exhibited to the King. In the fifteenth century, a dwarf Turk, forty years old, was thought worthy of being shown to Edward IV.; whom he told, that "he had hadde chyldren as hygh and as lykely as the Kynge hymselfe." In closing these notices of the more ancient English sports and amusements, it is curious to re-

mark, that most of the pastimes of children have remained unchanged, from a very high antiquity in this nation, and may in general be traced to a classical period for their origin.

The passion for feasting had so greatly increased in England in the fourteenth century, that a severe law was enacted by Edward III., to restrain certain ranks to proportionable banquets. He himself, however, gave an entertainment at the marriage of his son Lionel, Duke of Clarence, to Violentis of Milan, wherein there were thirty courses, and the fragments of the table fed a thousand persons. The art of cookery, now required considerable skill; and the making of blanc-manger, tarts, pies, boiling of chickens, preparing of mortresses, or rich soups, made of the brawn of capons, with all the other ordinary duties of a cook, are to be found in the works of this period. "The wines," according to the phrase then used, signified another ancient luxury, and consisted of a collation of spiced liquors and delicate cakes, taken by persons of rank or fashion just before retiring to rest. The liquors of the time, were principally Galengale, or sweet Cyprus wines, hippocras, or spiced wine strained; vernage and malvasie, Greek wines; pigment, already described, muscadel, wine smelling of perfumes; wines of Rochelle and Antioch; clary, wine mixed with honey and spices, &c. Spices, such as cloves, cinnamon, grains of paradise, ginger, and others, were eaten as confections for a dessert, and the dinner-hour of this period is still supposed to have been nine o'clock in the morning. The fifteenth century was also characterized by a continuance and even increase of the costly custom of ban-



queting, at least in the entertainments of Kings and persons of distinction. The cost and splendour of their feasts were increased by dull devices for the table, called subtleties, made of paste, jelly, or blanc-manger, placed in the middle of the board, with labels describing them in verse. The names and composition of several of the most famous dishes of this period, may be consulted in Dr Samuel Pegge's very curious *Form of Cury, or a Roll of English Cookery, compiled about the year 1390, by the Master-Cooks of Richard II.* Lond. 1780, 8vo. Many particulars of the ancient feasts of England are preserved in the numerous volumes of old chronicles and annals, especially in Fabyan, Hall, Holinshed, &c. A very famous dish, at the more splendid entertainments, was that called the "peacock enhakyll;" the receipt for dressing of which directed, that, "for a feast royal, peacocks shall be dight in this manner. Take and flay off the skin, with the feathers, tail, and the neck and head thereon; then take the skin, and all the feathers, and lay it on a table abroad, and strew thereon ground cummin; then take the peacock, and roast him and baste him with raw yolks of eggs; and, when he is roasted, take him off and let him cool awhile, and take and sew him in his skin, and gild his comb, and so serve him forth with the last course." The same curious ancient manuscript whence the foregoing was extracted, the orthography being modernised, also contains several orders concerning the dishes proper for different degrees of persons; as "conies parboiled, or else rabbits, for they are better for a lord;" and "for a great lord, take squirrels, for they are better than conies;" "a whole chicken

for a lord;” “ seven mackrel in a dish, with a dragge of fine sugar, ” which is also a dish for a lord; when a pig is roasted, “ lay overthwart him always one bar of silver foil and another of gold, and serve him all whole at the board of a lord, ” &c. With all this magnificence, however, knives only were used at the greatest tables, since forks were not brought out of Italy, and adopted in England, until about 1614; but, in the families of nobles and great personages, it was always customary to have a carver, whose duty was to be performed with great ceremony, according to the dishes before him, and the rank of the guests. The main feature of the ordinary baronial living, however, was a gross hospitality, as in the instance of the famous Guy, Earl of Warwick, in whose household six oxen were eaten for breakfast. It was customary in the greater mansions, to have the long and stout oaken table well covered with large joints of meat, or by abundance of poultry, game, fish, wild fowl, &c. Through the greatest part of the year, the provision was chiefly salt, as the imperfect system of farming, now practised, would not secure the cattle being fed in winter. On this account, the manufacture of salt became an important consideration to England; and, therefore, Henry VI. invited, and promised his protection to John de Sheidame, a gentleman of Zealand, with sixty others, if they would visit England and teach the art of making salt. But to return to the banquets of England in the fifteenth century. A side table was appropriated to wine and ale, which were supplied to the guests in wooden or pewter goblets, and in the middle of the principal board stood a large vessel of silver, holding salt, the

sitting above which, indicated the rank or reputation of the guest. The general hour of breakfast about this time, with the nobility, whose meals were considerably earlier than those of tradesmen, yeomen, &c. was seven, dinner was served at ten, and commonly lasted three hours; supper followed at four, and the liveries or collations followed at nine in the evening. The first meal, even of the lord and his lady, at their private table, was frequently herrings, beer, wine, and salt fish; and their last consisted of a gallon of beer, with a quart of warm wine mixed with spice. The richer clergy, however, often lived on more luxurious and delicate fare, the office of principal cook in the larger monasteries, being conferred only, on a brother, who had well studied his art. Lawrence Charters, who was cook to Croyland abbey, is recorded with honour in the annals of that foundation, for having, at his own charge, provided the monks with almond milk on fish days, at the enormous expense of 40*l*. A statute is also quoted, for enforcing an equitable distribution of it with fine bread and honey.

The various and absurd style of dress, which characterized the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, was alike censured by the satirists of the times, and by the Papal bulls, decrees of councils, and declamations of the clergy; especially the fashion of long pointed shoes, called Crackowes, which was assailed for three centuries without success. The beaux of this time, frequently had them cut on the front with the rich tracery of a church window, and the points fastened to his knees by gold or silver chains. Their habits, also, were equally gay and fantastical, consisting of dif-

ferently-coloured hose for each leg, with short breeches, extremely tight, and hardly reaching to the middle of the thighs; and a coat also party-coloured. The beard was worn long, and the head was embroidered with figures of animals, &c. which buttoned beneath the chest, being sometimes decorated with gold and precious stones. The habits of the females likewise consisted of party-coloured tunics; very short lirippes, or tip-pets; remarkably small caps, fastened on with cords; girdles ornamented with gold and silver, and short swords, like daggers, hung before the stomach. The fifteenth century, carried the English dress to a still greater degree of absurdity, the most remarkable feature of which was, that jackets were worn so short as to call forth a statute in 1463, ordering them to be worn a certain length behind. The former follies were also continued, and the beaux of the time wore sometimes a boot on one leg, and a stocking on the other. In winter was added a large mantle, with what were called side and long sleeves, which hung down to the ground, and, as a poet of the period remarked, licked up the dirt of the streets whether it were wet or dry. The borders of this habit, were frequently embroidered with verses of Latin, hymns or psalms in gold, and the garment itself, was sometimes of red silk bordered with white. The female dress had likewise increased in absurdity, though its principal follies were brought from France; as the fashionable garments called a git, a hacqueton, a garberdine, a chevesail, &c. The head-dresses, in particular, were worn so immoderately high and broad, that in 1416, when Isabel of Bavaria kept her court at

Vinciennes, the doors of all the state apartments were raised and widened, that the head-dresses of the Queen and her ladies, might have room to enter. The fabric was supported by a horn on each side, and from the top of each was suspended a silken streamer, which sometimes fluttered in the wind, and sometimes crossed the breast, and was tied to the arm. The mustyrd devyllers, or moitié de velours, a kind of inferior velvet, already mentioned, was a favourite stuff used for the female gowns of this century, and a favourite dye was called grenouilliére, or frog-colour.

The wars and internal contentions of the fifteenth century, produced but little improvements in the manners and morals of England; though it could not justly be accused of inhumanity, since, in the domestic feuds, the leaders only were captured, slain, and executed, whilst their misguided followers received quarter. Still, however, the nation seems to have possessed much of a licentious and ferocious character; and there are numerous instances of females defending fortresses, and committing the most courageous and sanguinary actions in the discords of the times. The national animosity had also another evil consequence, for, in the early part of the reign of Edward IV., the whole number of Peers attending in Parliament amounted to one Duke, four Earls, one Viscount, and twenty-nine Barons.

## CHAPTER III.

FROM THE SIXTEENTH TO THE EIGHTEENTH  
CENTURY.

THE liberal declaration of Henry VII., in a commission issued to his Almoner in 1486, shows that wise Sovereign to have been a true friend to commercial intercourse, whilst, at the same time, he perfectly understood its value. Despatched to Naples to establish a treaty of national traffic, the King observes to him in his instructions, "the earth being the common parent of us all, what can be more desirable and praise-worthy, than, by means of commerce, to communicate her various productions to all her children?" Even the first year of this King, 1485, evinced his desire of extending the trade of his kingdom, although it was by those ungenerous principles, upon which the ancient commerce of England was too often founded,—the establishment of a monopoly: since he framed a navigation act, to prevent the importation of Guienne or Gascoigne wines, in any other ships than those of his own subjects. It may also be remarked, in noticing this ordinance, that the vessels of the Welsh are mentioned in it, for the first time. As prudence, however, was one of the predominant features of this monarch, which made

him extremely cautious of partaking in any expensive scheme, he delayed acceding to the proposal of Bartholomeo, the brother of Christopher Columbus, to patronise his purposed discovery of America. It is, notwithstanding, believed, that at the time when the navigator sailed under the protection of Ferdinand of Spain, Henry was actually ready to have encouraged his design. It is worth noticing, that England was indebted to the same Bartholomeo for the first geographical maps and charts, which he had introduced here in 1488. But, during the early part of the sixteenth century, though the commerce of England had been both encouraged and increased, the Flemings, who were seated at their Stilyard, or Stapel Hoff, or Marthouse, on the banks of the Thames, engrossed the greater part of its actual trade. They bought the goods of England, and distributed them over the continent; and the last century had closed with aspects favourable only to their interests. The party of the fictitious Duke had excited much discontent in England; and, in revenge for the encouragement which he had received from Margaret, Dutchess of Burgundy, Henry VII. had prohibited all intercourse with Flanders, and the importation of Flemish wares; which was answered by a similar restriction from Maximilian, King of the Romans, and his son, the Archduke Philip. The English merchants had therefore no other mart for their goods than Calais; which so decreased their credit and property, as greatly to reduce their fortunes, and render even their very continuance extremely doubtful. The Flemish merchants, on the contrary, though settled and protected in England, did not consider themselves

bound by this embargo, and still continued to trade with their own countries, supplying all which had been hitherto furnished by the citizens of London. This, as might be expected, excited all those feelings of envy and dislike, which the civic traders, held towards the foreign ones ; and as the servants saw their own fall, in that of their masters, it frequently broke forth in acts of open revenge. The number of Flemings settled at London, is said to have been upwards of 15,000 ; but though they frequently experienced insult or plunder, their character, appears to have been of that peaceful kind, which is the best adapted for the establishment of commercial intercourse and prosperity. And perhaps it may be attributed to the warm disposition of the English, embittered as it then was, by the distresses and privations of a long course of civil war, that the attempts of Henry to extend the trade of his realm to distant countries, was followed by no better success. It is probable, that his subjects and his land, were neither safe nor desirable for traffic ; but in his first year, 1486, in a treaty with Florence, he grants a safe conduct to such merchants as will visit the ports, &c. of England. King Henry must have been sensible, that great exertions were required to re-establish an intercourse of this nature ; and therefore, it was perhaps equally to encourage the commerce which he wished to revive, as to accumulate that wealth of which he was so fond, that he himself became the owner of several merchant ships ; by which, however, he gained considerable profit, and advanced the interests of navigation. In 1494, this king also attempted that important, but almost hopeless design, of reducing the national weights,



and measures to one standard, which also had formed one of the enactments of Magna Charta; but as all attempts of this kind, however excellent and well considered, have experienced a gradual, but complete failure, the extreme improbability of effecting it is too plainly intimated.

Though the interests and nature of commerce, were perhaps neither so well understood nor supported by Henry VIII. as by his father, it is yet likely that he was desirous for its prosperity. He took the course, however, of monopolies; granting the petitions of Bridport, and of the towns of Worcestershire, by which adjacent hamlets, were prohibited by Act of Parliament from making ropes or cables: and the people of the country, not residing in five towns which were specified, were prohibited from making or selling cloth, &c. But at the same time, his reign produced many statutes in favour of navigation, great encouragement to naval adventurers, and many improvements in the harbours of the kingdom. Thus, those of Scarborough, Southampton, &c. were widened and deepened; and upwards of 60,000*l.* were expended on that of Dover alone: whilst wears and shoals were removed, and rivers and coasts protected by new forts; the merit of all which, as it has been well observed, must be attributed to the King himself, since his authority over his Parliaments was never yet either doubted or denied. One of the best of his naval improvements, also, exists to the present day, unabated in its utility, though vastly improved in its powers,—the Corporation of the Holy Trinity, to which he gave its first Royal Charter, dated May 20th 1514.

This association of mariners, however, had existed under Henry VII., for the piloting of all vessels, as well private ships, as those belonging to the crown; but the patent gave it power over all the shipping of England, and Elizabeth committed to its care all the buoys and beacons of the sea, and its coasts. To Henry VIII. likewise belongs, the establishment of Commissioners of the Navy, and of Docks, Storehouses, &c. at Deptford and Woolwich.

Henry VII. was the first English King who coined golden sovereigns of 42 shillings, and half sovereigns in proportion. His money was improved, by having a profile with some likeness to the King, the full-face which was previously used being a very imperfect delineation: a circle was also added on the outside of each piece, to prevent the practice of clipping. The coins of this monarch are of the true standard value, but Henry VIII. towards the end of his reign, began to debase his current money; and in 1545 his silver had one half alloy, whilst at his death, the nominal pound was worth only 9s. 3 $\frac{1}{4}$ d. To remedy this, it was called in by Edward VI.; and Queen Mary, finding the nation in want of coin, issued some pieces of silver currency as they stood before the debasement.

It was doubtless the desire of Queen Elizabeth, to encourage the commerce and navigation of England, though her permission of monopolies was contrary to her intended purpose. The spirit of her age, was also greatly inclined towards naval enterprises; and beside the military expeditions against the Spaniards, many attempts were made for maritime discoveries; and many new branches

of commerce were opened by England. Sir Martin Frobisher, undertook three voyages to discover a north-west passage, beginning in 1576; but though they were all unsuccessful, the navigator Davis made a new attempt in 1585, and discovered the Straits which are known by his name. In 1600, the Queen granted the first patent to the East India Company, the stock of which association amounted to 72,000*l*. With this, four ships were fitted out, under the command of Captain James Lancaster, an eminent navigator of this period: the adventure proved successful, the ships returned with a rich lading, and the company was established. A communication with Muscovy had been opened in the reign of Queen Mary, by the discovery of the passage to Archangel; though, until 1569, the commerce to that country, was not of any very great extent. Elizabeth, however, obtained from John Basilides, the Czar, an exclusive permission for the whole trade to Muscovy, entering into a personal and national alliance with him. Whilst this treaty lasted, the English ventured farther into those, then barbarous, countries, than any Europeans had done before. They transported their goods along the river Dwina, in boats made of one entire tree, which they towed and rowed up the stream, as far as Wologda; and thence carrying them seven days journey, by land, to Jaroslaril, transported them down the Volga to Astracan, whence they built ships, crossed the Caspian Sea, and distributed their commodities into Persia. But this bold undertaking was attended with so many discouragements, that it was never afterwards repeated. On the death of the

Czar, his son Theodore refused to continue the English patent of exclusive trade to Russia; and told the Queen, on her remonstrance, that princes must carry an indifferent hand, not converting trade, which, by the law of nations ought to be open to all, into a monopoly for the gain of a few. He did, however, allow some privileges to the English, on account of their having been the first discoverers of the communication between Europe and his country. The trade to Turkey was begun about 1583, and was immediately confined to a company, by Elizabeth; to which also the Grand Signior gave a good reception, and granted even larger privileges, than he had given to the French; but, before that time, he had always supposed England to be a dependent province of France. In the commencement of Elizabeth's reign, the merchants of the Hans Towns, made heavy complaints against the treatment which they had experienced under Edward VI. and Mary. The Queen answered them, that they should experience no innovations, but enjoy the same immunities and privileges they were then possessed of; but not being satisfied with this reply, their commerce was soon after suspended. The English merchants now tried what they could effect for themselves; and having been successful after taking the whole trade into their hands, they divided themselves into staplers and merchant-adventurers; the former residing continually at one place, the latter trying their fortunes with cloth, &c. in the towns and states abroad. Their success enraged the Hanse Towns, and excited them to revenge, so that they at length procured an edict, by which the English merchants were prohibited all commerce in the

empire. In retaliation, the Queen retained 60 of their ships, which had been seized in the river of Lisbon with contraband goods of the Spaniards. Her intention was to have restored them, as being desirous of compromising all differences with the trading cities; but upon being informed that a meeting had been held at Lubec, for devising measures to distress the English trade, she confiscated both ships and lading, releasing only two of them to carry the intelligence and the message of her contempt.

The navy of Henry VIII. was partly formed of vessels hired from Hamburgh, Lubec, Dantzic, Genoa, and Venice; though Elizabeth began to improve the British fleet very early in her reign, by building some vessels of her own, and by encouraging merchants to build large vessels, which were occasionally converted into ships of war. In 1582, the seamen of England were computed to amount to 14,295, and the vessels to 1232; though only 217 of them were above 80 tons. It is supposed that navigation declined in the early years of James I., through the practice of merchants who traded in foreign ships; though before 1640 the number of seamen was trebled.

In 1559, Queen Elizabeth employed Sir Thomas Gresham to procure for her 200,000*l.* at Antwerp, to which city, the English Sovereigns usually had recourse for voluntary loans,—to enable her to reform the national coinage, which was at that time extremely debased. She was, however, so impolitic, as herself to make an innovation in the coin, by dividing a pound of silver into sixty-two shillings instead of sixty, which was the former stand-

ard: but this is the last time that the English money has been reduced.

The peaceful state which characterized the reign of James I., was certainly favourable to the increase of commerce in England, notwithstanding the continued complaints of his time, concerning a decay of trade and increase of Popery. The seamen employed in the merchant service, however, amounted to 10,000 men; and though the vessels employed by the Dutch were thrice so many as those of the English, yet the navy of the latter was considered to be equal,—the ships being of greater burthen. The most elaborated and curious arts were, at this time, chiefly cultivated in Italy; ship-building and casting of iron cannon, being those only, in which the English excelled. They seem indeed, to have possessed the secret of the latter, and great complaints were made every Parliament, against the exportation of English ordnance. The principal part of the commerce of the nation, however, consisted of woollen goods, which were dyed and dressed by the Dutch, who are said to have gained 700,000*l.* yearly by the employment. A silk manufacture was introduced into England under James I., by the planting of mulberry trees and the importation of silk worms, but it does not appear to have succeeded. Greenland is supposed to have been discovered during this reign, and the whale-fishery was carried on with great success; but the industry of the Dutch, soon deprived the English of its benefits. A company was also established for the discovery of a north-west passage, and many unsuccessful attempts were made for that purpose. The passage to the East Indies, which had been found out un-

der Elizabeth, was not entirely established until this reign, when the East India Company received a new patent, increased their stock to 150,000*l.*, and fitted out several ships on these adventures. Here, however, the Dutch also interfered, though they were ultimately suppressed; yet they assumed a monopoly of the spice-trade, and committed the most inhuman cruelties upon the English factory in the Island of Amboyna. In connexion with the commerce of this time, it may also be mentioned, that the English colonies in America were now permanently established, by extensive emigrations. Newport began a settlement in 1606; and, after the discovery of a shorter passage to Virginia, by Argal about 1609, 500 persons embarked for that place; but one of their ships being driven by tempest into the Bermudas, laid the foundation of a colony in those islands. New colonies were also established on the American continent, and the island of Barbadoes was likewise planted.

During the peaceful part of the reign of Charles I. the national commerce and industry were considerably increased. The trade to Guinea and the East Indies was extended; the English possessed almost the sole trade with Spain; 700,000*l.* of bullion was yearly coined into money in the English mint; and 20,000 cloths were sent annually to Turkey. The civil commotions proved, of course, an unhappy interruption to this successful traffic, though it revived again under the commonwealth; and as the prevalence of democratical principles, induced many country gentlemen to put their sons apprentices to merchants, com-

merce, became more honourable in England, than it ever has been in any other European kingdom.

It is probable, that the trade and wealth of England never increased so rapidly as they did after the Restoration, and thence to the Revolution. The Dutch wars of the seventeenth century, were found favourable to the trade of this nation, by disturbing the tranquillity of Holland, and providing it with an extraordinary and active employment; but, after Charles II. had made a separate peace with the States, his subjects enjoyed an unmolested intercourse with Europe. The American colonies, were also considerably improved, and the proceedings against the Dissenters contributed greatly to augment them. The English navy had now become famous, both for the number of ships, valour of the men, and skill of the commanders. Ability in maritime affairs was one of the best features in James II. He invented the signals used at sea; and at the Revolution, his fleet consisted of 173 vessels of all sizes, and required 42,000 seamen to man it. Several new manufactures in brass, iron, silk, hats, glass, &c. were introduced into England under the reign of the same sovereign; and the art of dying woollen cloth, was at length brought hither by one Brewer, who fled from the Low Countries, when they were expecting a French invasion; by which a very large sum was gained to England. The increase of coinage under Charles II. and James II. was 10,261,000*l.*, and the English money was now extremely improved, both in the engraving and minting of the pieces. The first has been already noticed in the preceding chapter; and it may be observed of the latter, that though Queen Eliza-



both had milled money struck in England in 1562 it did not continue for more than ten years, when the hammer was again adopted as less expensive. The present coining mill, however, after having been frequently used and laid aside, was at length finally established in 1662. The Bank of England, it may be added, was established by Act of Parliament in 1693.

To continue an account of the fluctuations of commerce in Britain, even after the slight manner of the preceding notices, would very far exceed the limits of this work, which are fast drawing to a close; and would be also, in a great degree, to relate a large portion of English history, since they have generally been connected with its rise or depression. The introduction of many of the national manufactures has, however, been described, with several particulars of the early commerce and navigation of the country; and the reader who wishes to pursue these subjects, is recommended to consult the following authorities. *History of Commerce*, Lond. 1787, 4to, 4 vols. by A. Anderson; *History of Marine Architecture*, by John Charnock, Lond. 1801, 4to, 3 vols.; and the *Biographia Navalis, or Lives and Characters of the Officers of the Navy of Great Britain*, by the same author, Lond. 1794-98, 6 vols. 8vo, with *The Lives of the British Admirals*, by John Campbell, London. 1813, 8vo, 8 vols.

Having brought to a conclusion the historical view of the English commerce and navigation, the limits of this work now require that a very brief notice should be given of the dress, manners and customs, of the remaining periods; which, however,

is the less to be regretted, as the picture has been most minute in the more distant times, so that the contrast between those days and the present will be sufficiently evident, whilst enough of the gradual change has been given to elucidate its progress. Towards the sixteenth century, the manners of the English began to be somewhat refined, and foreigners were received with more courtesy; whilst several of the nobility and gentry travelled abroad; whence, though they certainly brought back many follies, especially in dress, they were at least improved in their deportment, and had acquired some of the modern languages. The Court of Henry VII. became distinguished for the most splendid tilts, justings, and tournaments, in which the King himself frequently took a part, and also by quaint and rich maskings, and solemn dances, generally performed by persons of distinction. The ordinary sports and pastimes continued to be practised, and were sometimes exhibited before the King; though the Drama had made but little advance. Those entertainments called Pageants, however, seem to have increased from the prevailing taste of this reign; and they usually consisted of a high stage bearing some great figure, as a ship, castle, mountain, &c. with persons richly, or quaintly habited, who held an allegorical dialogue, or made an address, as they were especially used, to welcome Sovereigns in their progress, processions, &c. They were retained in England down to the seventeenth century, and at length exhibited a great degree of splendour, though mixed with much pedantry and conceit. Some of the most famous were probably those exhibited to Elizabeth. The performances of Mo-

ralities, the actors of which bore such names as Sin, Judas, All-for-money, Mother Graceless, &c. were sometimes united with these pageants. Gaming was a very prevalent custom of the lower orders, in the sixteenth century, and several statutes were enacted against it. The ancient diversions of England, however, are too interesting and numerous, and have been too well described by Strutt, in his volume cited in the Introduction to this work, to be compressed within the limits of a few pages, when the very names of them would fill a considerable space. The reader, then, will there find full particulars of the curious old pastimes of the May Game, with its procession of Robin Hood and his party, Maid Marian, the Hobby-horse Dragon, &c.; and it may be observed, that this description of them is probably the best and most interesting in Mr Strutt's volume. There too, will be found an account of the ancient Morris-dances, mummings, maskings, procession of the midsummer watch, archery shows, the ancient English theatre, a description of which would alone be sufficient for a volume, and all the many singularly curious sports and pastimes of England, which have long since continued to exist; whilst a copious abstract, with much additional information, will be found in Chap. XIII. of the Rev. T. D. Fosbroke's *Archæological Dictionary*.

The English tables, in the sixteenth and following centuries, were in general hospitable and well-supplied; but salted provision, still continued to form a very principal article of food between Michaelmas and Whitsuntide. Some of the dishes used, were considered extremely rare and costly,

as swans, pikes and sturgeon, richly stewed, herons, venison, peacocks, &c. ; but the most perfect notion of the living and domestic arrangements of the old English nobility and gentry, will be found in those numerous books of orders and entries of their household, which are yet extant. Some of these curious and interesting documents have been printed, and one of the most celebrated is that usually called the *Northumberland Household Book*, being the regulations for the establishment of Henry Algernon Percy, fifth Earl of Northumberland, at his castles of Wresill and Leginfield, in Yorkshire, begun in A. D. 1512. It was originally published from the original manuscript, by Dr Thomas Percy, Bishop of Dromore, but there is an excellent modern edition, Lond. 1827, 8vo.

The dress of the sixteenth century, was characterised principally, by a skirt hanging over the loins, a long doublet laced over a stomacher, covering the forepart of the body, and a mantle with wide sleeves fell over the skirt, and hung down to the ancles. The materials were silk and velvet cloth of gold and silver, and the female dresses very much resembled those of the male, being probably most distinguished by a long train. As the person of Henry VIII. increased in size, the habits of his courtiers were often stuffed to make them resemble him ; which custom appears to have descended even to domestics, and is still partly commemorated in the habits of the Yeoman of the Guard. The hood of the preceding century, was now exchanged for a coarse round felt hat, cap, or bonnet, with a single jewel in front, for the men ; and a plain coif, composed of a roll and false hair, or velvet bonnet, for the women ; though, if they

were maidens, the head was left uncovered, and the hair either hung down, or was very simply braided. The men in general wore their hair long, until Henry VIII. directed that his attendants and courtiers should cut it short; and it may be noticed, that about this time the peruke seems to have been introduced, since twenty shillings were paid for one for Saxton, the King's fool. The King directed also, that cloth of gold and tissue should be used only for Dukes and Marquisses, purple was to be kept for the Royal Family, Earls might use embroidery, and commoners of distinction might wear silks and velvets. The ordinary covering for the legs was cloth-boots, and a pair of black silk hose made in Spain, was a present worthy to be offered to a Sovereign. Under Edward VI., the covering of the head for men was a plain velvet cap, worn diagonally, and decorated with a jewel and large ostrich feather. The hair was cut short, the beard left full, a small ruffle surrounded the neck, and the gown was furred with sables in front, and round the broad sleeves, which hung over the upper part of the arm. The female attire was characterized by concealment, though the splendour of the dresses was very great, by the addition of jewels, velvets, fur trimmings, and cloth of gold. The garments commonly consisted of long boddices, with or without skirts; or close-bodied habits over them, with petticoats, especially those large hooped ones called Farthingales, which were introduced from Spain, under Queen Mary. At the same time, also, Philip, on his marriage, brought into England a richer style of dress for the men, particularly the

close ruff, the doublet, which fitted exactly and stifly under the cliin, and the short Spanish cloak, all of which remained so long in fashion. About 1565, the enormous trunk-breeches, introduced under Henry VIII., began to disappear; but whilst they lasted, they were carried to such an absurd degree of magnitude, that in the Parliament House, there were certain holes about two inches square in the walls, having posts in them, supporting a scaffold all round the building, for those members to sit upon who wore great breeches stuffed with hair, like woolsacks. The general fashion under Elizabeth was nearly stationary, and consisted of very rich doublets and cloaks, trimmed with fur, full drawers terminating at the thighs, and hose which fitted tightly to the legs below them. Swords were also generally worn, but their length was proscribed. The most remarkable and well known feature of the costume of this time, was the ruff of plaited linen, or cambric, round the neck and wrists, which now spread into its greatest size and capacity. Until the invention of starch, they were supported out on every side by pieces of ivory, wood, or gilded metal, called poking sticks, which were especially worn by the men; but about this time the art of starching was brought from Flanders, and in 1564, the wife of Guillim Boenen, the Queen's coachman, starched for the whole court, and taught the art to young ladies for a higher gratuity. The dresses of persons of rank were usually made of silk damask, with under-hanging sleeves embroidered with gold; but the splendour and variety of the Queen's wardrobe are almost impossible to be described. The Spanish habit was that most

generally used in England under James I.; and it was chiefly worn of black, with large trunk hose, a Spanish rapier, and a hat with a lofty conical crown, and a band of twisted silk, frequently decorated with jewels. The female dress had the neck closely enveloped in a small ruff, though the bosom was often exposed, and decorated with a profusion of rows of large pearls, which appear to have been the favourite jewel of the time. The beards and whiskers of the male sex had become universal in the reign of Elizabeth, when the former was sometimes worn trimmed to a point hanging down at the division of the ruff. By the time of Charles I., however, the hair was worn longer, and the mouth stood in the centre of a triangle formed by the mustaches and pointed beard. The ruffs and collars were now worn of rich point-lace, large, and hanging down on the shoulders, held by a cord and tassel at the neck; and the principal habits were vests and cloaks of velvet or silk damask, hats of a conical form, but sometimes broad and flapping, with feathers, short trowsered brecches, terminating in stuffed rolls and fringes, and very rich boots, with large projecting lace tops, under the calf of the leg. The female dresses were rather elegant than splendid; and were characterised sometimes by a sort of gorget-ruff, standing up about the neck like a fan, and sometimes by a falling ruff, of very rich lace, hanging over the shoulders. Gowns with close bodies and tight sleeves were also worn; the hair was in general most gracefully curled with a plain braiding, or a few flowers; and the elegant fan, made of feathers fixed in an ivory handle, was universally adopted. The civil wars and interregnum, altered the na-

tional dress chiefly by the addition of armour, or rendering it more plain in its form and materials. The females were prevented from wearing lace, jewels, and braided hair; and the men were habited in a long vest and cloak of some dark colour, with a plain linen collar, called a falling-band or turnover. With the Restoration of Charles II. appeared the first resemblance to the present costume of coats and waistcoats, then, however, generally worn on the Continent. The former were long and strait, having a long line of buttons down the front, and the pockets very low down in the skirts; and the waistcoats had large flaps, also containing pockets. Large laced ruffles were worn loose at the wrists, with Holland sleeves; a broad sword-belt of embroidered cloth was hung across the shoulders; the formal band was exchanged for a laced cravat; and the military cocked-hat with feathers at the corners soon became common. The ladies' dresses now grew extremely splendid, and the fashions of the time were equally varied and fantastic, especially in the head-dress. The bosom was in general covered only by lace, and frequently decorated only by a pearl necklace; whilst the hair was arranged in a manner particularly elegant and luxurious. There was but little change in the men's dresses under William III.; but the peruke of thick black hair which had been introduced by Charles II., was still worn very long before, hanging down in front, or resting on the shoulders, though the colour was altered to suit the complexion. It formed one of the most important articles of dress; and beaux of the time were wont to carry a tortoise-shell comb and case to turn its curls over their fingers during conver-



sation, or whilst walking in the Mall. Coats were of velvet, without collars, having extremely large hanging sleeves, and button-holes of gold embroidery; whilst the cravats were of the richest lace, loosely tied, and hanging down the front of the waistcoat. About this period were introduced the large head-dresses worn by ladies: the hair being strained over a toupee of silk and cotton wool, and carried up considerably more than the length of the face; the whole being decorated with a profusion of furbelows, and having long lappets of Brussels or point lace hanging from it. The waists were worn very long, with stomachers of velvet covered with jewels.

Such were the principal features of English costume, down to the close of the seventeenth century; from which a gradual change brought the national habit to its present appearance, though it would require a volume to describe its progress.

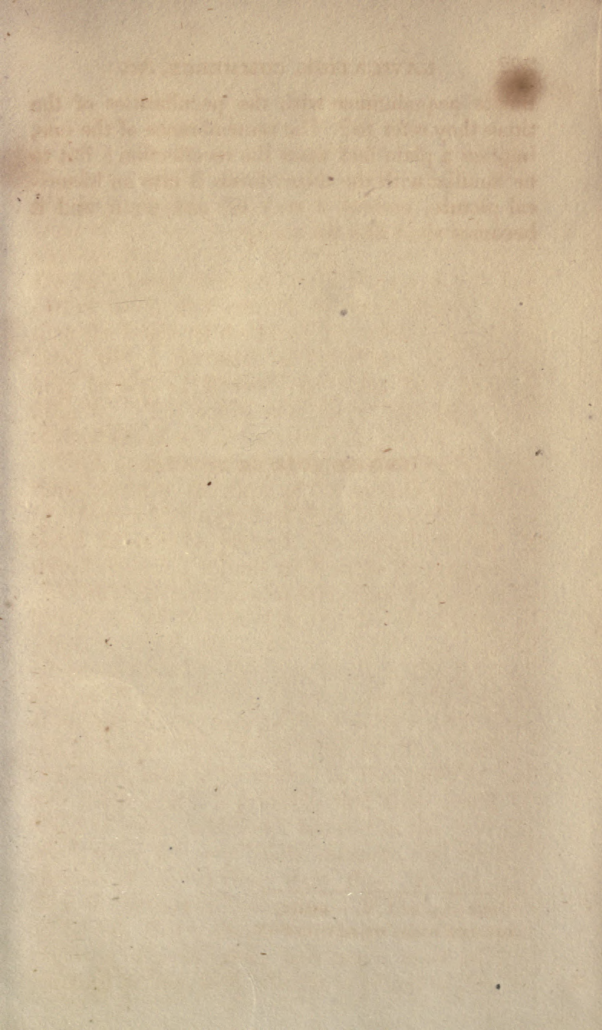
With these notices, also, terminate the present Illustrations of British History; the chief intent of which has been, although very slightly executed, to introduce the subject to those to whom it may be really novel, and to show by what means the outlines of ancient events, may be filled up in vivid colours and costume. The knowledge of these particulars, ought ever to be united to the study of history itself; and it is probable that they would be found to excite additional interest in the juvenile mind, when the very habits, manners, and familiar customs of ancient times were thus brought into view, in contrast or illustration. If, then, it cannot be denied, that a simple knowledge of dates and events is of great value, how much must its importance be increased, when it is joined to that in-

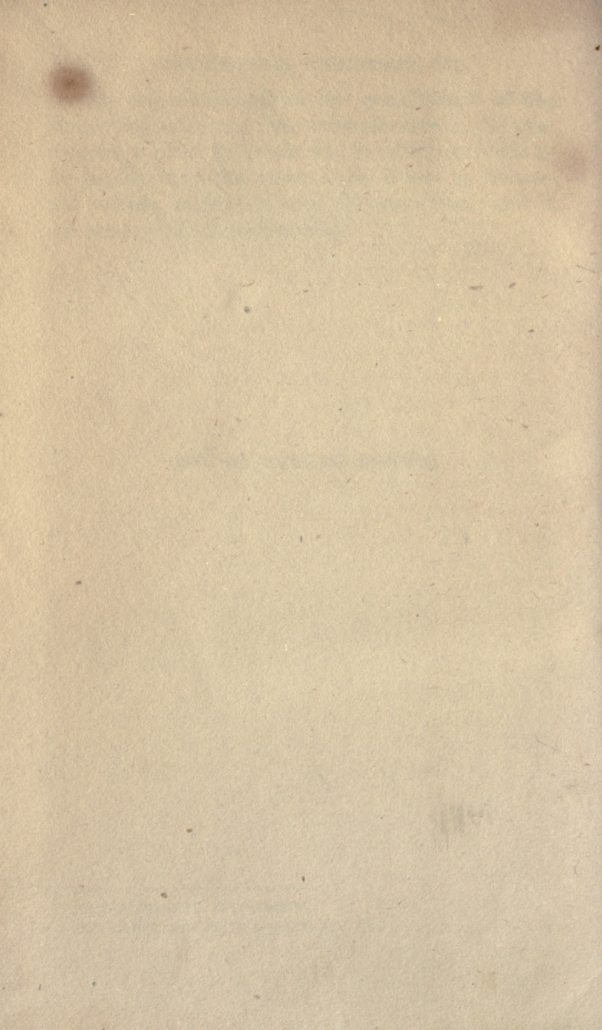
timate acquaintance with the peculiarities of the times they refer to? The remembrance of the one, impress a plain fact upon the recollection; but to be familiar with the other, forms it into an historical picture, endows it with life and truth, and it becomes vivid like the reality.

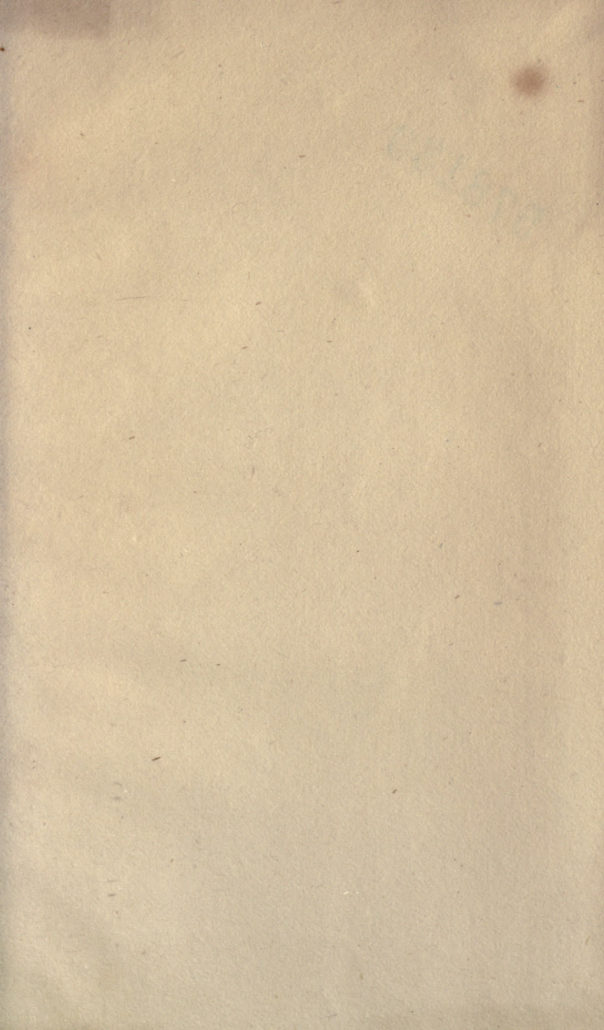
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