ENCYCLOPAEDIA AMERICANA

—

VOL. III

ENCYCLOPÆDIA AMERICANA.

A

POPULAR DICTIONARY

OF

ARTS, SCIENCES, LITERATURE, HISTORY, POLITICS AND BIOGRAPHY,

BROUGHT DOWN TO THE PRESENT TIME;

INCLUDING

A COPIOUS COLLECTION OF ORIGINAL ARTICLES

IN

AMERICAN BIOGRAPHY;

ON

THE BASIS OF THE SEVENTH EDITION OF THE GERMAN

CONVERSATIONS-LEXICON.

EDITED BY

FRANCIS LIEBER,

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D. CALDWELL,

Clerk of the Eastern District of Pennsylvania.

ENCYCLOPÆDIA AMERICANA.

CATHOLIC EPISTLES; a name given to seven epistles of the New Testament, because written to Christians in general, and not to believers of some particular place. They are, one of James, two of Peter, three of John, and one of Jude.

CATHOLICISM. (See *Roman Catholic Church.*)

CATILINE, Lucius Sergius, was just entering on the age of manhood when Rome became a prey to the rage of Marius and Sylla. Of patrician birth, he attached himself to the cause of the latter, had some share in his success, and still more in his proscriptions. Murder, rapine and conflagration were the first deeds and pleasures of his youth. His influence on the fortunes of the disordered republic became important. He appears to have served in the army with reputation. He was peculiarly dangerous and formidable, as his power of dissimulation enabled him to throw a veil over his vices. Such was his art, that, while he was poisoning the minds of the Roman youth, he gained the friendship and esteem of the severe Catulus. Equally well qualified to deceive the good, to intimidate the weak, and to inspire his own boldness into his depraved associates, he evaded two accusations brought against him by Clodius, for criminal intercourse with a vestal, and for monstrous extortions, of which he had been guilty while proconsul in Africa. He was suspected, also, of having murdered his first wife and his son. A confederacy of many young men of high birth and daring character, who saw no other means of extricating themselves from their enormous debts, than by obtaining the highest offices of the state, having been formed, Catiline was placed at their head. This eminence he owed chiefly to his connexion with the old soldiers of Sylla, by means of whom he kept in awe the towns near Rome, and even Rome itself. At the same time, he numbered among his adherents not only the worst and lowest of the riotous populace, but also many of the patricians, and men of consular rank. Every thing favored his audacious scheme. Pompey was pursuing the victories which Lucullus had prepared for him; and the latter was but a feeble supporter of the patriots in the senate, who wished him, but in vain, to put himself at their head. Crassus, who had delivered Italy from the gladiators, was now striving, with mad eagerness, after power and riches, and, instead of opposing, countenanced the growing influence of Catiline, as a means of his own aggrandizement. Cæsar, who was laboring to revive the party of Marius, spared Catiline, and, perhaps, even encouraged him. Only two Romans remained determined to uphold their falling country—Cato and Cicero; the latter of whom alone possessed the qualifications necessary for the task. The conspirators were now planning the elevation of Catiline and one of his accomplices to the consulship. When this was effected, they hoped to obtain possession of the public treasures and the property of the citizens, under various pretexts, and especially by means of proscription. It is not probable, however, that Catiline had promised them the liberty of burning and plundering Rome. Cicero had the courage to stand candidate for the consulship, in spite of the impending danger, of the extent of which he was perfectly aware. Neither insults, nor threats, nor even riots and attempts to assassinate him, deterred him from his purpose; and, being supported by the rich citizens, he gained

his election, B. C. 65. All that the party of Catiline could accomplish was the election of Caius Antony, one of their accomplices, as colleague of Cicero. This failure, however, did not deprive Catiline of the hope of gaining the consulship the following year. For this purpose, he redoubled the measures of terror, by which he had laid the foundation of his power. Meanwhile, he had lost some of the most important members of his conspiracy. Antony had been prevailed upon or compelled by Cicero to remain neutral. Cæsar and Crassus had resolved to do the same. Piso had been killed in Spain. Italy, however, was destitute of troops. The veterans of Sylla only waited the signal to take up arms. This signal was now given by Catiline. The centurion Manlius appeared among them, and formed a camp in Etruria. Cicero was on the watch: a fortunate accident disclosed to him the counsels of the conspirators. One of them, Curius, was on intimate terms with a woman of doubtful reputation, Fulvia by name, and had acquainted her with their plans. Through this woman, Cicero learnt that two knights had undertaken to assassinate him at his house. On the day which they had fixed for the execution of their plan, they found the doors barred and guarded. Still Cicero delayed to make public the circumstances of a conspiracy, the progress and resources of which he wished first to ascertain. He contented himself with warning his fellow-citizens, in general terms, of the impending danger. But when the insurrection of Manlius was made known, he procured the passage of the celebrated decree, that "the consuls should take care that the republic received no detriment." It was exceedingly difficult to seize the person of one who had soldiers at his command, both in and out of Rome; still more difficult would it be to prove his guilt before those who were accomplices with him, or, at least, were willing to make use of his plans to serve their own interest. He had to choose between two evils—a revolution within the city, or a civil war: he preferred the latter. Catiline had the boldness to take his seat in the senate, known as he was to be the enemy of the Roman state. Cicero then rose and delivered that bold oration against him, which was the means of saving Rome, by driving Catiline from the city. The conspirators who remained, Lentulus Sura, Cethegus, and other infamous senators, engaged to head the insurrection in Rome as soon as Catiline appeared at the gates. According to Cicero and Sallust, it was the intention of the conspirators to set the city on fire, and massacre the inhabitants. At any rate, these horrid consequences might have easily followed from the circumstances of the case, without any previous resolution. Lentulus, Cethegus, and the other conspirators, in the meanwhile, were carrying on their criminal plots. They applied to the ambassadors of the Allobroges to transfer the war to the frontiers of Italy itself. These, however, revealed the plot, and their disclosures led to others still more important. The correspondence of the conspirators with their leader was intercepted. The senate had now a notorious crime to punish. As the circumstances of the case did not allow of a minute observance of forms in the proceedings against the conspirators, the laws relating thereto were disregarded, as had been done in former instances of less pressing danger. Cæsar spoke against immediate execution, but Cicero and Cato prevailed. Five of the conspirators were put to death. Caius Antonius was then appointed to march against Catiline, but, on the pretext of ill health, gave the command to his lieutenant Petreius. He succeeded in enclosing Catiline, who, seeing no way of escape, resolved to die sword in hand. His followers imitated his example. The battle was fought with bitter desperation. The insurgents all fell on the spot which their leader had assigned them, and Catiline at their head, at Pistoia, in Etruria, 5th Jan., B. C. 62. The history of Catiline's conspiracy has been written by Sallust.

Catinat, Nicholas, marshal of France, born at Paris, 1637, quitted the profession of the law for that of arms, after losing a cause by a decision which appeared to him evidently unjust. He entered the cavalry, attracted the notice of Louis XIV, at the storming of Lille (1667), and was promoted. By a number of splendid deeds, he gained the esteem and friendship of the great Condé, particularly by his conduct at the battle of Senef. He was sent as lieutenant-general against the duke of Savoy, gained the battles of Staffardo (Aug. 18, 1690) and of Marsaglia (Oct. 4, 1693), occupied Savoy and part of Piedmont, and was made marshal in 1693. In the conquered countries, his humanity and mildness often led him to spare the vanquished, contrary to the express commands of Louvois. In Flanders, he displayed the same activity, and took Ath, in 1697. In 1701, he received

the command of the army of Italy against prince Eugene; but he was straitened by the orders of his court, and was destitute of money and provisions, while Eugene was allowed to act with full liberty. July 6th, he was defeated at Carpi. Equally unfortunate was the battle of Chiari, where Villeroi had the chief command. It was here, while rallying his troops, after an unsuccessful charge, that he replied to an officer who represented to him that death was inevitable in such an encounter, "True, death is before us, but shame behind." In spite of his representations, the French court would not believe the disasters in Savoy to be owing to the perfidy of the duke of Savoy, and Catinat was disgraced. He bore his misfortune with calmness, and died at St. Gratien, in 1712. He was a true philosopher, religious without austerity, a courtier without intrigue, disinterested and generous when in favor, and cheerful in disgrace. From his unalterable calmness and consideration, his soldiers called him *le Père de la Pensée.*

CATO the Censor (Marcus Porcius), surnamed *Priscus*, also *Sapiens* and *Major* (the Wise and the Elder), born 232 B. C., at Tusculum, inherited from his father, a plebeian, a small estate, in the territory of the Sabines, which he cultivated with his own hands. He was a youth at the time of Hannibal's invasion of Italy. He served his first campaign, at the age of 17, under Fabius Maximus, when he besieged Capua. Five years after, he fought under the same commander at the siege of Tarentum. After the capture of this city, he became acquainted with the Pythagorean Nearchus, who initiated him into the sublime doctrines of his philosophy, with which, in practice, he was already conversant. After the war was ended, Cato returned to his farm. As he was versed in the laws, and a fluent speaker, he went, at day-break, to the neighboring towns, where he acted as counsellor and advocate to those who applied to him. Valerius Flaccus, a noble and powerful Roman, who had an estate in the vicinity, observed the talents and virtues of the youth, conceived an affection for him, and persuaded him to remove to Rome, where he promised to assist him with his influence and patronage. A few rich and high-born families then stood at the head of the republic. Cato was poor and unknown, but his eloquence, which some compared to that of Demosthenes, and the integrity and strength of his character, soon drew the public attention to him. In court, and in the popular assemblies, he answered to the fine definition which he himself gave of an orator, and which Quinctilian has preserved to us; "a virtuous man skilled in the art of speaking well." At the age of 30, he went as military tribune to Sicily. In the following year, he was questor, at which period there commenced, between him and Scipio, a rivalry and hatred, which lasted till death. Cato, who had returned to Rome, accused Scipio of extravagance; and, though his rival was acquitted of the charge, this zeal in the cause of the public gained Cato a great influence over the people. Five years after, having been already edile, he was chosen pretor, and obtained the province of Sardinia. His strict moderation, integrity and love of justice were here still more strongly displayed than in Rome. On this island, he formed an acquaintance with the poet Ennius, of whom he learnt Greek, and whom he took with him to Rome on his return. He was finally made consul, 193 B. C., with his friend Valerius Flaccus for his colleague. He opposed, with all his power, the abolition of the Oppian law, passed in the pressing times of the second Punic war, forbidding the Roman women to wear more than half an ounce of gold, to dress in garments of various colors, or to wear other ornaments; but he was obliged to yield to the eloquence of the tribune Valerius, and the urgent importunities of the women. Soon after, he set out for Spain, which was in a state of rebellion. His first act was to send back to Rome the supplies which had been provided for the army, declaring that the war ought to support the soldiers. He gained several victories with a newly-raised army, reduced the province to submission, and returned to Italy, where the honor of a triumph was granted to him. Scarcely had he descended from his triumphal car, when he put off the toga of the consul, arrayed himself in the soldier's habit, and followed Sempronius to Thrace. He afterwards put himself under the command of the consul Manius Acilius, to fight against Antiochus, and to carry on the war in Thessaly. By a bold march, he made himself master of the Callidromus, one of the highest peaks of the mountain pass of Thermopylæ, and thus decided the issue of the battle. He brought the intelligence of this victory to Rome, 189 B. C. Seven years after, he obtained, in spite of a powerful faction opposed to him, the most honorable, and at the same time the most feared, of all

the magistracies of Rome, the censorship. He had not canvassed for the office, but had only expressed his willingness to fill it. In compliance with his wishes, Valerius Flaccus was chosen his colleague, as the only person qualified to assist him in correcting the public disorders, and restoring the ancient purity of morals. He fulfilled this trust with inflexible rigor; and, though his measures caused him some obloquy and opposition, they met, in the end, with the highest applause; and, when he resigned his office, it was resolved to erect a statue to him with an honorable inscription. He appears to have been quite indifferent to the honor; and when, before this, some one expressed his wonder that no statue had been erected to him, he answered, "I would rather have it asked why no image has been erected to Cato than why one has." Still he was not void of self-complacency. "Is he a Cato, then?" he was accustomed to say, when he would excuse the errors of another. Cato's political life was a continued warfare. He was continually accusing, and was himself accused with animosity, but was always acquitted. His last public commission was an embassy to Carthage, to settle the dispute between the Carthaginians and king Massinissa. It is said that this journey was the original cause of the destruction of Carthage; for Cato was so astonished at the rapid recovery of this city from its losses, that he ever after ended every speech of his with the well-known words, "*Præterea censeo, Carthaginem esse delendam*" (I am also of opinion that Carthage must be destroyed). He died a year after his return (147 B. C.), 85 years old. Cato, who was so frugal of the public revenues, was not indifferent to riches. He was rigorously severe towards his slaves, and considered them quite in the light of property. He made every exertion to promote and improve agriculture. In his old age, he gave himself up to the company of his friends and the pleasures of the table. To this the verses of Horace allude—

> Narratur et prisci Catonis
> Sæpe mero caluisse virtus.

He was twice married, and had a son by each of his wives. His conduct as a husband and a father was equally exemplary. He composed a multitude of works, of which the only one extant is that *De Re Rustica*. Those of which the loss is most to be regretted are his orations, which Cicero mentions in terms of the highest encomium, and his history of the origin of the Roman people, which is frequently quoted by the old historians.

Cato, Marcus Porcius (called, to distinguish him from the censor, his great grandfather, *Cato of Utica*, the place of his death), was born 93 B. C., and, after the death of his parents, was brought up in the house of his uncle, Livius Drusus. He early discovered great maturity of judgment and firmness of character. It is related of him, that, in his 14th year, when he saw the heads of several proscribed persons in the house of Sylla, by whose orders they had been murdered, he demanded a sword of his teacher, to stab the tyrant, and free his country from servitude. With his brother by the mother's side, Cæpio, he lived in the tenderest friendship. Cato was chosen priest of Apollo. He formed an intimacy with the Stoic Antipater of Tyre, and ever remained true to the principles of the Stoic philosophy. His first appearance in public was against the tribunes of the people, who wished to pull down a *basilica* erected by the censor Cato, which was in their way. On this occasion, he displayed that powerful eloquence, which afterwards rendered him so formidable, and won the cause. He served his first campaign as a volunteer in the war against Spartacus, and distinguished himself so highly, that the pretor Gellius awarded him a prize, which he refused. He was sent as military tribune to Macedonia. When the term of his office had expired, he travelled into Asia, and carried the Stoic Athenodorus with him to Rome. He was next made questor, and executed his difficult trust with the strictest integrity, while he had the spirit to prosecute the public officers for their acts of extortion and violence. His conduct gained him the admiration and love of the Romans, so that, on the last day of his questorship, he was escorted to his house by the whole assembly of the people. The fame of his virtue spread far and wide. In the games of Flora, the dancers were not allowed to lay aside their garments as long as Cato was present. The troubles of the state did not permit him to remain in seclusion. The example of Sylla, in usurping supreme power, was followed by many ambitious men, whose mutual dissensions were all that saved the tottering constitution from immediate ruin. Crassus hoped to purchase the sovereignty with his gold; Pompey expected that it would be voluntarily conferred upon him; and Cæsar, superior to both in talent, united himself to both, and

made use of the wealth of the one, and the reputation of the other, to attain his own objects. At the head of the senate, the sole prop of the republic, stood Catulus, Cicero and Cato. Lucullus, who stood very high in the favor of the army, which he had so victoriously commanded, might alone have upheld the senate, had he not been more desirous to enjoy his wealth than to devote himself to the care of the commonwealth. Cato, keeping aloof from all parties, served the commonwealth with sagacity and courage; but he often injured the cause, which he was trying to benefit, by the inflexibility of his character. He was on the way to his estate, when he met Metellus Nepos, who was travelling to Rome to canvass for the tribuneship. Knowing him to be a dangerous man, Cato returned immediately, stood candidate for the office himself, and was chosen, together with Metellus. About this time, the conspiracy of Catiline broke out. Cato supported, with all his power, the consul Cicero, first gave him publicly the name of *father of his country*, and urged, in a fine speech preserved by Sallust, the rigorous punishment of the traitors. He opposed the proposition of Metellus Nepos to recall Pompey from Asia, and give him the command against Catiline, and came near losing his life in a riot excited against him on this account by his colleague and Cæsar. After the return of Pompey, he frustrated many of his ambitious plans, and first predicted the consequences of his union with Crassus and Cæsar. He afterwards opposed, but in vain, the division of lands in Campania. Cæsar at that time abused his power so much as to send Cato to prison, but was constrained, by the murmurs of the people, to set him at liberty. The triumvirate, in order to remove him to a distance, had him sent to Cyprus, to depose king Ptolemy, under some frivolous pretext. He was compelled to obey, and executed his commission with so much address that he enriched the treasury with a larger sum than had ever been deposited in it by any private man. In the mean time, he continued his opposition to the triumvirate. Endeavoring to prevent the passage of the Tribonian law, which invested Crassus with an extraordinary power, he was a second time arrested; but the people followed him in a body to the prison, and his enemies were compelled to release him. Being afterwards made pretor, he carried into execution a law against bribery, that displeased all parties. After the death of Crassus, the civil commotions increased, and Cato, as the only means of preventing greater evils, proposed that Pompey should be made sole consul, contrary to the constitution, and the proposition was adopted. The year following, Cato lost the consulship by refusing to take the steps necessary for obtaining it. At this time the civil war broke out. Cato, then propretor in Sicily, on the arrival of Curio with three of Cæsar's legions, departed for the camp of Pompey, at Dyrrachium. He had still been in hopes to prevent the war by negotiation; and when it broke out, he put on mourning in token of his grief. Pompey, having been victorious at Dyrrachium, left Cato behind to guard the military chest and magazine, while he pushed after his rival. For this reason, Cato was not present at the battle of Pharsalia, after which he sailed over with his troops to Cyrene, in Africa. Here he learned that Pompey's father-in-law, Scipio, had gone to Juba, king of Mauritania, where Varus had collected a considerable force. Cato immediately set off to join him, and, after undergoing hunger, thirst and every hardship, reached Utica, where the two armies effected a junction. The soldiers wished him to be their general, but he gave this office to Scipio, and took the command in Utica, while Scipio and Labienus sallied out against Cæsar. Cato had advised them to protract the war, but they ventured an engagement, in which they were entirely defeated, and Africa submitted to the victor. Cato had at first determined to defend himself to the last, with the senators in the place; but he afterwards abandoned this plan, and dismissed all who wished to leave him. His resolution was taken. On the evening before the day which he had fixed upon for executing it, he took a tranquil meal, and discussed various philosophical subjects. He then retired to his chamber, and read the *Phædo* of Plato. Anticipating his intentions, his friends had taken away his sword. On finding that it was gone, he called his slaves, and demanded it with apparent equanimity; but when they still delayed to bring it, he struck one of the slaves, who was endeavoring to pacify him. His son and his friends came with tears, and besought him to refrain from his purpose. At first he reproached his son for disobedience, then calmly advised those present to submit to Cæsar, and dismissed all but the philosophers Demetrius and Apollonius, whom he asked if they knew any way by

which he could continue to live without being false to his principles. They were silent, and left him, weeping. He then received his sword joyfully, again read *Phædo*, slept awhile, and, on awaking, sent to the port to inquire if his friends had departed. He heard, with a sigh, that the sea was tempestuous. He had again sunk into slumber, when word was brought him that the sea was calm, and that all was tranquil in the harbor. He appeared satisfied, and was scarcely alone when he stabbed himself with his sword. The people rushed in, and took advantage of a swoon, into which he had fallen, to bind up his wounds; but, on coming to himself, he tore off the bandages, and expired (44 B. C.). The Uticans buried him honorably, and erected a statue to him. But Cæsar, when he heard the news of his death, exclaimed, "I grudge thee thy death, since thou hast grudged me the honor of sparing thy life." The truly Roman virtue of Cato has been celebrated by Lucan, in his *Pharsalia*, in a truly Roman style, with the words

Victrix causa diis placuit, sed victa Catoni.

CATOPTRICS (from κάτοπτρον, a mirror); the science which treats of reflected light. (See *Optics*.)

CATS, James; born in 1577, at Brouwershaven, in Zealand; one of the fathers of the Dutch language and poetry. He studied at Leyden and Orleans. In 1627 and 1631, he was ambassador to England, and afterwards grand pensioner of Holland. His poetry is distinguished for simplicity, *naïveté*, richness of imagination, and winning though unpretending morality. His works consist of allegories, according to the taste of his times, poems on the different ages and situations of life, idyls, &c. He died in 1660.

CAT'S-EYE. (See *Asteria* and *Quartz*.)

CATSKILL MOUNTAINS; a range of mountains in New York, much the highest in the state. They extend along to the west of the Hudson, from which their base is, at the nearest point, eight miles distant. The principal summits are in Greene county. The two most elevated peaks are Round Top and High Peak. The former, according to the measurement of captain Partridge, is 3804 feet above the level of tide water; and the latter, 3718 feet. The Catskill mountains present scenery of singular beauty and grandeur, and have become a noted resort of travellers during the summer. On a level tract of about 7 acres, called *Pine Orchard*, elevated 2214 feet above the level of tide water, a large and commodious house has been erected for the accommodation of visitors. It is situated directly on the brow of the mountain, and commands an enchanting view of the country on both sides of the Hudson, embracing a tract about 100 miles in length and 50 in breadth. This place, which is 12 miles from the town of Catskill, is approached by a good turnpike road, which winds up the side of the mountain. Two miles west of Pine Orchard are the fine cascades of the Kaaterskill, a stream which is supplied by two small lakes situated high in the mountains. The upper fall is 175 feet in height; and a few rods below is the other, of 80 feet, both perpendicular. The stream passes into a deep and very picturesque ravine, which is bordered by mountains rising abruptly 1000 or 1500 feet.

CATSUP. (See *Ketchup*.)

CATTARO; a seaport in Dalmatia, capital of a circle of the same name (formerly called *Venetian Albania*), at the bottom of the gulf of Cattaro (*bocche di Cattaro*), on the E. side of the Adriatic; 25 miles W. N. W. Scutari, 30 S. S. E. Ragusa; lon. 18° 58′ E.; lat. 42° 17′ N.; population, 2500. It is a bishop's see. It contains a cathedral, 17 Catholic churches and chapels, 1 Greek church, and an hospital. It has a remarkable harbor, one of the most secure in Europe, being defended by a castle and strong battlements, and enclosed with rocks of such height, that the sun is seen in winter only a few hours in the day. Population of the circle, 31,570; square miles, 296.

CATTEGAT; a large gulf of the North sea, between North Jutland to the W., Norway to the E., and the Danish islands of Zealand, Funen, &c. to the S.; about 120 miles from N. to S., and between 60 and 70 from E. to W. The adverse winds which often prevail here render the navigation dangerous. The Cattegat is noted for its herring fishery. It contains the islands Samsoe, Anholt, Lessoe and Hertzholm.

CATTI; one of the most renowned and valiant German tribes. They inhabited what is now *Hesse*, also part of Franconia and Westphalia. They carried on bloody wars with the Hermunduri and Cherusci. In the time of Cæsar, they dwelt on the Lahn, and opposed him with effect. Drusus defeated without reducing them. In the reign of Marcus Aurelius, they made incursions into Germany and Thrace, but were afterwards defeated by Didius Juli-

anus. In 392, they made their last appearance in history in union with the Franks. According to Cæsar, their territory was divided into 100 districts, each of which was obliged to send annually 1000 men into the field, whose place was supplied the following year by those who had before remained at home to cultivate the ground. Their food was milk, cheese and game; their dress, the skins of animals. Their limited princes, who governed in connexion with a diet, annually distributed the lands among the families. (See *Germania.*)

Catullus, Caius Valerius, a famous Roman poet, born, B. C. 86, at Verona (according to some, at Sirmium, a small town on a peninsula of lake Benacus, now *lago di Garda*), of rich and respectable parents, went, in his youth, to Rome, where his accomplishments soon won him the favor of those who adorned that splendid era. He was the friend of Cicero, of Plancus, Cinna, and Cornelius Nepos; to the last he subsequently dedicated the collection of his poems. This collection is not of great extent, but shows what he was capable of doing in several kinds of poetry, had he preferred a steady course of study to pleasure and travelling. Probably a part of his poems have not come down to us. Of the merit of his productions, there has been but one opinion among the ancients as well as moderns. Tibullus and Ovid eulogize him; and Martial, in one of his epigrams, grants to him alone a superiority over himself. In sportive composition and in epigrams, when he keeps within the proper limits of that species of poetry, he is a model. He succeeded, also, in heroic verse, as in his beautiful episode of Ariadne, which appears to have inspired the poet who afterwards sung of Dido. He was the first of the Romans who successfully imitated the Greek lyric poetry. The four odes of his that remain to us make us feel a lively regret for the loss of the others. A weighty objection, however, against most of his writings, is their licentiousness and indelicacy. The common opinion is, that he died 57 B. C., in the 30th year of his age. Scaliger maintains, but without sufficient proof, that he died in his 71st year. The edition of his works by Volpius (Padua, 1737), and that of Döring (Leipsic, 1788—90, 2 vols.), deserve honorable mention. His poems are usually published with those of Tibullus and Propertius.

Caubul, or Cabul. (See *Afghanistan.*)

Caucasus; a chain of mountains in Western Asia, extending from south-east to north-west, and occupying the isthmus (containing 127,140 square miles) between the Black and Caspian seas. The length is computed at 644 miles; the breadth is various; from Mosdok to Tiflis it may be estimated at 184 miles. Torrents, precipices and avalanches render the mountains almost impassable. The Caucasus is divided into two parallel chains. The central ridge, from which the mountains fall off on each side, consists of various sorts of granite. The summits are covered with snow and ice, and are mostly barren; the lower parts are clothed with thick forests. On the western declivity is the Elburs, which a Russian measurement makes 16,700 feet high. The Casibeg is 17,388 feet high. The most elevated summit (the Snowy mountain) is on the eastern side, west of the Cuban. It was first ascended by a European traveller in 1810. It is also called *Schah-dagh* (King's mountain) and *Schah-Elburs; Elburs* being the common name of all the high, conical summits rising from the chain of the Caucasus. The limit of perpetual snow on these mountains is 1890 feet higher than on the Alpine regions of Savoy and Switzerland. Two of the passes, or *gates*, as they are often called, are remarkable—the Caucasian pass and the Albanian or Caspian pass. Most of the rivers, which take their rise in the Caucasus, flow in an easterly direction to the Caspian sea, or in a westerly course to the Black sea. On the northern declivity, the Terek flows easterly into the Caspian, and the Cuban westerly into the Black sea: beyond these rivers, the mountainous chain sinks down, by degrees, to the sandy plains in the south of Russia. On the southern declivity, the Kur flows easterly into the Caspian, and the Rioni (called by the ancients the *Phasis*) westerly into the Black sea: beyond these rivers rise the mountains of Turkish and Persian Armenia, which connect the Caucasus with the other chains of Western Asia. The highest ridge of the Caucasian chain is rugged and barren, but the southern declivity is extremely fruitful. The whole surface of the country abounds in forests and fountains, orchards and vineyards, cornfields and pastures, in rich alternation. Grapes and various kinds of fleshy fruits, chestnuts and figs, grow spontaneously. Grain of every description, rice, cotton and hemp flourish abundantly. But agriculture is much neglected; partly owing to the indolence of the inhabitants, and partly to

their want of numbers and of security, as the people of the mountains, particularly the Lesghians, in their plundering expeditions, rob the cultivators of the fruits of their industry, and carry off the men for slaves. There are multitudes of wild animals of every description here. The pheasant is a native. The mineral kingdom is full of the richest treasures, which are nearly untouched. Mineral waters abound, and there are fountains of petroleum and naphtha in many districts. Some fountains throw up a slime with the petroleum, which, being deposited, forms hills, styled by the natives *growing mountains.* The medicinal baths of Caucasia are called by the general name of the *baths of Alexander.* The inhabitants consist of small tribes of various origin and language—Georgians, Abassians, Lesghians, Ossetes, Circassians, Taschkents, Khists, Ingooshes, Charabulaks, Tshetshenzes, Tartars, Armenians, Jews, and, in some regions, wandering Arabs. Some of them are Greek and Armenian Christians; others are Mohammedans; others, Jews; and others worship stars, mountains, rocks and trees. Many of the tribes are distinguished for the beauty, symmetry and strength of their frames, particularly the Circassians and Georgians, who are the handsomest people in the world; hence the charming Circassian and Georgian females are sought for by the Eastern monarchs for their harams. The Caucasians (about 900,000 in all) are partly under petty sovereigns, who often rule over a few villages, and partly under elders. The most famous are the Lesghians, who inhabit the Eastern regions, and are the terror of the Armenians, Persians, Turks and Georgians. Freedom makes them courageous and formidable to all their neighbors. They are forced, by the want of the most common necessaries of life, to resort to plunder. Hence their weaker neighbors seek to appease them with presents. The rocks and crags, on the other hand, protect the Lesghians effectually from all external assaults. This tribe entirely neglects the arts; and their agriculture and pasturage together are insufficient for their support. The management of domestic affairs rests wholly with the females. These prepare, from soft and fine wool, cloth dresses and coverings of various kinds. The men have no employment but war and plunder, whereby to procure the necessaries of life. Every prince in the neighborhood can purchase their aid, by furnishing them with provisions and 10 or 12 rubles of silver apiece. They undertake private expeditions, lull their enemies into security, and then attack them unawares. They show the greatest fortitude in enduring hardships and reverses of fortune. Among them, and, in fact, throughout the Caucasus, hospitality and an implacable spirit of revenge prevail. No stranger can travel in their country without having a friendly native or Kunak to accompany him, by whom he is every where introduced, and kindly received and entertained. All the regions on and about the Caucasus are comprehended under the name of *Caucasian* countries (containing 116,078 square miles and 1,673,500 inhabitants). Since the peace concluded between Russia and Persia, in 1813, they have belonged to the Russian empire, though without being completely subject to it; for only a small portion, the Georgian territories, have a well ordered government, mostly military. The Caucasian provinces are, at present, six in number:—1. The province of Tiflis or Grusia, also called *Georgia* (17,630 square miles, and 390,000 inhabitants; the capital, Tiflis, q. v.).—2. Imiretta, called by the Russians *Melitenia* (13,667 square miles, and 270,000 inhabitants; capital, Cotatis).—3. The province of Circassia, (32,526 square miles, and 550,000 inhabitants). Here are Russian military posts (to guard against the attacks of the independent princes of the mountains), the Great and Little Kabarda, Besghistan, &c.—4. Daghestan, i. e., the mountain land on the Caspian sea (9196 square miles, and 184,000 inhabitants; Derbent is its capital).—5. Schirvan (9429 square miles, 133,000 inhabitants), with Bakou, the best harbor in the Caspian. This region, from its abundance of beautiful flowers, is called the *Paradise of Roses.* In the neighborhood are the fountains of naphtha, to which the Parsees perform pilgrimages from India. Here, too, is the temple of fire, where a fire is kept perpetually burning.—Beyond Terek, on the northern side of Caucasus, lies, 6. the province of Caucasia (previous to 1822, the government of Georgievsk), containing 33,586 square miles, with 146,500 inhabitants, of whom 21,000 are Russians and 48,000 colonists. Here are 22 fortified places (as Georgievsk, Kizliar (a commercial city, with a population of 9000), Alexandrovsk, &c.) along the Cuban, the Kama and the Terek, as defences against the savage tribes of the mountains. Since 1825, Stavropol has been the capital of this province, and general Jermoloff

(q. v.) the governor. The trade is mostly in the hands of the Armenians. Here is the Scottish missionary station of Kara, founded in 1803, and enlarged by Moravians from Sarepta, with schools and a printing-office.

Cauchois-Lemaire, Louis Augustin François; a spirited French political writer, known on account of his political persecutions. He was born in Paris, in 1789, where he went through a complete course of study, and devoted himself to the work of education. After the restoration, he published a journal, *Nain Jaune* (The Yellow Dwarf), which was constitutional in its sentiments, and, at the same time, contained so much pungent satire, that it was suppressed, after the second restoration, in 1815. He was obliged to leave Paris, went to Brussels, published there the *Nain Jaune refugie*, and changed the title, when the work was suppressed in that place also, to that of *Le Vrai Liberal* (The True Liberal), under which, in spite of complaints and prosecutions, and a constant change of publishers, it still continues. Cauchois, through the representations of the French ministry, became an object of so much suspicion to the Belgian government, that he, with 19 other French refugees, was ordered to quit the country, and go to Hamburg. He was carried, by gendarmes, over the frontiers, but escaped to the Hague, where he was hospitably received, and concealed from the police, which was in pursuit of him. Here he composed a very energetic memorial to the states-general, in which he represented his persecutions as a violation of national law. This occasioned a most animated debate in the Belgian parliament, in which Hogendorp and Dotrenge distinguished themselves, but was finally rejected. Under Decazes' ministry, Cauchois returned to Paris, where he has since been an industrious contributor to several liberal journals.

Caucus; one of the very few Americanisms, which belong entirely to the U. States, and cannot be traced back to the mother country. (See *Americanism.*) Mr. John Pickering, in his Vocabulary or Collection of Words and Phrases, which have been supposed to be peculiar to the U. States (Boston, 1816), calls it a *cant* term, used, throughout the U. States, for those meetings which are held by the different political parties, for the purpose of agreeing upon candidates for office, or concerting any measure which they intend to carry at the subsequent public or town-meetings. The earliest account he has seen of this extraordinary word is in Gordon's History of the American Revolution, London, 1788, vol. i. p. 240, note. Gordon says that, more than 50 years previous to the time of his writing, "Samuel Adams' father, and twenty others, in Boston, one or two from the north end of the town, where all ship-business is carried on, used to meet, make a caucus," &c. From the fact that the meetings were first held in a part of Boston "where all the ship-business was carried on," Mr. Pickering inferred that *caucus* might be a corruption of *caulkers*, the word *meeting* being understood. Mr. Pickering was afterwards informed that several gentlemen had mentioned this as the origin of the word. He thinks he has sometimes heard the expression a *caucus meeting* (caulkers' meeting). Mr. Pickering says that this *cant* word and its derivatives are never used in good writing. We must add, however, that all the newspapers of the U. States use it.

Caulaincourt. (See *Vicenza.*)

Caudine Forks. (See *Avellino.*)

Caulking, or Cauking, of a ship, consists in driving a quantity of oakum, or old ropes untwisted and drawn asunder, into the seams of the planks, or into the intervals where the planks are joined together, in the ship's decks or sides, in order to prevent the entrance of water. After the oakum is driven very hard into these seams, it is covered with hot melted pitch or resin, to keep the water from rotting it. Among the ancients, the first who made use of caulking were the inhabitants of Phœacia, now Corfu. Wax and resin appear to have been commonly used previously to that period. The Poles use a sort of unctuous clay for the same purpose on their navigable rivers.

Caustic. The name of *caustic* (Lat. *causticus*, from Gr. καίω, I burn) is given to substances, which, by their chemical action, disorganize the parts of the body with which they are put in contact. They are called, likewise, *potential cauteries*, to distinguish them from the fire called *actual cautery*. Caustics, in general, act by decomposing chemically the tissues to which they are applied, by depriving them of life, and producing a real local and circumscribed gangrene, called *eschar*, or *slough*. Those, the action of which is powerful,—for instance, caustic potassa, concentrated sulphuric acid, &c., —produce these phenomena with such rapidity, that inflammation takes place only after the formation of the *eschar;* whilst, on the contrary, inflammation is

the immediate consequence of the less energetic caustics. In both cases, suppuration occurs sooner or later, and separates the disorganized from the surrounding parts. Almost all the substances used as caustics have only a local action: some, however, are capable of being absorbed, and of exercising a deleterious action on the economy in general: arsenical preparations are an instance of it. The employment of caustics is now confined to a small number of cases. The actual cautery and the knife are, in general, preferred to them. They are used principally in order to establish issues, particularly in cases in which it is necessary to produce a powerful derivation; to stop the progress of certain gangrenous affections, such as *anthrax;* to open certain indolent abscesses; to change the mode of vitality of the skin in some cancerous or herpetic ulcers; to destroy the excrescences of wounds or proud flesh; and, finally, to prevent the absorption of the virus deposited at the surface of poisoned wounds.

Caustic Potassa (*potassa fusa; lapis causticus*); impure hydrate of protoxyde of potassium; caustic kali with lime; common caustic. This is seen in flat, irregular, brittle pieces, or in round sticks, like the nitrate of silver; of a grayish-white, sometimes reddish; of a savor extremely caustic, and a slight odor *sui generis.* This substance is extremely caustic; it decomposes quickly the parts with which it is put in contact, and leaves on the skin a soft, grayish *eschar,* which comes off slowly. Taken internally, it acts in the same way as all corrosive poisons: it has, nevertheless, been administered, in very dilute solutions, as an antacid, diuretic, and lithontriptic. It has succeeded in the gravel, in nephritic colics, and other affections proceeding from superabundance of uric acid.. It has been recommended, likewise, in the treatment of scrofula, and in some diseases of the skin, such as leprosy, &c. This solution, even when very diluted, soon irritates the stomach, and brings on anorexia, which prevents it from being used for any length of time.

Caustic Soda (*soda*); protoxyde of sodium. Its physical properties are similar to those of potassa, and it may be used with advantage as a *succedaneum* when employed as a caustic. In fact, the sub-carbonate, which forms during its action on the skin, is not deliquescent, as that of potassa, and, consequently, is not subject to spread.

Cavalcanti, Guido; a Florentine philosopher and poet of the 13th century, the friend of Dante, and, like him, a zealous Ghibelline. When the dissensions of the Guelfs and Ghibellines disturbed the public peace of Florence, the citizens banished the chiefs of both parties. The Ghibellines were exiled to Sarzana. On account of the unhealthy air of that place, they were permitted to return; but Cavalcanti had contracted a disease of which he died (1300) at Florence. In his youth, he made a pilgrimage to St. Jago de Compostella, in Galicia. Returning home through France, he fell in love, at Toulouse, with a young lady of the name of *Mandetta.* To her most of his verses which we possess are addressed. They are remarkable, considering the period at which they were written, for their beautiful style. His *Canzone d'Amore* has gained him the most fame. The learned cardinal Egidio Colonna, and some others, have made commentaries on it. His *Rime,* published by Cicciaporci, appeared at Florence in 1813.

Cavalier, in fortification, is a work generally raised within the body of the place, 10 or 12 feet higher than the rest of the works. It is most commonly situated within the bastion, and made much in the same form. Sometimes the cavaliers are placed in the gorges, or on the middle of the curtain; they are then made in the form of a horse-shoe. Their use is to command all the adjacent works and surrounding country. They are seldom made except when a rising ground overlooks some of the works. In modern times, it is considered that cavaliers in a bastion occupy too much room, render retrenchments impossible, and, unless a ditch separates the cavalier from the parapet of the bastion, cause the grenades to fall upon the defenders of the latter; for which reasons it is considered best to put them on the curtains or behind the bastions.

Cavalry; one of the three great classes of troops, and a formidable power in the hands of a leader who knows how to employ it with effect. This requires a bold and active spirit, able to avail itself, with quickness and decision, of every opportunity. The efficacy of cavalry arises particularly from the moral impression which it produces on the enemy. This is greater in proportion to the size of the mass and the rapidity of its motion. Its adaptation to speedy movements is another great advantage, which enables a commander to avail himself immediately of a decisive moment, when the enemy

exposes a weak point, or when disorder appears in his ranks. It is a very important instrument in completing the defeat of an enemy, in disconcerting him by a sudden attack, or overthrowing him by a powerful shock. The use of cavalry is, it is true, oftentimes limited by the nature of the ground. In forests, in mountainous districts, on a marshy soil, &c., it is of but little avail in large bodies. In modern times, cavalry has been led against intrenchments, but only to its own destruction. In some instances, too, the cavalry has been dismounted, and employed as infantry; which may, on peculiar occasions, be advisable, but, on the whole, is contrary to their nature and purpose, and, if made a part of their duty, like other half measures, is usually disadvantageous. It is also unadvisable to keep large bodies of cavalry united during a campaign. They are to be collected in large masses only for particular objects. To keep them together the whole time would be troublesome, and their maintenance frequently attended with difficulty.—The unequal size of the horse, the very great diversity in his strength and breed, have at all times rendered it necessary to divide the cavalry into *light* and *heavy horse*. There is sometimes, also, an intermediate class. These different sorts are employed for different purposes. The heavy cavalry, with defensive armor (cuirassiers), is more frequently employed in mass, where force is requisite; the lighter troops are used singly, and in small detachments, where swiftness and continued effort are required. Nevertheless, cuirassiers and dragoons, lancers and hussars, mounted riflemen and *chevaux legers*, must, in the main points, be equally exercised in the duties appertaining to cavalry, and must be able to fight in the line as well as singly. The use of cavalry is probably nearly as ancient as war itself; for in those countries where horses thrive most, and man may be said to live on horseback, he has always preferred to fight on horseback. The Egyptians are said to have had cavalry before the time of Moses. The Israelites, when at war with their neighbors, often had to encounter cavalry, but were afraid to mount horses until the time of Solomon. The Greeks appear not to have introduced cavalry into their armies till the second Messenian war, and, even after that time, had comparatively few; but with them it was considered the most respectable class of troops, in which only the wealthy citizens served. The Persian cavalry, and, at a later period, the Macedonian, were much more numerous. The Romans learnt its use from Pyrrhus and the Carthaginians. At a later period, the cavalry of the Gauls was particularly good. In the middle ages, the knights fought only on horseback, and disdained the foot-service. At this period, however, regular warfare was unknown, and was only gradually restored in the progress of time. After the introduction of artillery, although cavalry was used, yet its manœuvres were awkward and inefficient. The genius of Gustavus Adolphus first perceived the important use which could be made of it. He was without the heavy cavalry, which, since the time of chivalry, had gone out of use; but he found that the advantage of this species of troops did not consist in its weight, but in its quickness of motion. With reference to this, he formed his regiments of horse, and showed their real utility; but it was left to Seidlitz, a general of Frederic the Great, to display this most fully. Napoleon appears to have been well aware of the great value of cavalry in large masses, but he often sacrificed them unsparingly. This, together with certain erroneous dispositions which had crept into some armies, and had caused the cavalry to fail in services on which they ought never to have been put, and which were sometimes performed as well or better by other troops, gave rise, of late years, to doubts concerning their utility, which, however, are now abandoned. The writings of general Bismark, on the subject of cavalry, are valuable; as are also the *Nachrichten und Betrachtungen über die Thaten und Schicksale der Reiterei in den Feldzügen Friederich II und in denen neuerer Zeit* (Statements and Observations respecting the Conduct and Fate of the Cavalry in the Campaigns of Frederic II and in those of a later Period). In the north of Europe, lances are now common among the light cavalry, as they have proved a formidable weapon when skilfully used. They will, no doubt, effect a change in the arms, and even in the organization, of the infantry, who can do little against lancers, if rain prevents them from firing. In the Prussian cavalry, which is among the finest in the world, lancers are very numerous. A French author calls the cavalry, very appropriately, *l'arme du moment;* because they are peculiarly fitted to take advantage of decisive moments. A moment may occur, when a great victory can be decided by the sudden irruption of a body

of cavalry, and the next moment it may be too late. A commander of cavalry must therefore be possessed of the rare courage which shrinks not from responsibility. Many battles in the late wars prove the truth of these remarks. Napoleon won the battle of Marengo chiefly by Kellermann's daring charge, at the head of 500 horse, on an enemy almost sure of victory. The campaigns in Russia, and the following war in Germany, showed the great disadvantage under which an army labors from the want of cavalry. Napoleon failed to follow up his advantages after the victories of Lützen and Dresden, chiefly because his cavalry were raw and inexperienced. The training of cavalry is much slower than that of infantry. The best cavalry is now generally considered to be the Prussian and some species of the Russian. The French never were good horsemen, and the English have not kept pace with the numerous improvements introduced by the wars on the continent. It is a fact of interest, that the more civilization takes root among a nation, the more importance is given to infantry. All savage nations begin with cavalry, if they have horses. At present, infantry is the most numerous class of troops, though, before the time of Charles V, they were little esteemed.

Cavanilles, Antonio Joseph; a clergyman and botanist; born 1745, at Valencia; died in Madrid, 1804; studied with the Jesuits and at the university of Valencia. In 1777, he went to Paris with the children of the duke of Infantado, and remained there 12 years, occupied with the study of several sciences, but chiefly with botany. He published there, in 1784, Observations on the Article *Spain* in the New Encyclopedia, written with as much patriotism as profound reasoning. In the following year, he commenced his great botanical work, *Monadelphiæ Classis Dissertationes decem* (Paris, 1785—89, Madrid, 1790, 4to., with engravings). After his return to Spain, he wrote another beautiful work, *Icones et Descriptiones Plantarum, quæ aut Sponte in Hispania crescunt aut in Hortis hospitantur* (Madrid, 1791—99, 6 vols., folio, with 601 engravings). It contains a number of new genera and species, natives of Spain, America, India and New Holland. In pursuance of a commission from the king, Cavanilles travelled in Valencia, and collected the materials for his *Observaciones sobre la Historia Natural, Geografia, Agricultura, Poblacion*, etc., *del Reymo de Valencia* (Madrid, 1795—97, 2 vols., folio, with copperplates, from the drawings of the author). The work was published at the expense of the king, and intended as the first part of a similar work to embrace the whole of Spain. Thunberg has named a family of plants *Cavanilla*. Cavanilles died in 1804.

Cavatina; a short air without a return or second part, and which is sometimes relieved with recitative.

Cave, or Grotto; an opening produced by nature in the solid crust of the earth. Caves are principally met with in limestone of the transition and flœtz period, in gypsum, sometimes in sandstone, and in volcanic rocks (basalt, lava, tufa, &c.); sometimes they are the effect of crystallization. The form of the caves depends partly upon the nature of the substance in which they exist; but it is frequently altered by external causes. In reference to their internal construction, the hollows in the earth may be divided into three classes: those of the first are wide clefts; those of the second admit the day-light at both ends, and form natural passages, which sometimes serve the rivers as beds; the third and most common class consists of those which form a line of grottoes, about of an equal height, running in the same direction, and connected by passages more or less narrow. Out of some grottoes, rivers take their course; others, again, admit rivers, or may be said to swallow them for a space, till they again emerge. There are many and various causes for the formation of caves. Those in limestone and gypsum are unquestionably the results of the dissolving power of water; in fact, the almost perfectly uniform direction, the gentle and equable declivity of most caves, appear to be the effect of the long continuance of water in them, the action of which has widened the existing crevices. In trachyt and lava, caves appear to have been produced by the effects of gas. The caves of gypsum often contain foul air; the caves of limestone, various figures of stalactites, produced by the deposit of the lime dissolved in the water. The most of these lime caves contain remnants of bones of animals, viz., of hyænas, elephants, bears. Many caves are remarkable only on account of their great size, or sublime from the awful gloom which pervades them, and the echoes which roll like thunder through their vaulted passages. Some are of great depth, as that of Fredericshall, in Norway, which is calculated to be 11,000 feet in depth. One of the grandest natural caverns known is

Fingal's cave, in Staffa, one of the Western islands of Scotland. Its sides are formed of ranges of basaltic columns, which are almost as regular as hewn stone. The grotto of Antiparos, on the island of the same name, in the Archipelago, is celebrated for its magnificence. The passage at the entrance glitters, in the torch-light, as if it were studded with diamonds. The roof is adorned with stalactites, many of them 20 feet long, and hung with festoons of various forms and brilliant appearance. In some parts, immense columns descend to the floor; others present the appearance of trees and brooks turned to marble. The Peak cavern, in Derbyshire, England, is also a celebrated curiosity of this kind. It is nearly half a mile in length, and, at its lowest part, 600 feet below the surface. The caves of Kirkdale, in England, and Gailenreuth, in Germany, are remarkable for the quantities of bones of the elephant, rhinoceros and hyæna, found in them. The mine of fluor spar, in Castleton, Derbyshire, passes through several stalactic caverns. Other caverns in England contain subterraneous cascades. In the rock of Gibraltar, there are a number of stalactic caverns, of which the principal is St. Michael's cave, 1000 feet above the sea. The most famous caves in Germany are those of Baumann and Bielstein, in the Hartz. (See Buckland's *Reliquiæ Diluvianæ*, London, 1823.) The most celebrated caves in the U. States are Madison's cave, in Rockingham county, Virginia, extending 300 feet into the earth, and adorned with beautiful incrustations of stalactites; Wier's cave, in the same county, extending 800 yards, but extremely irregular in its course and size. Near Corydon, Indiana, is a cave, which has been explored for the distance of several miles, celebrated for producing Epsom salts. In Kentucky and Tennessee, caves are numerous, which appear to have been used as burial-places. In the north-west part of Georgia is a cave, called *Nickojack cave*, 50 feet high and 100 wide, which has been explored to the distance of three miles. A stream of considerable size runs through it, which is interrupted by a fall. Caves are sometimes found which exhale poisonous vapors. The most remarkable known is the Grotto del Cane, a small cave near Naples. In Iceland, there are many caves, formed by the lava from its volcanoes. In the volcanic country near Rome, there are many natural cavities of great extent and coolness, which are sometimes resorted to as a refuge from the heat. The grottoes in the Cevennes mountains in France are both numerous and extensive, and abound in objects of curiosity. In South America is the cavern of Guacharo, which is said to extend for leagues.

Cave, Edward, an English printer, the founder of the Gentleman's Magazine, was born in 1691. His first occupation was that of clerk to a collector of the excise in the country. He then went to London, and put himself apprentice to a printer. When his indentures expired, he obtained a place in the post-office, and employed his leisure in writing for the newspapers. He published, in January, 1731, the first number of the Gentleman's Magazine, which has continued till this day, amid the crowd of magazines which have been established since. Cave was deprived of his place in the post-office on account of his having resisted some abuses relative to the privilege of franking letters. He died January 10, 1754.

Cavendish, Thomas; an eminent navigator in the reign of Elizabeth. Having consumed his property by his early extravagances, he collected three small vessels for the purpose of making a predatory voyage to the Spanish colonies. He sailed from Plymouth in 1586, took and destroyed many vessels, ravaged the coasts of Chile, Peru and New Spain, and returned by the cape of Good Hope, having circumnavigated the globe in 2 years and 49 days, the shortest period in which it had then been effected. In 1591, he set sail on a similar expedition, in which his principal success was the capture of the town of Santos, in Brazil. After suffering many hardships, he died, in 1592.

Cavendish, William, duke of Newcastle, was born in 1592, and educated by his father, on whose death he was raised to the peerage. On the approach of hostilities between the crown and parliament, he embraced the royal cause, and was invested with a commission, constituting him general of all his majesty's forces raised north of the Trent, with very ample powers. With great exertions, and the expenditure of large sums from his private fortune, he levied a considerable army, with which, for some time, he maintained the king's cause in the north. In military matters, he depended chiefly on his principal officers, whilst he himself indulged in the courtly pleasures and literary society to which he was attached. He obtained a complete victory over lord Fairfax on Adderton-heath, and, on the approach of the Scotch army, and its junction with the parliamentary forces, threw himself into York. Having been relieved by

prince Rupert, he was present at the battle of Marston-moor, after which he left the kingdom. He returned, after an absence of 18 years, and was rewarded for his services and sufferings with the dignity of duke. He died in 1676.

Cavendish, William, first duke of Devonshire, was the son of William, third earl of Devonshire. He was born in 1640, and instructed with great care in classical literature. On various occasions, he distinguished himself by his spirit and valor, and, in 1677, began that opposition to the arbitrary measures of the ministers of Charles II, which caused him to be regarded as one of the most determined friends of the liberties of his country. Intimately connected with lord Russel, he joined him in his efforts for the security of free government and the Protestant religion. On the trial of lord Russel, he appeared as a witness in his favor, and offered to assist him in escaping, after he had been sentenced to death, by changing clothes with him in prison. In 1684, having succeeded to his father's title, and being regarded as one of the most formidable opponents of the arbitrary designs of king James II, attempts were made to intimidate him, but without success. Having been insulted by a minion of the king, he dragged him from the chamber by the nose in the royal presence. He took an active part in promoting the revolution, and was one of the first who declared for the prince of Orange. His services were rewarded with the dignity of duke of Devonshire. He still, however, maintained an independent bearing in parliament. He died in 1707.

Cavendish, Henry, born 1731, the son of lord Charles Cavendish, and grandson of the second duke of Devonshire, devoted himself exclusively to the sciences, and acquired a distinguished rank among those learned men who have most contributed to the progress of chemistry. He discovered the peculiar properties of hydrogen, and the qualities by which it is distinguished from atmospheric air. To him we owe the important discovery of the composition of water. Scheele had already observed that, when oxygen is mixed with double the quantity of hydrogen, this mixture burns with an explosion, without any visible residuum. Cavendish repeated this experiment with the accuracy for which he was distinguished. He confined both the gases in dry earthen vessels, to prevent the escape of the product of their combustion, and found that this residuum was water, the weight of which was equal to the sum of the weights of the two gases. Lavoisier confirmed this conclusion in later times. The same spirit of accuracy in his experiments led Cavendish to another discovery, which had escaped Priestley. The latter had observed that a quantity of atmospheric air, confined in a tube, through which the electric spark was transmitted, lost in volume, and formed an acid, which reddened the tincture of litmus; but he carried this experiment no farther. Cavendish repeated the experiment, by confining in the tube a solution of pure potash, which absorbed the acid, and thus proved it to be nitric acid. The analysis of the air, which remained in the tube after the experiment, showed that the weight of the oxygen and azote, which had disappeared, was equal to the weight of the acid thus formed. He easily determined the proportion of the azote to the oxygen, which was 2 : ¾. It was found, also, that, when both gases, sufficiently pure, were mixed in that proportion, and exposed to the electric spark, the mixture disappeared entirely, by which his discovery was completely confirmed. Cavendish distinguished himself no less in natural philosophy, by the accuracy of his experiments. He possessed, also, a profound knowledge of the higher geometry, of which he made a very happy use in determining the mean density of the earth. He found it to be 5½ times greater than the density of water —a conclusion which differs but little from that obtained by Maskelyne in another way. He was a member of the royal society at London, and, in 1803, was made one of the eight foreign members of the national institute of France. Cavendish was probably the richest among the learned, and the most learned among the rich, men of his time. An uncle left him a large fortune in 1773. This increase of wealth made no change in his character and habits. Extremely regular and simple in his manner of living, he was liberal in encouraging science, and in his private charities. His large, well-chosen library was open for the use of learned men. He died in London, March, 1810, and left £1,200,000 sterling to his relations. His writings consist of treatises in the Philosophical Transactions, from 1766 to 1792. They are distinguished by acuteness and accuracy.

Caviare (*ickari*) is made in Russia from the roe of sturgeons, belugas, and many other fish. The roe is separated from the skin which encloses it, salted, and, after eight days, pepper and finely-

minced onions are added. It is then dried, and serves as a relisher with toasted bread or bread and butter. The best caviare is that from the Crimea. From Kerch and Jenikale, in that province, 1500 barrels are annually exported to Moldavia and the countries on the Danube.

CAXAMARCA, or QUAXAMARKA; a province of Peru, bounded N. by Jaen, E. by Chacapoyas, S. E. by Caxamarquilla, S. by Huamachuco, W. by Sana and Truxillo; population, 46,000. The country is generally mountainous. It abounds in fruits and cattle. The inhabitants are, for the most part, Indians, and chiefly weavers.

Caxamarca; a town of Peru, capital of a province of the same name; about 70 miles from the Pacific ocean, 280 N. Lima; lat. 7° 3′ S.; lon. 78° 35′ W.; population, 12,000. It was, at one time, a royal city, where the emperor Atahualpa was put to death, after having been defeated and imprisoned by Pizarro.

CAXTON, William; an Englishman, memorable for having first introduced the art of printing into his native country. He was born in Kent, about 1410, and served an apprenticeship to Robert Large, a London mercer. On the death of his master, Caxton went to the Netherlands, as agent for the mercers' company, in which situation he continued about 23 years. His reputation for probity and abilities occasioned his being employed, in conjunction with Richard Whitchill, to conclude a treaty of commerce between Edward IV and Philip duke of Burgundy. He appears subsequently to have held some office in the household of duke Charles, the son of Philip, whose wife, the lady Margaret of York, distinguished herself as the patroness of Caxton. Whilst abroad, he became acquainted with the then newly discovered invention of printing. (See *Faust, John.*) At the request of the duchess, his mistress, he translated from the French a work, which he entitled the *Recuyell of the Historyes of Troye, by Raoul le Feure,* which he printed at Cologne, 1471, in folio. This book, considered as the earliest specimen of typography in the English language, is esteemed very valuable. At the famous sale of the duke of Roxburgh's library, in 1812, a copy was purchased by the duke of Devonshire, for £1060 10*s.* After this, he printed other works abroad, chiefly translations from the French; and, at length, having provided himself with the means of practising the art in England, he returned thither, and, in 1474, had a press at Westminster abbey, where he printed the *Game and Playe of the Chesse,* generally admitted to be the first typographical work executed in England. Caxton continued to exercise his art for nearly 20 years, during which time he produced between 50 and 60 volumes, most of which were composed or translated by himself. Caxton died about 1492, and was buried, according to some accounts, at Campden, in Gloucestershire; though others state his interment as having taken place at St. Margaret's, Westminster.

CAYENNE, or FRENCH GUIANA; a province or colony in South America, belonging to France; bounded N. and N. E. by the Atlantic ocean, E. and S. by Brazil, and W. by Dutch Guiana; between lat. 1° 50′ and 6° N.; population, 17,331, of which only about 1000 are whites. This country was first colonized by the French in 1635; in 1654, it was taken by the English, and, in 1676, by the Dutch; but, in 1677, it was restored to the French. The coast of the country is generally low, marshy, and subject to inundation. The soil, in many parts, is very fertile, though in others dry, sandy, and soon exhausted. The climate resembles that of the West Indies, though it is more salubrious. The most noted article of produce is Cayenne pepper, the fruit of the *capsicum baccatum.* Other productions are coffee, sugar, cotton, cocoa, indigo, maize, cassia and vanilla.

Cayenne; an island of South America, belonging to France, on the coast of the above province, separated from the main land by the river Cayenne, which is about 300 miles in length. The island is 18 miles long and 10 broad, and has a fertile soil.

Cayenne; a town of South America, on the north point of the above island, at the mouth of the river Cayenne. It is the capital of the French colony of Cayenne, has a large and convenient port, and contains about 200 houses. Lat. 4° 56′ N.; lon. 52° 16′ W.

CAYENNE PEPPER, or CAPSICUM. *Capsicum* is the name of several species of South American and Indian plants, easily known by their hollow pods, of a shining red or yellow color, which contain many small, flat and kidney-shaped seeds. The principal species are, heart or bell-pepper (*capsicum grossum*), Guinea pepper (*capsicum annuum*) and bird-pepper (*capsicum baccatum*). All the species of capsicum possess the same general qualities. In hot climates, but particularly in the East and West Indies, and some parts of Spanish America, the fruit of these plants is much used for culinary purposes. It is eaten in large quantities, both with animal and vegetable food, and is mixed,

in greater or less proportion, with almost all kinds of sauces. The Cayenne pepper used in cookery is made from the fruit of different species of capsicum. This fruit, when ripe, is gathered, dried in the sun, and then pounded; and the powder is mixed with a certain portion of salt, and kept for use in closely-stopped bottles. It is very generally used as a poignant ingredient in soups and highly-seasoned dishes. Its taste is extremely acrid, and it leaves a durable sensation of heat on the palate, which is best removed by butter or oil. When taken in small quantities, Cayenne is a grateful stimulant; and, in medicine, it is used both externally and internally, to promote the action of the bodily organs, when languid and torpid; and it is said to have been found efficacious in many gouty and paralytic cases. The Guinea pepper, or annual capsicum, is considered the most hardy of this whole tribe of plants; and, in many parts of the south of Europe, its fruit is eaten green by the peasants at their breakfasts, and is preferred by them to onions or garlic. The fruit of all the species may be used in domestic economy, either as a pickle, or when dried before a fire, and ground to powder in a common peppermill, as Cayenne pepper. (See *Capsicin.*)

Cayes, Les, or Aux Cayes; a seaport town on the south coast of Hayti; 30 miles S. S. E. Port-au-Prince; lat. 18° 13′ N.; lon. 74° 31′ W. This town, a few years since, contained 12 or 15,000 inhabitants. It is now very much reduced. The harbor is inferior, but the surrounding country is fertile.

Caylus (Anne Claude Philippe de Tubières, &c.), count of, an archæologist, born Oct. 31, 1692, at Paris, received an education equally solid and splendid. After having served in the army during the war of the Spanish succession, he left the service in 1715, accompanied Bonac on his embassy to Constantinople the following year, and visited Greece, Troy, Ephesus, Byzantium and Adrianople. In 1717, he returned to Paris, according to the wish of his mother, and began here to arrange his extensive collections. He commenced a great work on Egyptian, Grecian, Etruscan, Roman and Gallic antiquities, with numerous plates. He was a member of the academy of painting and of the academy of inscriptions, and divided his labors between them. He made a chemical examination of the ancient method of encaustic painting, investigated the mode of painting on marble, the art of hardening copper, the mode by which the Egyptians raised great weights, the mummies, painting on wax, and many other subjects. If he has sometimes misunderstood the ancient authors, and committed some errors with respect to ancient monuments, he has, nevertheless, treated with great success of the processes and materials employed in the arts by the ancients. He died in 1765. Integrity, simplicity and disinterestedness were united in his character with occasional traits of dogmatism. He has left numerous works, tales as well as antiquarian researches. Among the latter is his *Recueil d'Antiquités Egyptiennes*, &c. (Paris, 1752—67, 7 vols.). Caylus was also an industrious and skilful engraver, and has furnished a collection of more than 200 engravings, after drawings in the royal cabinet, and a great number of heads, after the first masters. His mother, niece of Mad. de Maintenon, made herself known by a spirited little work—*Mes Souvenirs.*

Cayman. (See *Alligator.*)

Cazotte, Jacques, an author, distinguished by facility and liveliness of style, born in 1720, at Dijon, studied with the Jesuits, and went, in 1747, to Martinico. On his return to France, he lost $50,000 in letters of exchange upon the order of the Jesuits, to whose superior, Lavalette, he had sold his possessions in Martinico. The lawsuit which he commenced, on this occasion, may be considered as the beginning of all the proceedings against the Jesuits in France. Cazotte shone in society among the *beaux esprits.* His romance of chivalry, *Olivier*, published in 1763, and, subsequently, his *Diable amoureux*, the *Lord Impromptu*, and *Œuvres morales et badines*, are proofs of his rich imagination, and his talent for writing with ease and precision. Being received into the order of Martines de Pasqualis, Cazotte lost himself in cabalistic dreams. With the assistance of Dom Chavis, an Arabian monk, he translated four volumes of Arabian Tales—a continuation of the Arabian Nights, forming the 37th and 40th volumes of the *Cabinet des Fées.* Though at the age of 70 years, he wrote them at midnight, after his return from the circles in which he had been visiting. Chavis dictated the outlines, and Cazotte wrought up the stories. He completed the task in two winters. The comic opera *Les Sabots* he composed in one night. In the revolution, which he opposed with all his power, he was thrown into the prisons of the Abbaye, with his daughter Elizabeth, in 1792. When the massacre of the prisoners took place, Sept. 2 and 3, Cazotte being delivered into the hands of the assassins, his daughter cast herself between him

and the murderers, and prevented the execution of their purpose; but he was again condemned to death, and executed Sept. 25. From the scaffold he cried with a firm voice to the multitude, "I die, as I have lived, faithful to God and to my king."

Cazwini, Zacharia Ben Mohammed, an Arabian naturalist, descended from a family of lawyers, who derived their origin from Anas Ben Malek, a companion of Mohammed, and had settled in Caswin, a city in Persia. From that place this author received the surname under which he has become celebrated. Of the circumstances of his life, we know only that he was cadi of Wazith and Hillah, and died in the year of the hegira 682 (A. D. 1283). His most important work is on natural history—The Wonders of Nature and the Peculiarities of Creation—of which Ideler, professor in the university of Berlin, has published the chapter on the Constellations of the Arabians, and of which there are fragments in Bochart's *Hierozoikon*, in Ouseley's Oriental Collections, and in Wahl's, Jahn's and De Sacy's *Arab. Chrestomathias*. It was the object of Cazwini, like Pliny, to describe the wonders of all nature. His work contains a comprehensive view of all that had been written before him, but in so grand and original a manner, that it is of higher value than most of the original works which treat of the same subjects. There is an abridged translation of it in the Persian.

Cebes of Thebes was a disciple of Socrates. He is said to have saved Phædon, a young slave, from moral ruin. Nothing more is known of his life. Three dialogues—*Hebdome*, *Phrynichus*, and *Pinax*, or the *Picture*—are ascribed to him; but most critics regard the latter as the work of a later Cebes, or of a Stoic philosopher under this assumed name. Since the revival of learning, this interesting dialogue has been often reprinted by itself, or in connexion with the writings of Epictetus, Theognis, Pythagoras, &c. Among the larger editions is that of Schweighäuser (Strasburg, 1806). There are many school editions.

Cecil, William (lord Burleigh). This eminent English statesman was son to Richard Cecil, master of the robes to Henry VIII, and was born at Bourne, in Lincolnshire, in 1520. He studied at St. John's college, Cambridge, whence he removed to Gray's Inn, with a view to prepare himself for the practice of the law. Having carried on a successful controversy with two Irish priests on the subject of the pope's supremacy, he obtained the notice of the king; and, being presented with the reversion of the office of *custos brevium*, was encouraged to push his fortune at court. Having married the sister of sir John Cheke, he was, by his brother-in-law, recommended to the earl of Hertford, afterwards the protector Somerset. Having lost his first wife, he took for a second the daughter of sir Anthony Cooke, director of the studies of Edward VI; and, by his alliance with this lady, herself eminent for learning, still further increased his influence. He rose, in 1547, to the post of master of requests, and, soon after, to that of secretary. He endured, in this reign, some of the vicissitudes which befell his patron Somerset, but always recovered his standing, and, in 1551, was knighted, and sworn a member of the privy council. His declining to aid the proclamation of lady Jane Grey, secured him a gracious reception from queen Mary, although he forfeited his office because he would not change his religion. In 1555, he attended cardinal Pole and the other commissioners appointed to treat for peace with France; and, on his return, being chosen knight of the shire for the county of Lincoln, distinguished himself by opposing a bill brought in for the confiscation of estates on account of religious principles. His foresight led him into a timely correspondence with the princess Elizabeth, previously to her accession; to whom, in her critical situation, his advice was exceedingly serviceable. On her accession, in 1558, he was appointed privy counsellor and secretary of state. One of the first acts of her reign was the settlement of religion, which Cecil conducted with great skill and prudence, considering the difficulties to be encountered. In foreign affairs, he showed much tact in guarding against the danger arising from the Catholic powers, and very judiciously lent support to the reformation in Scotland. The general tenor of Cecil's policy was cautious, and rested upon an avoidance of open hostilities, and a reliance on secret negotiation and intrigues with opposing parties in the neighboring countries, with a view to avert the dangers which threatened his own. This, upon the whole, was a course almost necessary, considering the situation of England, with a powerful, dissatisfied party at home, much dangerous enmity on the part of Catholic Europe, and an alliance existing between Scotland and France. On the suppression of the northern rebellion, in 1571, Elizabeth raised him to the peerage by the title of *baron Burleigh*, and, the following year,

made him a knight of the garter. He is charged with being deeply engaged in fomenting the troubles which caused the flight of the imprudent and unhappy Mary Stuart into England; and, after the discovery of Babington's conspiracy, he never ceased urging her trial and condemnation. He endured, for a short time, the hypocritical resentment of Elizabeth at the execution of the queen of Scots, but, after a while, recovered his former credit. At the time of the threatened Spanish invasion, he drew up the plan for the defence of the country with his usual care and ability. But, soon after, losing his wife, to whom he was warmly attached, he became desirous of retiring from public business, and of leaving the field open to his son Robert, afterwards so celebrated as earl of Salisbury. He was persuaded, however, to keep his employment, and one of his latest efforts was to effectuate a peace with Spain, in opposition to the more heated councils of the earl of Essex. This great minister died in the bosom of his family, and in the possession of all his honors, in 1598, being then in his 77th year. He left behind him the character of the ablest minister of an able reign. How far the emergencies of the period ought to excuse a portion of his dark and crooked policy, it may be difficult to determine. But it is easy to decide, that almost every school of politicians, under similar circumstances, have countenanced similar laxity under the plea of expediency. The private character of Burleigh was highly regarded; for, although he failed not to improve his opportunities as a courtier, he always exhibited a probity which conciliated esteem. He possessed, in a high degree, the solid learning, gravity and decorum, which, in that age, usually accompanied elevated station. In his mode of living, he was noble and splendid, but, at the same time, economical, and attentive to the formation of a competent fortune for his family. His early occupation as a statesman precluded much attention to literature; but he is mentioned as the author of a few Latin verses, and of some historical tracts. A great number of his letters on business are still extant.

Cecil, Robert, earl of Salisbury, second son of lord Burleigh, was born, according to some accounts, about the year 1550; but his birth may, with more probability, be placed 13 years later. He was deformed, and of a weak constitution; on which account he was educated at home, till his removal to the university of Cambridge. Having received the honor of knighthood, he went to France as assistant to the English ambassador, the earl of Derby, and, in 1596, was appointed one of the secretaries of state. On the death of sir Francis Walsingham, he succeeded him as principal secretary, and continued to be a confidential minister of queen Elizabeth to the end of her reign. Having secretly supported the interests of James I, previous to his accession to the crown, and taken measures to facilitate that event, he was continued in office under the new sovereign, and raised to the peerage. In 1603, he was created a baron; in 1604, viscount Cranbourn; and in 1605, earl of Salisbury. The same year he was chosen chancellor of the university of Cambridge, and made a knight of the garter. He was the political rather than the personal favorite of the king, whom he served with zeal and fidelity; and, as he was certainly the ablest, so he was, perhaps, the most honest, minister who presided over the affairs of state during that reign. In 1608, on the decease of the lord high treasurer the earl of Dorset, that office was bestowed on lord Salisbury, who held it till his death, in 1612. This event took place at Marlborough, as he was returning to London from Bath, whither he had gone in a very debilitated state of health, to use the mineral waters. An interesting account of this journey, and of the last hours of this eminent statesman, drawn up by one of his domestics, may be found in Peck's *Desiderata Curiosa*. Lord Salisbury was the author of a Treatise against the Papists; and of Notes on Dee's Discourse on the Reformation of the Calendar; and some of his letters, despatches and speeches in parliament have been published.

Cecilia. There are several saints of this name in the Catholic church. The most celebrated, who has been falsely regarded as the inventress of the organ, and who is the patron saint of music, is said to have suffered martyrdom A. D. 220. Her pagan parents, says the legend, betrothed her, contrary to her wishes, to Valerian, a young pagan. But she had internally vowed to the Lord a perpetual virginity; and, whilst the instruments sounded, she sang in her heart only to the Lord (*cantantibus organis, illa in corde suo soli Domino cantabat, dicens*, &c.); that is, she prayed—O Lord, allow my heart and my body to remain unpolluted. As soon as the bridegroom appeared, she forbade his approach, assuring him that an angel of the Lord protected her innocence. The unbelieving Valerian wished to convince himself of this assertion; she referred him

to the bishop Urban, who was concealed among the tombs of the martyrs, and who instructed him in the Christian religion, and baptized him. When he returned to the bride, he saw the protecting angel, who presented them both with crowns of heavenly roses and lilies. Valerian now induced his brother Tubirtus to embrace the Christian faith. The Roman prefect Almachius caused both brothers to be beheaded, as zealous professors of Christianity. Life was to be given to Cecilia if she would sacrifice to the heathen gods. But she remained firm in her belief. Upon this, the tyrant caused her to be shut up in a bath of boiling water, in which she was found, the day after, unhurt. The executioner was then directed to behead her: he inflicted three blows, but was not able to separate the head from the body. She lived for three days, exhorting the faithful and giving alms to the poor. As early as the 5th century, we find a church in Rome dedicated to her. Pope Paschalis, who was very anxious to gather relics, endeavored to discover her body. She appeared to him, as he relates in his letters, while he was sleeping, and pointed out the place of her sepulchre. Paschalis caused the body to be disinterred in 821, and placed it in the church which he rebuilt, where her monument is still to be seen. How Cecilia came to be the patron-saint of music is not agreed. The various opinions, however, seem to be united in this point, that it was either through a misunderstanding, or through an allegorical interpretation of the words above cited from her legend. Her worship, in this character, is very ancient. Among the poets, Chaucer, Dryden in his Alexander's Feast, and Pope, have sung her praises. Raphael, Domenichino, Dolce and Mignard have represented her in celebrated paintings. In the picture of Raphael, she appears as the personification of heavenly devotion. This is, indeed, a heavenly picture.

Cecrops, the founder of Athens, arrived there about 1550 B. C., from Sais, at the mouth of the Nile (this emigration, however, has been questioned by some late writers, e. g. Ottfried Müller), taught the savage inhabitants religion and morals, made them acquainted with the advantages of social life, laid the foundation of the future city of Athens (*Cecropia*), and built 11 other places, whose inhabitants he instructed in agriculture. He also planted the olive, and consecrated it to Minerva, the patron goddess of Athens. He then introduced into his adopted country the art of ship-building, and thus laid the foundation of its commerce. He died after a reign of 50 years. His monument was erected in the temple of Minerva; but, to preserve his memory always fresh in their minds, the people consecrated to him the constellation of Aquarius. (See *Attica*.) The researches which are making among the records of Egyptian history, since the key to their mysterious language has been discovered by the skilfully directed efforts of Young, De Sacy, Zoega, Champollion, and others, will undoubtedly throw great light on the progress of civilization from Egypt to Greece, described in the half mythological, half historical tales of the latter country.

Cecropia. (See *Athens*, vol. i. p. 442.)

Cedar; a name given to several species of juniper, to a species of pine, the cedar of Lebanon, and to the *cupressus thuyoides*. It is an evergreen, and of great durability. The most celebrated kind is the

Cedar-Larch, or *Cedar of Lebanon* (*pinus cedrus*, L.), distinguished, by its strong, ramose branches, from all other trees of the same genus. The general character of the shoot, even when the tree is young, is singularly bold and picturesque, and quite peculiar to the species. The tree is a native of the coldest part of the mountains of Libanus, Amanus and Taurus; but it is not now to be found in those places in great numbers. Maundrell, in his journey from Aleppo to Jerusalem, in 1696, could reckon only 16 large trees, though many small ones. The forest of Libanus seems never to have recovered from the havoc made by Solomon's forty score thousand hewers. Beautiful specimens of this noble tree are to be seen at Witton park, Zion-house, &c., in England, where it seems to have been introduced in 1683, and where, as professor Martyn observes, there are probably, at present, more cedars than in Palestine.

White-Cedar (*cupressus thuyoides*) is a small or middle-sized evergreen, naturally forming an elegant head. Its branches are not pendulous. Its leaves are of a delicate green color. It is a native of North America, China and Cochin China. In the U. States, it occupies large tracts, denominated *cedar-swamps*. The wood is soft, smooth, of an aromatic smell, and internally of a red color. It is permanent in shape, and very durable, and is esteemed as a material for fences. Large quantities of shingles are made of it. It is a favorite material for wooden wares, or the nicer kinds of coopers' work.

Red or *Common Cedar* (*juniperus Vir-*

giniana); a native of North America and the West Indies. It is distinguished by its leaves, growing in threes, and being fixed by their base, the younger ones lying upon each other, and the older ones spreading. The trunk is straight, and knotted by small branches. The heart-wood is of a bright red, smooth, and moderately soft. This wood is in much request for the outsides of black-lead pencils. On account of its powerful fragrance, it is often used for the bottoms of drawers, because it resists the attacks of insects. Some years ago, it was in great esteem for wainscotting and cabinet-work, but has been much neglected since the introduction of mahogany. The name of *savin* is, in some places, improperly applied to this tree. Unlike the white cedar, it grows in the driest and most barren soils. For posts of buildings, it is much in request; but it is difficult to obtain it of large size.

CEFALONIA. (See *Cephalonia.*)

CELÆNO. (See *Harpies.*)

CELEBES; an island in the East Indian sea, of an irregular shape, about 500 miles long, and about 200 broad, called, by the natives and Malays, *Negree Oran Buggess*, and, sometimes, *Tanna Macassar*; square miles, about 90,000. It is divided into six states or kingdoms, viz., Goa, Bony, Wajoo, Sopin, Selindrin and Mandar. Goa extends a considerable way along the west and south, and contains, besides Macassar, two Dutch forts, Bontyn and Bulo Cumbo. The government is monarchical, and the king is called *karuang*, and, sometimes, *rajah Goa*.—Bony, or Pony, is E. of Goa, entirely under the influence of the Dutch, and is governed by a prince, called *pajong*, who is elected for life by seven *orancayos*, or nobles.—Wajoo, or Warjoo, or Tuadjoo, is situated N. of Bony, and is governed by a prince elected for life by the *orancayos*.—Sopin is situated in the centre of the island, towards the eastern side, to the E. of Bon.—Selindrin is of small consideration, and is N. W. of Sopin.—Mandar lies on the W. and N. W. coast. The inhabitants are Mohammedans.—The heat of this island would be excessive if it were not moderated by abundant rains. The trees are always green; fruit and flowers grow in all seasons; jasmines, roses, carnations, and other beautiful flowers, grow without culture; orange-trees and citrons shade the ground, with mangoes, bananas, and other fruits. Cotton-trees cover the extensive plains. It produces no spice except pepper. The inhabitants raise a great number of cattle: the oxen are larger than those of Europe. In the forests are large herds of deer, wild hogs, and a great variety of monkeys, large and ferocious; some with tails, and some without; some walking upon four legs, others upon two. The principal articles which the Dutch obtain from this island are rice, gold, ivory, deals and sandal wood; cotton, camphor, ginger, long pepper and pearls. The Dutch are said to have had 370 towns and villages under their control. Their principal settlement is at Macassar. Lat. 2° N. to 5° 40′ S.; lon. 118° 40′ to 124° 15′ E.

CELESTINE. Two popes of this name are saints. The first was elected pope Nov. 3, 422, and followed Boniface I. There is a decretal letter of this pope extant, directed to the bishops of Vienna and Narbonne, prohibiting the bishops from wearing a dress distinguishing them from the people, and forbidding the choice of strangers for bishops, to the displeasure of their flocks. The consent of the people, of the clergy, and of the magistrate, he says, is necessary to a choice. He died April 6, 432. His letters are preserved in the collection of D. Constant, folio, and in the collection of the councils.—Celestine V was also a saint. He was chosen pope July 5, 1294, before which time he was called *Peter of Murrhone*. He lived as a hermit on Monte di Magella, in continual fasting and penance, and was entirely unfit for the papal chair, on account of his utter ignorance of business and of the world. He never would have been chosen, had not the papal chair been vacant for 27 months, on account of the cardinals being divided into two parties. When Celestine entered Aquila, he rode on an ass, led by two kings. He soon found the burden of business too heavy, and abdicated his dignity Dec. 13, 1294. Boniface VIII succeeded him, and kept him prisoner till his death, May 19, 1296. The greatest simplicity marks the government of this pope. He is the founder of the Celestines. (q. v.)

CELESTINES (from their founder, pope Celestine V, q. v.), the hermits of St. Damian, a religious order, instituted about the middle of the 13th century, in Italy, followed the rule of St. Benedict (q. v.), wore white garments with black capes and scapularies, and were devoted entirely to a contemplative life. In the beginning of the 18th century, the order was diminished to the number of 96 monasteries in Italy, and 21 in France. This society of gloomy monks appears recently to have become still smaller. In France, it no longer exists.

CELIBACY [written by a Catholic]. One of the sublime ideas of the Catholic church is its veneration of chastity. This places Christianity in the most striking opposition to the sensual religions of the pagan world. Whilst the pagans lowered their gods to the human standard, Christianity directed men's views to heaven, and idealized human nature. St. Paul (1 *Cor.* 7) recommends virginity, without condemning matrimony. The Catholic church respects matrimonial chastity, but esteems virginity a higher virtue, as a sacrifice of the pleasures of this life to purity of soul, as the victory of the moral nature over the physical. With these sublime views of this virtue, it is not wonderful that it was required of the priests, who officiate in the high mystery of the eucharist. From the time of the apostles, it became a custom in the church for bishops, priests and deacons to renounce the joys of matrimonial love at their consecration, and to devote themselves entirely to the duties of their office. One point only was disputed, whether clergymen were to be merely prohibited from marrying, or whether even those who were married before their consecration, should be required to separate themselves from their wives. At the general council of Nice, several bishops proposed that the bishops, priests and deacons, who had received the holy consecration, should be directed, by an express ordinance, to give up their wives. But Paphnutius, bishop of Upper Thebais, contended that cohabitation with a wife was a state of chastity. It was sufficient, he said, according to the ancient traditions of the church, that clergymen should not be permitted to marry; but he who had been married before his consecration ought by no means to be separated from his lawful wife. As it became the general opinion, that a clergyman could not marry, it soon became the general practice to refuse consecration to married men. By this means, uniformity was effected. As for the bishops, it soon became a matter beyond dispute. After the institution of monachism had become firmly established, and the monks were regarded with veneration, on account of their vow of perpetual chastity, public opinion exacted from the secular clergy the same observance of celibacy. The holy father Epiphanius assures us that, by the ecclesiastical laws, celibacy was commanded, and that, wherever this command was neglected, it was a corruption of the church. The particular council of Elvira commanded all bishops, presbyters, deacons and subdeacons to abstain from their wives, under penalty of exclusion from the clergy. In the Western church, celibacy was rigorously required. Pope Cyricius, at the end of the 4th century, forbade the clergy to marry, or to cohabit with their wives, if already married. At the same time, the monks received consecration, which increased the conformity between them and the secular clergy still further, and indirectly obliged the latter to observe celibacy. Several popes and particular councils repeated this injunction. The emperor Justinian declared all children of clergymen illegitimate, and incapable of any hereditary succession or inheritance. The council of Tours, in 566, issued a decree against married monks and nuns, declaring that they should be publicly excommunicated, and their marriage formally dissolved. Seculars, deacons and subdeacons, who were found to dwell with their wives, were interdicted the exercise of spiritual functions for the course of a year. In Spain, the bishops were ordered to enforce celibacy upon their abbots, deacons, &c., once a year, in their sermons; for, in that country, many priests, formerly Arians, and newly-converted, refused to give up their wives, conformably to the requisitions of the Catholic church. As in other points, in this, also, the Greek church dissented from the Roman. The (Trullan) council of Constantinople, in 692, in its 13th canon, declares, "Having heard that the Roman church has ordered the priests and deacons to relinquish their lawful wives, we, assembled in this council, hereby decree, that priests and deacons, according to the ancient custom of the church, and the institution of the holy apostles, may live with their wives like the laity. We hereby forbid any one to refuse the consecration of a priest or deacon on account of his being married, and cohabiting with his wife, after he has requested consecration. We will by no means be unjust to marriage, nor separate what God has united." These regulations are still in force in the Greek church; and, while celibacy is required of the bishops and monks; priests and deacons, if married before consecration, are allowed to continue in the state of matrimony. This is not a reason for saying that the *Roman* church introduced celibacy; she has only retained it, as an old apostolical tradition, to which she has added the rule, not to consecrate married men, unless the wife enter a religious order. As no one has a right to demand to be consecrated a priest, the Roman church has, by this addition, violated no one's right. The West-

ern church had new reasons for enjoining celibacy, when the system of benefices began to be organized. At first, the officers of the church lived on the voluntary gifts of the faithful. When the church acquired wealth, lands and tithes, the revenue and estates of all the churches belonging to the diocese of a bishop were considered as one whole, the administration and distribution of which depended on the bishop. But, in the seventh, eighth and ninth centuries, a particular sum was taken from the common stock for each officer, the bishop not excepted. This constitution of the church was similar to that of the state, in which feudatories performed military and other services, in consideration of the usufruct of certain lands. Even the name was the same. The possessions of the feudatories were called *benefices*, as well as those of the clergy. If the clerical benefices and employments had become hereditary, as was the case with the lay benefices, we should have seen a hereditary ecclesiastical caste, similar to that of the nobility, which has been transmitted to us from the middle ages, as a caste of warriors and civil officers. We should have seen hereditary priests, hereditary bishops, and a hereditary pope. The ruinous consequences, moral and political, which would have resulted from such a state of things, are easily conceived. All the feelings and principles of a pure and divine religion would have disappeared in such an empire of priests. The most absolute despotism would have been established over the nations, and every attempt of the commons to attain a higher stand in political society would have been frustrated. When the canons in Wales afterwards abandoned celibacy, it was soon observed, that they had succeeded in making their benefices hereditary, by intermarriages between their sons and daughters. The fate of Wales would have been that of all the Christian nations of the West, if the marriage of priests had been allowed. Whilst, however, the church persevered in commanding celibacy, she had to struggle with the opposition of a corrupt clergy. The council of Narbonne, in 791, forbade the clergy to have any females living with them, even such as former rules had permitted. The same was ordered by the council of Mentz, 888. By the council of Augsburg, every clergyman was forbidden, under penalty of dismission, either to marry, or to cohabit with his wife, if already married, or to retain female companions who had been introduced under the name of *sisters* (*subintroductas*); and the bishop was authorized, when suspicious women were found in the houses of clergymen, to drive them out with whips, and cut off their hair. In the council of Canterbury, king Edgar himself delivered a speech on the scandalous life of the clergy, whose houses, as he said, might well be considered as brothels. Soon afterwards, a great number of canons and priests were dismissed, whose places were given to monks. In the council at Erham, in 1009, the clergy were directed anew to dismiss their wives. To those who abstained, it was even promised, that they should be treated like nobles by birth. Leo IX ordered that women at Rome, transgressing with priests, should be slaves in the Lateran for life. Adalbert, archbishop of Hamburg, excommunicated the concubines of priests, and had them ignominiously turned out of the city. Pope Victor II dismissed several bishops on account of their irregularities. Notwithstanding all such prohibitions, it appeared impossible to maintain the law of celibacy in force. In 1061, the Lombard bishops, most of whom had concubines, themselves elected Nodolaus, bishop of Parma, afterwards Honorius II, antipope, merely because he did not live in celibacy; and it was, therefore, hoped that he would not insist on the observance of the prohibitory law. Add to this, that most of these clergymen, living with concubines, in violation of canonical laws, obtained their places by simony, and you have a true picture of the church in those days. The necessity was urgent that a reformer of the church should arise. He appeared in Gregory VII, who, like all men of great genius, has a right to be judged in reference to the spirit of his age. In order to reform the corrupted discipline of the church, he was obliged to encounter the simony and licentiousness of the clergy. The former he checked by opposing the emperor's right of investiture, and enforced the laws of celibacy by new regulations. In the council of 1074, at Rome, he ordered that all married clergymen, and all laymen who should confess to them, hear mass of them, or be present at any divine service performed by them, should be excommunicated. When the bishop of Coire began to read this decree to the synod in Mentz, the clergy assailed him with reproaches and blows, so that he narrowly escaped with his life. They declared that they did not pretend to be angels, and would rather give up their priesthood than their wives. Gregory, nevertheless, succeeded, as he was supported by the most ancient and most undoubted canons. After

Gregory's decease, the church continued in the same course. The prohibitions were repeated, as well as the rules of caution concerning domestic life. Yet transgressions of this hard commandment were very frequent, particularly in the 15th and 16th centuries. In Petrarca's works are many complaints of the licentiousness of the clergy at the pope's court in Avignon, where Petrarca lived for some time. In the accounts of the council of Basle, it is stated that many cardinals present there lived openly with their concubines. In one of the chronicles of the mark of Brandenburg, we are informed that, at a feast, a question arose whether the bishop's concubine should precede the other ladies or not.* The reformation followed. It recognised no sacrificing priests; virginity was esteemed no higher than conjugal fidelity; vows of chastity were considered no longer obligatory; and, as the Protestant clergy were subject either to the state or the religious communities, it was no longer to be feared that they would, by their own authority, make the benefices hereditary. Luther did not at first go the whole length of these changes. He thought the prohibition of matrimony unjust; yet he believed that the monks, who were bound to celibacy by their vows, ought to observe them. He wrote to Spalatin, Aug. 6, 1521, "Our Wittenbergians intend, too, to give wives to the monks; but I shall not suffer myself to have one forced upon me." Bartholomew Bernhardi, a monk, head of the religious establishment of Kemberg, was the first of the clergy who married (in 1521), and most of the Lutheran divines imitated him. When the papal legate, cardinal Campeggio, recommended the punishment of the married priests, this only widened the breach between the old and new church. Luther declared, in 1524, that he was not made of wood and stone, and, in 1525, married the nun, the consecrated virgin, Catharine von Bora. (q. v.) Celibacy was the weak side of the Catholic church, as many divines went over to the reformed church under pretence of a change in their religious sentiments, but, in reality, to be enabled to marry. The reformed princes offered their clergy the alternative, either to marry their concubines, or to put them away. The latter supposed a self-denial, which could not be expected from one who had lived in concubinage, and a change of religion was the necessary consequence of marriage. Some Catholics wished this weak spot in their church to be removed. At the council of Salzburg, in 1562, the bishops deliberated what measures ought to be proposed at the council of Trent, and resolved to vote for the marriage of the clergy. The duke of Bavaria likewise insisted upon the marriage of the priests. The emperor, the electors, and many other princes, directed their envoys to demand it. The king of France also desired the marriage of the clergy, or, at least, a maturer age for consecration. But the majority at Trent (sess. 24, can. 9) decided for celibacy, observing that God would grant the prayers of those who prayed earnestly for chastity, and would not suffer them to be tempted beyond their strength. The provisions, in regard to celibacy, are as follows:—The clergy of the Greek church, who were married before their consecration, are allowed to continue in a state of matrimony. The priest, however, must abstain from his wife three days before every celebration of the mass. Of the Roman clergy absolute celibacy is required; yet the four lower orders are permitted, on giving up their benefices, to quit the clerical profession, and to marry. But, from the subdeacons upwards, celibacy is commanded absolutely; except that the pope may give permission to retire from the clerical office, and, in consequence, to marry. The penalties for transgressing the rules of celibacy are numerous. The wife must be dismissed, and penance undergone for the offence. The offender is forbidden to perform the ecclesiastical functions belonging to his degree, and cannot receive the higher consecration, as he becomes what is called *irregular*. Yet, after penance, this irregularity may be removed by dispensation from the bishop. Finally, he becomes excommunicated by the very act of his marriage, and must, on this account, also, have recourse to the bishop, to be received again into the communion. In Germany, by the terms of the peace of Westphalia, a Catholic clergyman who marries loses his benefice and his rank in the church, without loss of reputation, however, if his marriage be only a previous step to his adoption of the Protestant faith. Persons already married can be consecrated as clergymen only on condition of their taking a vow of chastity, to which the wife has given her consent. She must also enter some religious order. The rule of celibacy has been more strict-

* In Abbot's Letters from Cuba (Boston, 1829, p. 15), it is stated, that most of the priests on that island have families, and speak of their children without scruple, and will sometimes even reason on the subject, and defend the practice. The case is much the same in a great part of South America.

ly observed in the Catholic church since the reformation than it was before. One reason of this is, that many incontinent clergymen have left the Catholic church, and entered into one which allowed them to marry. Another reason is, that the Protestant reformation aroused the attention of the Catholic church to the necessity of a reform in its own body, and the observance of a stricter discipline. Hence few such public scandals have occurred as in former times, and transgression has been followed by immediate punishment. Yet it is not to be denied, that the rule of celibacy is often violated. Such transgressions are to be expected, particularly at a time when education and so many other circumstances tend to increase the influence of luxury; yet the far greater part of the Catholic clergy respect the rule of celibacy at the present day. Among the reasons against requiring celibacy in the clergy, is the increasing scarcity of men willing to devote themselves to a profession which requires such strict self-denial.

[The foregoing article, written by a Catholic, presents the views entertained on the subject of celibacy by the members of that communion. To those not educated in that church, it appears exceedingly difficult to comprehend why a rule of life not enjoined by any express command or divine law, and which contravenes the dictates of nature and the obligations of society, should be regarded as of such importance to the excellence of the priesthood. That it would attach them more devotedly to the secular interests of the church, there can be no doubt; but that they would be as capable of ministering to the spiritual necessities of the people as those who are experienced in the feelings of the people, through their social connexions, we should find it very difficult to believe.]

Cell; generally employed to designate an apartment used as a storehouse for wines, &c., and commonly under ground. The same term has various applications under different circumstances. Thus *cella* was used, by the Roman poets, to signify the lodge or habitation of common prostitutes, these being anciently under ground (see *Juvenal*, sat. vi, ver. 121), having the names of the inmates over the doors. The name of *cell* was also used for the lodgings of servants, among the Romans; for the apartments of the public baths; for the *adyta* or inmost and most retired parts of the temples, where the images of the gods were preserved. The term *cell* was also applied to a lesser or subordinate minster, dependent upon a greater, by which it was erected and under whose government it remained. The great ancient English abbeys had generally such cells in distant places, which were accountable to, and received their superiors from them. The apartments or private dormitories of monks and nuns are also called *cells*.—In technology, the term *cell* is employed very frequently to signify any small compartment into which substances are divided; thus the hexagonal chambers of the honey-comb are called *cells*, as in botany the cavities, separated by partitions in the pods, husks or seed-vessels of plants, which are said to be *unilocular*, *bilocular*, *trilocular*, &c., according to the number of cells.—In anatomy, it is applied to various small cavities, such as the air-cells, or pulmonary vesicles, the adipose cells, or spaces in the membrane which retains the fat, &c. The loose, inflatable texture, which unites and surrounds all the parts and organs of the body, has the name of *cellular*, from its being made up of a succession of these little membranous interstices.

Cellamare (Antonio Giudice, duke of Giovenazzo), prince of, born at Naples, 1657, and educated at the court of Charles II of Spain, made several campaigns, and was in the Spanish service during the greater part of the war of the Spanish succession, till he fell into the hands of the imperialists, in 1707, who kept him prisoner in Milan till 1712, when he was exchanged. On his return to Spain, he was made a cabinet minister, and, in 1715, ambassador extraordinary to the French court. Here he became the chief instrument of the designs of Alberoni, and the soul of a conspiracy against the regent, Philip of Orleans. A plot was formed for arresting the regent at a festival, calling together the states-general of the kingdom, and declaring Philip V regent, who, having thus become master of Spain and France, would have made the rest of Europe tremble. Cellamare was only waiting for further orders from his court, when the plan was discovered, and his letters, having been intercepted, revealed the parties engaged in the conspiracy. He was arrested, and conducted, under an escort, to the Spanish frontiers. The court of Madrid made him captain-general of Old Castile. He died at Seville, in 1733.

Cellarius, Christopher, one of the most learned philologists of the 17th century, was born in 1638. After he had

studied at several German universities, he taught moral philosophy and the Oriental languages at Weissenfels. In 1673, he was made rector of the school at Weimar, and afterwards of the seminaries at Zeitz and Merseburg, and, finally, professor of eloquence and history at Halle, where he died in 1707. He published a great number of ancient authors, with learned annotations and very accurate indexes, as, for instance, the letters of Cicero and of Pliny, Cornelius Nepos, Curtius, Eutropius, Sextus Rufus, Velleius Paterculus, the 12 ancient panegyrists, Minucius Felix, Silius Italicus, &c. His own compositions relate to ancient history and geography, Roman antiquities, and the Latin language.

Cellini, Benvenuto; a sculptor, engraver and goldsmith; born at Florence, in 1500, where he died in 1570; distinguished particularly by his works in gold and silver, which have become very rare, and are sold at present at immense prices. Of a bold, honest and open character, but vain and quarrelsome, and impatient of encroachment and dependence, he was often entangled in quarrels, which frequently cost his antagonists their lives. He himself incurred great dangers, was put into prison, and was saved only by his boldness and the powerful protectors whom his talents as an artist procured him. At the siege of Rome (if we believe his own account, given in his autobiography), he killed, with one cannon shot, the constable of Bourbon, and, with another, the prince of Orange. He was afterwards imprisoned on the charge of having stolen the jewels of the papal crown, which were intrusted to him during the siege, and was released only by the interference of Francis I, whose court he visited, and executed there several works. He afterwards returned to Florence, and, under the patronage of Cosmo, made a Perseus with the head of Medusa, in bronze, which is still an ornament of the market-place; also a statue of Christ, in the chapel of the Pitti palace, besides many excellent dies for coins and medals. In his 58th year, he wrote his own life in Latin, with equal candor and vanity. It has been translated, in a masterly manner, by Göthe, into German. There is also an English translation by doctor Nugent, 1771; new edition by Thomas Roscoe, 1822. It contains striking descriptions of Cellini's own adventures, and of the characters of the persons with whom he came in contact. Among his other writings, the most important are *Due Trattati, uno intorno alle otto principali Arti dell' Oreficeria, l'altro in Materia dell' Arte della Scoltura* (best edition, 1731). His style is free, strong and original, and the academy della Crusca often quotes him as a classic.

Cellular Substance, or Cellular Membrane (*tela cellulosa* or *mucosa* of Latin writers), is the medium which connects and supports all the various parts and structures of the body. Any person may gain a general notion of this substance by observing it in joints of veal, when it is inflated by the butchers. It consists of an assemblage of fibres and *laminæ* of animal matter, connected with each other so as to form innumerable cells or small cavities, from which its name of *cellular* is derived. It pervades every part of the animal structure. By joining together the minute fibrils of muscle, tendon or nerve, it forms obvious and visible fibres. It collects these fibres into large *fasciculi*, and, by joining such *fasciculi*, or bundles, to each other, constitutes an entire muscle, tendon or nerve. It joins together the individual muscles, and is collected in their intervals. It surrounds each vessel and nerve in the body, often connecting these parts together by a firm kind of capsule, and, in a looser form, joining them to the neighboring muscles, &c. When condensed into a firm and compact structure, it constitutes the various membranes of the body, which, by long maceration in water, may be resolved into a loose, cellular texture. In the bones, it forms the basis or ground-work of their fabric, a receptacle, in the interstices of which the earth of bone is deposited. As cellular substance is entirely soluble in boiling water, it is considered, by chemists, as that peculiar modification of animal matter termed *gelatine*. In consequence of its solution by the united agencies of heat and moisture, the muscular fibres separate from each other, and form the other structures of the body. This effect is seen in meat which is subjected to long boiling or stewing for the table, or, indeed, in a joint which is merely over-boiled. It forms a connexion and passage between all parts of the body, however remote in situation or dissimilar in structure; for the cells of this substance every where communicate, as we may collect from facts of the most common and familiar occurrence. In emphysema, where air escapes from the lungs wounded by a broken rib into the cellular substance, it spreads rapidly from the chest into the most remote parts of the body, and has even been known to gain admission into the eye-ball. A simi-

lar diffusion of this fluid may be effected by artificial inflation.

Celsus, Aurelius Cornelius, lived, probably, under the reign of Augustus. He has been called the *Roman Hippocrates*, because he imitated the Greek physician, and introduced the Hippocratic system into Rome. He also wrote on rhetoric, the art of war and agriculture. He is, however, best known as a medical writer. His style is elegant, concise, and, nevertheless, very clear. His work on medicine is an inexhaustible source, from which other good authors have drawn materials for writings, both medical and surgical. He has furnished subsequent writers with a multitude of authorities for the support of their different theories, but has suffered much arbitrary interpretation. Hippocrates and Asclepiades are the two authors whom he has followed most. More than 59 editions of his 8 books *De Medicina* had appeared in 1785; the first at Florence, 1478, fol.: the best is by Krause, Leipsic, 1766: that of Targa was printed at Padua, 1769, 4to., and one at Verona, 1810, 4to.

Celtæ (they called themselves, also, *Gael*, or *Gales;* see *Gael*); one of the four chief nations which inhabited Gallia. Their territory extended from the extreme point of Brittany to the Rhine and the Alps. The Romans, therefore, called the whole country *Celtica*, or *Galatia*. They left Asia at some distant period, and, at the time of Tarquinius Priscus, came, under Bellovesus, to Upper Italy, and large numbers of them spread over several countries of Europe. In Spain, they became mingled with the Iberians, whom they conquered. Internal wars weakened them; and commerce with the Romans, and with the people of Marseilles, made them more civilized. The Italian Celtæ were subjected, 220 B. C., by the Romans. The Boii united themselves with the Helvetii; the Illyrian Celtæ with the Illyrians. Their government was aristocratical. The nobles formed a national assembly. The commons were regarded as little better than slaves. They were large, and of great bodily strength, impetuous in their attacks, but not well able to endure hardships. A huge sword, generally of copper, was their chief weapon. Their priests, the Druids (q. v.), enjoyed the greatest authority.

Celtes, Conrad; born, in 1459, at Protuch, in Franconia. His original name was *Meissel*, which he changed into *Celtes Protucius*. He ran away from his parents, and studied in Cologne. In 1484 and 1485, he studied under the tuition of Rodolph Agricola, at Heidelberg, and became a philologist and Latin poet. He then travelled to Italy, where he attended the lectures of the most learned teachers of his time. On his return through Illyria, Hungary and Poland, he was taught astronomy and astrology by Albertus Brutus, and met with the most favorable reception at the German courts. In Nuremburg, he was crowned by the emperor Frederic III (1491), on account of the reputation which he had acquired by his Latin poems, being the first German poet who received this honor. He afterwards travelled for 10 years, visiting all the universities in Germany, and found, at length, a resting-place in Vienna, where Maximilian I appointed him, in 1501, professor of poetry and rhetoric, and president of the faculty established for the study of classical antiquities. He left a history and description of Nuremburg, a poem on the situation and manners of Germany, several philosophical, rhetorical and biographical works, and a number of poems. He considered the study of languages, not, like other philologists of his time, as an object of pursuit in itself, but only as a means for obtaining an acquaintance with those sciences which have a more immediate bearing on the business of life, among which he placed history and geography first. His plan for a great literary society (*sodalitas Celtica*), for which he had already obtained grants of privileges from the emperor, was interrupted by his death in 1508. Only the Rhenish society, which he founded in Heidelberg, outlived him.

Celtiberi, or Celtiberians; inhabitants of Celtiberia, a country along the Iberus, in the north-east part of Spain. They formed the most numerous tribe in Spain, and originated from Iberians mixed with Celts. They were brave, and their *cuneus* was formidable even to the Romans. They despised agriculture. After a long resistance to the Romans, they were, at last, in the Sertorian war, subjected to their sovereignty, adopted their manners, language, dress, &c. They were divided into six tribes—the Bellones, Arevaci, Peleudones, north of the Durius; and the Lusones, Belli and Ditthi, more to the south.

Cementation; a chemical process, in which a metal (and often other bodies) is placed in connexion with other substances, often in layers (*stratum super stratum*), in close vessels, that the former may be separated from its combinations, or changed (frequently oxydated), at a high tempera-

ture. The substance with which the metal or other body is surrounded is called *cement-powder*. In cementing gold, the alloy is beaten into thin plates, and placed in alternate layers, with a cement containing nitrate of potass and sulphate of iron. The whole is then exposed to heat, until a great part of the alloying metals are removed by the action of the nitric acid liberated by the nitre. Iron is cemented with charcoal-powder and other substances, and thereby converted into steel. Glass is changed, by cementation with gypsum, into Réaumur's porcelain. Copper is cemented with a powder of calamine and charcoal, and thereby converted into brass. The copper obtained from the sulphate of copper, by precipitation with iron, is called *cement-copper*.

CEMENTS. The substances used for producing cohesion between different materials are very various. They are mostly, however, soft or semi-fluid, and harden in the course of time. The number employed is very great. We can mention only a few. The joints of iron pipes, and the flanges of steam-engines, are cemented with a mixture composed of sulphur and muriate of ammonia, together with a large quantity of iron chippings. The putty of glaziers is a mixture of linseed oil and powdered chalk. Plaster of Paris, dried by heat, and mixed with water, or with rosin and wax, is used for uniting pieces of marble. A cement composed of brick-dust and rosin, or pitch, is employed by turners, and some other mechanics, to confine the material on which they are working. Common paint, made of white lead and oil, is used to cement China-ware. So also are resinous substances, such as mastic and shell lac, or isinglass dissolved in proof-spirit or water. The paste of book-binders and paper-hangers is made by boiling flour. Rice-glue is made by boiling ground rice in soft water to the consistence of a thin jelly. Wafers are made of flour, isinglass, yeast and white of eggs, dried in thin layers upon tin plates, and cut by a circular instrument. They are colored by red-lead, &c. Sealing-wax is composed of shell lac and rosin, and is commonly colored with vermilion. Common glue is most usually employed for uniting wood, and similar porous substances. It does not answer for surfaces not porous, such as those of the metals, and is not durable if exposed to water. The cements mostly used in building are composed of lime and sand. Lime is procured by burning substances in which it exists in combination with carbonic acid, such as limestone, marbles, chalk and shells. By this process, the carbonic acid is driven off, and quicklime is obtained. The quicklime is slaked by mixture with water, after which it swells and cracks, becomes hot, and assumes the form of a white and impalpable powder. This is a hydrate of lime, and contains about three parts of lime to one of water. When intended for mortar, it should be immediately mixed with sand, and used without delay, before it imbibes carbonic acid anew from the atmosphere. The lime adheres to and unites the particles of the sand. Cements thus made increase in strength and solidity for an indefinite period. Fresh sand, wholly silicious and sharp, is the best. That taken from the sea-shore is unfit for making mortar, as the salt is apt to deliquesce and weaken the mortar. The amount of sand is always greater than that of the lime. From two to four parts of sand are used, according to the quality of the lime and the labor bestowed on it. Water cements, called also *Roman cements*, harden under water, and consolidate almost immediately on being mixed. Common mortar dissolves or crumbles away if laid under water before it has had time to harden; but certain rocks, which have an argillaceous as well as a silicious character, communicate to lime or mortar the property of hardening in a very few minutes, both in and out of water. The ancient Romans, in making their water cements, employed a peculiar earth, obtained at the town of Puteoli. This they called *pulvis Puteolanus*. It is the same that is now called *Puzzolana*. It is evidently of volcanic origin. The Dutch, in their great aquatic structures, have mostly employed a substance denominated *tarras*, *terras*, or *trass*, found near Andernach, in the vicinity of the Rhine. It is said to be a kind of decomposed basalt, but resembles Puzzolana. It is very durable in water, but inferior to the other kinds in the open air. Baked clay and the common greenstone afford the basis of very tolerable water cements, when mixed with lime. Some of the ores of manganese may be used for the same purpose. Some limestones, calcined and mixed with sand and water, also afford water cements, usually in consequence of containing some argillaceous earth. Some cements, of great hardness and permanency, have been obtained from mixtures, into which animal and vegetable substances enter, such as oil, milk, mucilage, &c. The name of *maltha* or *mastic* is given them. They are not much used.

CEMETERY. In the article *Burying-Ground*, we have given the history of the custom of interring the dead, and shall only mention, in this place, two cemeteries, perhaps the most interesting which ever existed. One of them is the common place of burial of the ancient Egyptians, which was situated beyond the lake Acherusia, or Acharejish, the name of which signified the last condition of man, and which probably is the foundation of the Greek fables respecting lake Acheron. On the borders of lake Acherusia, a tribunal, composed of 42 judges, was established, to inquire into the life and character of the deceased. Without this examination, a corpse could not be carried to the cemetery beyond the lake. If the deceased had died insolvent, the court adjudged the corpse to his creditors, in order to oblige his relations and friends to redeem it. If his life had been wicked, they refused his body the privilege of solemn burial, and it was consequently carried and thrown into a large ditch made for the purpose, which received the appellation of *Tartar*, on account of the lamentations which this sentence produced among the surviving friends and relations. The Greek *Tartarus* had its origin in this Egyptian Tartar. If no accuser appeared, or the accusations were found groundless, the judges decreed the regular burial, and the eulogium of the deceased was pronounced amongst the applauses of the bystanders. In this, his talents, virtues, accomplishments, every thing except his rank and riches, were praised. To carry the corpse to the cemetery, it was necessary to cross the lake, and to pay a small sum for the passage. This circumstance also was transplanted into the Greek mythology. The cemetery was a large plain, surrounded by trees, and intersected by canals, to which was given the appellation *Elisout*, or *Elisiæns*, meaning *rest*. Every one recognises, in this description, the Greek Charon, his boat, his ferry-money, and the Elysian fields. The whole ceremony of interment seems to have consisted in depositing the mummy in the excavation made in the rock, or under the sand which covered the whole *Elisout:* then it seems that the relations of the deceased threw three handfuls of sand, as a sign to the workmen to fill up the cavity, after uttering three loud farewells. (See *Lectures on Hieroglyphics and Egyptian Antiquities*, by the marquis Spineto, London, 1829.)—Another cemetery of great interest is that of Père Lachaise (see *Lachaise*), in the north-west part of Paris, not far from the *barrière des Amandiers*. This city of the dead has a superficies of more than 51 *arpents*, and contains a great variety of tombs, some of a touching simplicity, with the marks of unaffected grief, while others remind us of the words of St. Augustine: "*Curatio funeris, conditio sepulturæ, pompa exequiarum, magis vivorum solatia quam subsidia mortuorum.*" Columns, obelisks, pyramids, funeral vases, monuments of all kinds, and flowers, cover this cemetery, but point out a few only of those who rest in this last abode of many generations. Here repose Heloise and Abelard, the conqueror of Esslingen, Delille, Molière, La Fontaine and Foy, amid a crowd of philosophers, artists, warriors, politicians, and individuals from the ordinary walks of life. From this place you look down on the bustle of the gayest city in the world. A chapel in the burying-ground affords the finest view of Paris.

CENCI, Beatrice, called the *beautiful parricide*, was the cause of the extermination of the noble family of Cenci. Muratori, in his Annals (vol. 10, pt. 1, 136), relates the story as follows: Francesco Cenci, a noble and wealthy Roman, after his second marriage, conducted towards the children of his first marriage in the most shocking manner, procured the assassination of two of his sons, on their return from Spain, by banditti, and, what is still more horrid, seduced and debauched his youngest daughter, a maiden of singular beauty. Beatrice discovered this shocking crime to her relatives, and even sought to obtain protection from pope Clement. It appears, however, that this was not granted; for, when the guilty father continued his former treatment, with aggravated wickedness, she joined with her brother Giacomo, and procured the death of the monster, by two assassins, as he slept. The guilty parties were discovered, confessed the murder on the rack, and were condemned by the pope to be torn to pieces by horses. In vain did the learned Farinaceus (celebrated for his *Quæstiones*) exert himself to obtain a mitigation of their punishment by a lively representation of the depravity of the deceased. According to other accounts, Beatrice and her relatives appear to have had little or no share in the murder of the old Cenci; but a tissue of villany and baseness gained belief to the false testimony of two banditti against the Cenci family. So much is certain, that, Sept. 11, 1599, Beatrice Cenci and her sister were executed with a sort of guillotine, called *mannaia*. Giacomo was killed with a club; the younger broth-

er was pardoned on account of his youth; but the estates of the family, to which belonged the villa Borghese, since so famed for its treasures of art, were confiscated, and presented by the reigning pope, Paul V, of the house of Borghese, to his family. In the palace of Colonna, at Rome, travellers are shown an excellent painting, said to be by Guido Reni, as the portrait of the unfortunate parricide; and this charming picture of the beautiful girl has been the means of spreading over all Europe the tale of horror connected with it.

Cenis, Mount; a mountain belonging to the Alps, in the county of Maurienne, in Savoy. Its height is stated to be 8670 feet above the level of the sea. It is famous for the road which leads over it from Savoy to Piedmont. (See *Alps, Roads over.*) On the mountain is a plain, called *Madeleino*, and a lake, with an hospital, called *La Ramasse.* The lake contains trouts of 16 pounds weight. This plain is surrounded by higher peaks covered with snow. (See *Alps.*) Benvenuto Cellini's journey over the Alps, in the 16th century, Evelyn's, in the 17th, lady Mary Wortley's and Horace Walpole's, in the 18th, are all interesting; but the danger has been removed by Napoleon's road.

Cenobite. (See *Anchoret*, and *Monastery.*)

Cenotaph (from the Greek Κενοτάφιον, called also Κενήριον); a monument erected in honor of a deceased person, but not containing his body, as is implied from the terms κενὸς, empty, and τάφος, a tomb. Some of these monuments were erected in honor of persons buried elsewhere, others for persons whose bodies were not interred. The ancients believed that, when the body was not buried, the soul could not be admitted into the abodes of the blessed. When a body could not be found, it was supposed that some rest was afforded to the sufferer by erecting him a cenotaph, and calling out his name three times with a loud voice. Such monuments were distinguished by a particular sign, usually a piece of a shipwrecked vessel, to denote the death of the deceased in a foreign land. The Pythagoreans erected cenotaphs to those who had quitted their sect, as if they were actually dead.

Censors were magistrates at Rome, who kept a register of the number of the people and of their fortune, and (from 442 B. C.) regulated the taxes. At the same time, they watched over the manners of the citizens. They were chosen every fifth year. This institution, at the period of simple manners in which it was founded, may have been beneficial, but is wholly inconsistent with our ideas of individual liberty. In the different governments of Europe, censors are persons appointed by the government to administer the censorship of the press. (q. v.)

Censorship of Books. (See *Books, Censorship of.*)

Census; with the Romans, one of the most important institutions of the state, and the foundation of its future greatness It was introduced by king Servius Tullius, B. C. 577. All Roman citizens, both in the city and in the country, were obliged to report the amount of their property, the number of their children, slaves, &c., under penalty of losing their property and their liberty. According to the statement thus given in, Servius Tullius divided the citizens into six classes, and those again into centuries. (q. v.) The first class consisted of those whose fortunes amounted respectively to at least 100,000 *asses* or pounds of copper. The property of the second was at least 75,000; that of the third, 50,000; that of the fourth, 25,000; of the fifth, 11,000 *asses:* all the rest belonged to the sixth class. (See *As.*) Each class had a particular kind of arms, a particular post in the army, &c. This division produced the most important consequences for Rome. At an earlier period, the poor citizens were obliged to pay the same taxes, and render the same services in war, as the rich; and the most important branches of the public administration were in the hands of the ignorant and passionate mob. The heaviest burdens in war and in peace were, by this institution, transferred to the rich, and the chief direction of public affairs was placed in the hands of the first class, which contained, according to the rule of division established by Servius Tullius, as many centuries as all the rest. The citizens of the lowest class, who had no property, or very little, were hardly counted as a class, so that the ancient authors often mention only five classes. In the course of time, the original divisions suffered some alterations, but the institution remained essentially the same. This census was repeated every fifth year, at first by the kings, afterwards by the consuls, and, finally, by the censors. At a later period, however, it was not always taken at the fixed time, and was often entirely omitted. After the termination of the census, an expiatory sacrifice was offered, called *suovetaurilia.* —In the U. States, the census has again become an institution of great political importance, as it affords the basis of the

national representation. The constitution (art. 1, sect. 2, 3) says, "Representatives and direct taxes shall be apportioned among the several states which may be included within this union, according to their respective numbers, which shall be determined by adding to the whole number of free persons, including those bound to service for a term of years, and excluding Indians not taxed, three fifths of all other persons. The actual enumeration shall be made within three years after the first meeting of the congress of the U. States, and within every subsepuent term of ten years, in such manner as they shall by law direct," &c. Thus we shall have, in the year 1830, another census, which will be highly interesting, on account of the rapid increase of several of the new states. (For the results of this new census, see the article *United States.*)

Centaurs; an ancient barbarous people in Thessaly, on mount Pelion. According to the fable, they were the children of Centaurus, a son of Apollo, and the mares of Magnesia, or of Ixion and the cloud. (See *Ixion.*) They are said to have been half horse and half man, and the fable is explained in this manner: The Centaurs first practised the art of mounting and managing horses. In the time of the Thessalian king Ixion, a herd of wild bulls on mount Pelion committed great devastations in the adjacent country. Ixion offered a great reward to whoever should destroy them: in consequence of which, the Centaurs trained horses to bear them on their backs, and slew the bulls. Mythology relates the combats of the Centaurs with Hercules, Theseus and Pirithoüs. The latter, at the head of the Lapithæ, another Thessalian nation, their hereditary enemies, entirely defeated them, killed many, and drove them from Pelion. The Centaurs Nessus, Chiron and others are famous in ancient fable. The latter is often mentioned under the name *Centaurus.*

Centaury. There exist two plants of this name, used in medicine: *small centaury* (*chironia centaurium* of Lamarck), indigenous in Europe, growing abundantly every where; and *American centaury* (*chironia angularis* of Willdenow), extensively distributed throughout the United States. Both are annual plants, and esteemed as tonics and febrifuges: the latter, however, is preferred by the American physicians. It is also much used in domestic practice as a prophylactic against autumnal fevers, in strong infusions, in large and repeated doses.

Centiare; a French measure, the hundredth part of an *are* (q. v.); thus, also, according to the new French division of measures and weights, we have *centigramme, centilitre, centime, centimetre,* the hundredth part of a *gramme, litre, franc, metre.* (See *French Decimal System.*)

Centigrade. (See *Thermometer.*)

Centimani. (See *Briareus.*)

Centiped (*scolopendra*, L.); a genus of insects belonging to the order *myriapoda*, C. They are distinguished by having *antennæ* of 14 joints and upwards, a mouth composed of two mandibles, a quadrifid lip, two *palpi*, or small feet, united at their base, and a second lip, formed by a second pair of dilated feet, joined at their origin, and terminated by a strong hook, having an opening beneath its point, through which a poisonous fluid is thrown out. The body is long, depressed and membranous, each ring being covered by a coriaceous or cartilaginous plate, and mostly having one pair of feet: the last is usually thrown backwards, and elongated in form of a tail. These insects are nocturnal and carnivorous, and uniformly endeavor to escape from the light. They conceal themselves under the decayed bark of trees, the decayed timbers of buildings, among stones, lumber and rubbish, whence they sally forth at night in search of prey. The centiped is one of the greatest pests to be encountered in the West India islands, and throughout the hot parts of the American continent. The materials of which the houses are constructed, and the rapid decay to which timber is subject in such climates, afford these noxious insects excellent hiding-places, and they multiply with great rapidity. The utmost vigilance, even in the most cleanly houses, is necessary to prevent these creatures from finding their way into the beds, which they often do notwithstanding all the care that is taken to prevent them. They always attempt to escape when a light is brought into the room. They run with considerable swiftness, but are quite ready to stand on the defensive, and bite with severity. This disposition to bite upon the slightest provocation renders them very dangerous when once they have entered a bed; the least movement of the sleeper over whom they may be crawling, and who can scarcely fail to be disturbed by their sharp-pointed feet or claws acting upon his skin, will ensure a venomous bite, which will be frequently repeated if the centiped be not speedily dislodged. The bite is exceedingly painful at the moment, and is

followed by a high degree of local inflammation and a fever of great irritation. Where the insect is large, and the bite severe, life is much endangered, and not unfrequently lost, especially if the sufferer be of delicate and irritable habit of body. The immediate application of a cupping-glass, or any convenient substitute, over the wound, removes the pain and danger at once. Spirits of hartshorn (volatile alkali, aqua ammoniæ alcoholiz), applied to the part, and doses of the same administered internally (30 or 40 drops) twice, thrice or oftener in a day, will also lessen the pain, and avert dangerous consequences. The mode of treatment first mentioned is the quickest and most certain. A popular remedy, in all places where the centiped is common, is the application to the wound of brandy or rum in which a centiped has been for some time preserved. This truly noxious insect grows to the size of six inches and more in length, and is a formidable inmate of most of the houses in tropical regions. Bishop Heber speaks of them as being very large and poisonous in different parts of India. So accustomed are the West India slaves and residents to their presence, and regardless of danger from their bite, that no particular pains are taken to lessen their numbers, or to banish them effectually. It is very probable that they might be readily destroyed by placing poisoned food within their reach; yet, while resident in the West Indies, we never heard of any one being at the trouble of the experiment, though centipeds were almost daily killed about the house. They are frequently brought to the U. States in cargoes of hides, &c.; and, a few years since, an individual, employed in unlading a vessel at Boston, lost his life in consequence of being bitten by one of these insects, brought over in this way. It is possible that the centiped is to be found in the most southern parts of the U. States, though it has not as yet been spoken of as an annoyance. Species having considerable resemblance to the centiped of the West Indies, and much dreaded on account of their bite, are often seen about extensive collections of timber and lumber at the saw-mills on the head waters of the Susquehanna, &c. A smaller, dark, reddish-brown species, known by the name of *thousand legs*, is common in most parts of this country, living under dead bark or among decaying timbers. The order *myriapoda*, to which these insects pertain, from their crustaceous covering, the formation of the mouth, &c., appears to form the transition from the crustaceous or crab-like animals to insects proper. They are the *only* insects which, in their perfect state, have *more* than *six* feet, and have the abdomen *not* distinct from the trunk. They live and grow much longer than other insects, surviving through several generations. When first hatched, they have but six feet, or, at least, fewer than they afterwards acquire. The additional feet, as well as the rings to which they are attached, become developed as they advance in age—a sort of change peculiar to this race.

Cent Jours (*French;* signifying *hundred days*). From the 20th of March, 1815, when Napoleon a second time ascended the throne of France, to the 28th of June, when Louis XVIII again resumed the government in Cambray, just 100 days elapsed. Hence that interregnum is called *le gouvernement des cent jours.* None of the measures of the administration then existing have been acknowledged by the present government. Therefore the 42 numbers of the collection of laws (*Bulletin des Lois*) which appeared during this time, containing 313 ordinances, including the 12 resolutions of the provisorial committee of government (from the 22d to the 30th of June), have only a historical interest, and no binding power as laws. They form the sixth series (*série*) of this collection, which commences with the establishment of the famous revolutionary tribunal (March 11, 1793), and is still continued in the seventh series. If the facility with which Napoleon advanced from Cannes to Paris, with only 1100 men, without striking a blow, in 14 days, and the readiness with which many, who had always opposed the emperor, joined him, after their short experience of what France had to expect from the Bourbons and the old aristocracy, show how little attachment existed in France for the old dynasty; the history of the "hundred days," on the other hand, affords a proof that Napoleon himself had lost the basis of real power, the support of public opinion; or that, knowing the character of the French nation, and of his age, so well in many respects, he yet misapprehended both in other points of much importance. (For an account of his unequalled march from Cannes to Paris, see *Napoleon.*)—His *Acte additionnel* of the 22d of April, 1815, passing over entirely the *Charte constitutionnelle* of June, 1814, alters and supplies the deficiencies of the constitutions of 1799 (year 8), of 1802, which established the consulship for life, and of

1804, which established the imperial dignity. This *acte* sought to gain the favor of the people by the grant of more extensive privileges to the two chambers, by conferring greater independence on the courts, by a tacit abolition of the special courts and of the state prisons (*prisons d'état*), by granting entire liberty of the press, and totally suppressing hereditary distinctions. A general electoral assembly (*champ de Mai*) was convoked to gratify the taste of the people for great spectacles. But the charm, once broken, could not be renewed. With one party, Napoleon found no confidence in his promises; the other used its new independence to impose further restrictions on the government. The loss of a battle was sufficient to overthrow his ill-supported power; and Napoleon, deserted and pressed by his former adherents (Fouché, Caulaincourt, Carnot, &c.), was obliged to abdicate a second time. The ministers, during this period, appointed by a decree of the 20th of March, 1815, were Gaudin, duke of Gaëta, minister of finance; Maret, duke of Bassano, secretary of state; the duke Decrès, minister of the marine; Fouché, minister of the police; Mollien, treasurer; Davoust, prince of Eckmühl, minister of war; Caulaincourt, duke of Vicenza, minister of foreign affairs; Carnot, minister of the interior; Cambacérès, duke of Parma, arch-chancellor and minister of justice. After the return of the king, by the ordinance of the 24th of July, 1815, all members of the chamber of peers of 1814 (29 in number), who had accepted places during the "hundred days," were excluded from the chamber; but they have since been restored, with the exception of two (Barral, archbishop of Tours, and count Canclaux). Of the 117 peers of the "hundred days," there are at present only 40 in the chamber. The law of the 12th of January, 1816, declared a general amnesty, with the exception of those who had voted for the death of Louis XVI, and of those who had accepted office during the "hundred days." They were condemned to perpetual banishment, were declared to have forfeited all public rights, and to be incapable of possessing estates. (See *Chambre Introuvable;* also the articles *France* and *Napoleon.*)

CENTLIVRE, Susanna, a dramatic writer, was born in Ireland, in 1667. Her mind having early taken a romantic turn, on being unkindly treated by those who had the care of her after the death of her mother, she formed the resolution of going to London. Travelling by herself on foot, she was met by Mr. Hammond, father of the author of the love elegies, then a student at the university of Cambridge, who persuaded her to assume the habit of a boy, in which disguise she lived with him some months at college. At length, fearing a discovery, he induced her to proceed to the metropolis, where, being yet only in her 16th year, she married a nephew of sir Stephen Fox. Becoming a widow within a year, she took for a second husband an officer of the army, of the name of Carrol, who was killed in a duel the second year of their wedlock. This event in her singular career reduced her to considerable distress, and led her to attempt dramatic composition. Her first production was a tragedy, entitled the Perjured Husband, which was performed in 1700. This was followed by several comedies, chiefly translations from the French, which exhibited the vivacity that distinguishes her literary character, and met with some temporary success. She also tried the stage as an actress on the provincial boards, and by that means attracted the attention of her third and last husband, Mr. Centlivre, yeoman of the mouth to queen Anne, whom she married in 1706. She still continued writing for the stage, and produced several more comedies. Some of these remain stock pieces, of which number are the Busy Body, the Wonder, and a Bold Stroke for a Wife. They are diverting from the bustle of the incident and the liveliness of the characters, but want the accompaniments of adequate language and forcible delineation. They partook of the license of the age. Mrs. Centlivre enjoyed the friendship of Steele, Farquhar, Rowe, and other wits of the day. Having, however, offended Pope, she obtained a place in the Dunciad, but is introduced by no means characteristically. She was handsome in person, and her conversation was sprightly and agreeable; her disposition also appears to have been friendly and benevolent. She died in 1723. Besides her dramatic works, published in 3 vols., 12mo., 1763, a volume of her poems and letters were collected and published by Boyer.

CENTO (*Latin*); originally, a cloak made of patches (hence, as Lessing observes, the dress of Harlequin is called, in Apuleius, *mimi centuculus*). The term has been transferred to such poems as have been formed out of verses taken from other poems. It was a particular art to combine passages of different authors, on different subjects, in this manner, so as to form a regular whole. Thus

there were, in early times, Virgilian centos (*centones Virgiliani*), in which most of the verses were taken from Virgil; for instance, the epithalamium of Ausonius; and centos from the verses of Homer (*Homerocentones*).

CENTRAL AMERICA. The republic of Central America comprises the old kingdom of Guatimala. It is bounded north by Mexico and the bay of Honduras, east by the Caribbean sea and the province of Veragua (belonging to Colombia), and south-west by the Pacific ocean. It extends from 8° 46′ to 17° 51′ north latitude. The population of Guatimala was stated by Humboldt, in 1808, at about 1,300,000; by Malte-Brun, in 1820, at 1,200,000; by the patriots, at 1,800,000. The rivers are numerous, but small. The largest are the Chiapa and St. Juan. The principal lakes are those of Nicaragua and Leon. The whole country is mountainous, but the particular ridges are but little known. On the western shore, the country is subject to the most tremendous convulsions of nature, which have involved, at times, whole cities in ruins, and exterminated complete tribes of people. No less than 20 volcanoes are known to exist, which are in constant activity; some of them terrific. The soil is described as exceedingly fertile, and better cultivated than most parts of Spanish America; and, according to Humboldt, this country, when he saw it, was the most populous of the Spanish provinces. It produces, abundantly, grain, cochineal, honey, wax, cotton, sugar-cane, indigo, pimento and chocolate. Cattle and sheep are abundant. The bay of Honduras is celebrated for its trade in logwood. The temperature in some parts is exceedingly hot and moist. The rains last from April to September, and violent storms are frequent. The climate is more healthy on the western coast than on the eastern. It is now divided into the states of Guatimala, Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua and Costa Rica, corresponding to the provinces of which it consisted before the revolution, in which it declared itself independent of Spain, in September, 1821. This region was peopled originally by a party of the Toltecas Indians, from Mexico, as sufficiently appears from their language, and other indications of their origin; and tradition preserves the name of Nimaquiche, who led the colony from Tula to their new abode. At the time of the conquest of Mexico by Cortez, a descendant of Nimaquiche, called *Tecum Umam*, reigned in Utatlan, the principal seat of the Quiches, or primitive inhabitants of the country. They were subdued by Pedro de Alvarado, acting under a commission from Cortez. He set out from Mexico on this expedition in 1523, with an army of 300 Spaniards, commanded by Pedro de Portocarrero and Hernando de Chaves, with a large body of auxiliary Indians from Mexico, Cholula and Tlascala. Many desperate and sanguinary battles were fought before the invaders could effect the subjugation of the country. Most of these conflicts occurred in the districts of Suchiltepeque and Quezaltenango, where numerous traditions and local memorials of these events still remain among the aborigines. Six desperate battles took place near the river Zamala, which thus acquired, in the vicinity of the fields of carnage, the name of *Xiquigel*, or *River of Blood*. A long course of warfare ensued before Alvarado could break the spirit of the Quiches. After the death of their king, Tecum Umam, who fell in battle at the head of his subjects, they had recourse to a stratagem as bold as it was grand in conception. Their chief city, Utatlan, abounded in palaces and other sumptuous edifices, being hardly surpassed in splendor by Mexico and Cusco. It was encompassed by a lofty wall, and was capable of being entered only at two points; on one side by a causeway, and on the other by a flight of steps. Within, the buildings stood high and compact. In the hope of exterminating their enemies, the Quiches invited the Spaniards into their capital, pretending a willingness to submit. After their entrance, the Quiches set fire to the city, and, if the Indians of another tribe had not been false to their countrymen, and betrayed the secret, Alvarado and his followers would have perished. Having escaped this danger, the Spaniards pursued their victorious course until all opposition was crushed, and, in 1524, laid the foundations of the city of Guatimala. After the subjugation of the Quiches, the remaining tribes were subdued with comparative facility, and the dominion of the conquerors was permanently established. The government of this country, as constituted by Spain, was subject to the Mexican; but the dependence was far from being close. It was denominated the *kingdom of Guatimala*, and governed by a captain-general. Owing to the secluded position of the people, and their peculiar occupations and spirit, they were almost the last among the Spanish colonies on the continent to embrace the cause of independence. While an obstinate struggle was

going on around them, they remained for a long time in perfect tranquillity. At length, in September, 1821, they declared their independence of Spain; and although, for a time, Iturbide obtained the control of a large part of the country, yet, on his downfall, they recurred to their original purpose of forming a separate republic. A constituent congress was convoked, which completed the organization of the general government, Nov. 22, 1824, by the adoption of a federal constitution analogous to that of the U. States. Under the constitution, Manuel Jose Arce was elected first president of the republic. Various differences, however, of a political nature, have prevented his administration from being a tranquil or happy one. Violent factions have plunged the country into a civil war, which has continued since the beginning of 1827. It was commenced by the inhabitants of the state of Salvador, who, on account of some jealousy of the people of Guatimala, proceeded from one degree of opposition to another, until they actually levied troops, and marched into the territory of the Guatimaltecans. They were beaten by the troops of the general government under the command of Arce, and driven back into Salvador; but still the war has been protracted with various success. Besides this, disturbances of a serious character have existed in others of the states; all tending to show that the people are far from being well fitted for the delicate task of self-government. The government consists of a president, a senate, and a chamber of representatives. The Catholic is the established religion. No other is tolerated. Slavery is abolished. The commercial regulations are on a much more liberal footing than in the other new republics. Foreigners have the same rights with the natives. Englishmen and adventurers from the U. States wander over this rich republic, and carry on a lucrative commerce with the natives, the treasures which the country offers in gold and silver being in the hands of the laboring class. The flag of the United Provinces of Central America consists of three stripes of different colors, with three volcanoes (signifying the three principal provinces—Guatimala, Nicaragua and Comayagua), under a rainbow, with the inscription, "God, concord, liberty." The principal town, Guatimala, and the province of the same name, are so called from the Indian word *guanhtemali* (rotten wood), the Indian term for Campeachy wood. Cortez founded the towns of Guatimala and San Salvador. No colony cost Spain less blood than the vice-kingdom of Guatimala; but no other had so noble a governor as Las Casas. The soil is volcanic, and luxuriantly fertile. A large quantity of indigo is annually exported. The lake of Nicaragua, 121 miles in length and 41 in breadth, may become highly important in a commercial respect, as the navigable river S. Juan unites it to the Atlantic ocean, and a canal has been proposed for connecting the Atlantic and Pacific oceans, to receive its water from this lake. There are several volcanoes on its shores. The aboriginal population of the country has very much decreased. The ruins of Huehuetlapallan (q. v.) are remarkable. The converted Indians are called *Ladiños*; the others, *Barbaros*, or *Bravos*. Two pieces of land (Tagurgalpa and Tolagalpa), belonging to the United Provinces, have never been subjected by the European settlers, or their descendants, and are inhabited by the independent Moscos, or Mosquitos, and other tribes. That part of the coast called the *Mosquito coast*, and extending to cape Gracias-a-Dios, the congress at Colombia, in 1824, declared to belong to the territory of Colombia. A part of that coast called *Poyais* (q. v.), containing a town of the same name, was erected into a separate state by the Scotch adventurer, Mac Gregor.—Central America contains antiquities of a very interesting nature, which have been but imperfectly examined and described hitherto, and which indicate that the aboriginal inhabitants of the country had even attained a very respectable proficiency in the knowledge of the arts of life. Near the village of Palenque are the ruins of what was once a city of several leagues in circumference. Remains of temples, altars, and ornamental stones, statues of deities, and other works of sculpture, are permanent proofs of its former importance. Like remains are found near Ocosingo, in the same part of Central America. A circus, and several stone pyramids, in the valley of Copan, in Honduras, are better known than the ruins of Palenque and Ocosingo. Vestiges of the city of Utatlan, before mentioned, of Patinamit and Mixco, and of many fortresses and castles in the province of Quezaltenango, are mentioned by Juarros and other authors.—This country has attracted attention incidentally of late, owing to its geographical position, and the hope entertained by many of seeing a canal cut across the isthmus in some part of Central America, so as to unite the Pacific and Atlantic oceans by a navigable channel.

It has been well described by a native, Domingo Juarros, whose account has been translated into English by Mr. Baily—Statistical and Commercial History of Guatimala. (See also don Francia de Fuente's *History of Guatimala, before and after the Spanish Conquest.*)

CENTRAL FIRE. Many natural philosophers have supposed a perpetual fire to exist in the centre of the earth, which they call *central fire.* In ancient times, volcanoes and other similar phenomena were explained by it. At a later period, when it was understood that such a fire in the interior of the earth was impossible, the phrase was used to express the interior warmth of the earth. To this central warmth Mairan ascribes a great part of the warmth on the surface of the earth. To a certain depth, there appears to be a fixed temperature in the interior of the earth, which probably arises from the penetrating heat of the sun. At least experiments show that in hot climates the interior of the earth is warmer than in cold ones. In Siberia, for instance, some workmen, having penetrated 80 feet in digging a well, found the earth frozen even at that depth. Interesting information on this subject may be found in Biot's *Astronomie Physique* (2d ed., Paris, 1810), in the 2d vol. 15th chap. *De la Température de la Terre.*

CENTRAL FORCES; those forces by the coöperation of which circular motion is produced; that is, the centripetal and centrifugal forces. Many natural philosophers deny the existence of the latter, and assert it to be a mere mathematical idea. They say, a body, once put in motion, continues its motion in the same direction, and with the same velocity, without the interposition of a new power, on account of its *inertia.* Now the heavenly bodies were impelled, in the beginning, by the Creator, with an almighty power, and would be obliged, by their *inertia,* to go on eternally in one direction, and with the same velocity, if they were not attracted, in all points of their motion, towards a point out of this direction, by which a circular motion is produced. Of the first moving force, there is now no longer any question. That power by which the heavenly bodies are drawn towards points out of their rectilinear path, is called the *centripetal force.* This power would put the heavenly body in motion if it were at rest; as it finds it already in motion, it changes its direction at every point. The case is quite different with the *centrifugal force.* This appears to be merely the result of the *inertia* of the body, or rather of the motion which, having been once given to the body, is continued by means of this *inertia.* (See *Circular Motion.*)

CENTRAL MOTION. (See *Circular Motion.*)

CENTRE, LE (*French;* signifying *the centre*). In the French chamber of deputies, the seats are ranged in a semicircle in front of the president, and leave only a narrow passage in the centre. The ministers themselves do not sit, as in England, among the deputies, but in the front seat, on the left side of the centre. In England, the ministry is the centre of the majority, and all who do not vote with it, however different their views, unite in the opposition. In France, the two chief parties, one of which is attached to the old, the other to the new system of things, are opposed to each other independently of the ministers, and thus enable the ministry to maintain itself, as has been the case till very lately, without belonging decidedly to either party. The ministry bestows many offices on the condition that the officers shall always vote with it. In the French chamber of deputies, the adherents of the ministry chiefly sit near their leaders, on the seats in the centre (*le centre*). Here are to be found, therefore, the prefects, state-attorneys, and other officers of the government, who, for the sake of office, support all the propositions of the ministers. They are joined by those who, like the *Doctrinaires* (q. v.), under the ministry of Decazes, keep the centre, independently of the two chief parties, and support the ministers from conviction. (During the ministry of Villèle, the *Doctrinaires* went over almost wholly to the side of the opposition.) But private opinion, and the circumstances by which it is influenced, often operate so powerfully, that parties even appear in the centre. It is itself divided into a right and left side. The members of the late ministry, preceding that of prince Polignac, belonged chiefly to the moderate party.—In England, the members of the parliament also sit on different sides, according to their party.—In the U. States of North America, the seats are decided by lot, in both houses, and thus the members of all parties are distributed all over the house.

CENTRIFUGAL FORCE, in astronomy, is the force by reason of which the heavenly bodies, in their revolutions, tend to fly off from the centre. The circular motion is said to be caused by the perpetual conflict of the centrifugal and centripetal forces.

CENTRIPETAL FORCE. (See *Central Forces.*)

CENTURIES OF MAGDEBURG. The first comprehensive work of the Protestants on the history of the Christian church was so called, because it was divided into centuries, each volume containing a hundred years, and was first written at Magdeburg. Matthias Flacius (q. v.) formed the plan of it in 1552, in order to prove the agreement of the Lutheran doctrine with that of the primitive Christians, and the difference between the latter and that of the Catholics. Joh. Wigand, Matth. Judex, Basilius Faber, Andreas Corvinus, and Thomas Holzhuter, were, after Flacius, the chief writers and editors. Some Lutheran princes and nobles patronised it, and many learned men assisted in the work, which was drawn, with great care and fidelity, from the original sources, compiled with sound judgment, and written in Latin. It was continued by the *centuriatores* (as the editors were called) only to 1300. It was published at Bâle, from 1559 to 1574, in 13 vols. fol., at great expense. A good modern edition, by Baumgarten and Semler, which reaches, however, only to the year 500, appeared at Nuremburg, from 1757 to 1765, in 6 vols. 4to. A good abridgment was prepared by Lucas Osiander (Tübingen, 1592—1604, 9 vols. 4to.), of which the Tübingen edition, 1607 and 1608 (usually in four thick vols. 4to.), comprehends also the period from the 14th to the 16th century. The Catholics finding themselves attacked in this alarming way, and confuted by matters of fact, Baronius (q. v.) wrote his Annals, in opposition to the *Centuriæ.*

CENTURY (Latin *centuria*); a division of 100 men. This kind of division was very common with the Romans, and was used, in general, to denote a particular body, although this might not contain exactly 100 men. Thus centuries, in the army, were the companies into which the Roman legions were divided. This name was also given to the divisions of the six classes of the people, introduced by Servius Tullius. The first class contained 80, to which were added the 18 centuries of the knights; the three following classes had each 20 centuries, the fifth 30, and the sixth only 1 century. The people voted in the public elections by centuries. (See *Census.*)

CEPHALONIA, or CEFALONIA; the largest of the islands in the Ionian sea, west of the Morea, at the entrance of the golfo di Patrasso, or gulf of Lepanto, about 40 miles in length, and from 10 to 20 in breadth; lon. 20° 40′ to 21° 18′ E.; lat. 38° to 38° 28′ N.; square miles 340, with 63,200 inhabitants, who own 400 vessels of different kinds. The island has 203 towns and villages, three ports, and excellent anchoring places and bays. The climate is warm and delightful, the landscape is adorned with flowers during the whole year, and the trees yield two crops of fruit annually. A great part of the soil is devoted to the production of raisins, currants, wine, oil, citrons, melons, pomegranates and cotton. The raisins are preferred to those of any other of the Grecian islands, and even to those of the Morea. About 2500 tons are produced annually. Between 25 and 30,000 casks of oil, and 50,000 of wine, 5 or 6,000,000 pounds of currants, and 100,000 pounds of cotton, are likewise obtained yearly. Silks, medicinal herbs, oranges and lemons are also raised. The system of agriculture adopted by the great land owners requires that a large proportion of the grain and meat consumed in the island should be imported from the Morea. The island is subject to frequent earthquakes. Cephalonia belonged to the Venetians until 1797, when the French took possession of it. Since 1815, it has belonged to the republic of the united Ionian islands. (q. v.) (See Napier's *Statistical Account of the Island of Cefalonia*, London, 1824.)—The ancient name of the island was *Cephallenia*, from the mythological Cephalus, husband of Procris. It was tributary to Thebes, the Macedonians and the Ætolians, till the Romans took it. In the time of Thucydides, it had four cities; Same, Prone, Cranii and Pale. Strabo only knew of two.

CEPHALUS; the son of Creusa; according to some, the son of Deioneus, king of Phocis, and of Diomede. He was the husband of Procris. Shortly after his marriage, Aurora carried off the beautiful youth while he was hunting on mount Hymettus. He refused the love of the goddess, who induced him to put the virtue of his wife to a trial which it could not withstand. Procris, in return, tempted him likewise, and he yielded also. Learning their mutual weakness, they became reconciled. But Procris subsequently became jealous of her husband, and concealed herself in a wood to watch him. He mistook her, among the leaves, for a wild animal, and killed her. On this, he was banished from Greece by the court of Areopagus, or, as some relate, killed himself with the same dart which had destroyed Procris.

Ceracchi, Joseph, born at Rome, was an eminent statuary, when the revolution in his native city induced him to give up the practice of his art, and engage in politics. In 1799, he was among the warmest partisans of the new republic. On the reëstablishment of the papal authority, he was obliged to leave Rome, and went to Paris, where he was employed in making a bust of the first consul. Nevertheless, he joined the young French artists whom he had known at Rome, and whose ardent republican opinions coincided with his own, in a conspiracy against Bonaparte, in whom he saw only the oppressor of his country. In October, 1800, he was arrested at the opera, with Arena, Damerville and Topino Lebrun. Before the tribunal, he answered only in monosyllables to the questions put to him. He was sentenced to death, together with his accomplices, and ascended the scaffold, Feb. 1801, with great firmness. The death of this disciple, and almost rival, of Canova, was a great loss to sculpture.

Cerberus; a three-headed dog, with snakes for hair, the offspring of Echidna by Typhon, the most terrible of the giants that attempted to storm heaven. At his bark, hell trembled, and, when he got loose from his hundred chains, even the Furies could not tame him. He watched the entrance of Tartarus, or the regions of the dead, and fawned on those who entered, but seized and devoured those who attempted to return. Hercules only subdued him. Thus says the Greek mythology. In the article *Cemetery*, the reader will find that it was customary, among the Egyptians, after a corpse had been solemnly buried, to bid farewell to the deceased three times, with a loud voice. To express the circumstance that the deceased had been honored with the rites of burial and the lamentations of his friends, they represented, in the legend imprinted on the mummy, or engraved on the tomb, the figure of the horse of the Nile, which the Greeks mistook for a dog, and represented it with three heads, in order to express the three cries or farewells. The Egyptians called this hieroglyphic *oms*, and the Greeks *cerber*, from the Egyptian *ceriber*, a word that means *the cry of the tomb*. It is natural, therefore, to suppose the Egyptian *oms* the basis of the Greek *mythos* of Cerberus. (See page 148 in *Lectures on Hieroglyphics and Egyptian Antiquities*, by the marquis Spineto, London, 1829, 8vo.)

Cerealia (from *Ceres*, the goddess of the fields and of fruits) signified the productions of agriculture, also the festivals of Ceres.

Ceremonial of the European Powers. One of the many ridiculous usages and pompous nullities, of which such a number have arisen in Europe, principally from confounding the interests and honor of the person of the monarch with the interests and honor of the nation, is the subject of this article; which has given rise to much war and confusion, and thrown many obstacles in the way of peace. After the thirty years' war, a war of wits, of equal length, was carried on among the ambassadors, on the subject of etiquette. It is evident that no independent state can actually have precedence of another; but, as the weaker seek the protection and friendship of the more powerful, there arises a priority of rank. This has occasioned the gradual establishment of dignities, rank, and acts of respect to states, their rulers and representatives, by which means (in contradistinction to the internal etiquette of a state) an international ceremonial has been formed, to the observance of which far more consideration is often paid than to the fulfilment of the most sacred contracts. Louis XIV carried this folly further, perhaps, than any one before or after him. To this international ceremonial belong, 1. Titles of rulers. Accident made the imperial and regal titles the highest, and thus conferred advantages apart from the power of the princes. After Charlemagne, the Roman emperors were considered as the sovereigns of Christendom, maintained the highest rank, and even asserted the dependence of the kings on themselves. For this reason, several kings, in the middle ages, to demonstrate their independence, likewise gave their crowns the title of *imperial*. England, for example, in all its public acts, is still styled the *imperial crown*. The kings of France received from the Turks and Africans the title *empereur de France*. In progress of time, the kings were less willing to concede to the imperial title, of itself, superiority to the royal. 2. Acknowledgment of the titles and rank of rulers. Formerly, the popes and emperor arrogated the right of granting these dignities; but the principle was afterwards established, that every people could grant to its rulers, at pleasure, a title, the recognition of which rests on the pleasure of other powers, and on treaties. Some titles were, therefore, never recognised, or not till after the lapse of considerable time. This was the case with the royal title of Prussia, the impe-

rial title of Russia, the new titles of German princes, &c. 3. Marks of respect conformable to the rank and titles of sovereigns. To the *royal* prerogatives, so called (which, however, were conceded to various states which were neither kingdoms nor empires, such as Venice, the Netherlands, Switzerland, the electorates), pertained the right of sending ambassadors of the first class, &c. In connexion with this, there is a much contested point, viz. that of precedence or priority of rank, i. e. of the right of assuming the more honorable station on any occasion, either personally, at meetings of the princes themselves, or of their ambassadors, at formal assemblies, &c., or by writing, as in the form and signature of state papers. There is never a want of grounds for supporting a claim to precedence. As the councils, in the middle ages, afforded the most frequent occasion of such controversies, the popes often interfered. Of the several arrangements of the rank of the European powers, which emanated from the popes, the principal is the one promulgated in 1504, by Julius II, through his master of ceremonies, Paris de Crassis, in which the European nations followed each other in this order:—1. the Roman emperor (emperor of Germany); 2. the king of Rome; 3. the king of France; 4. the king of Spain; 5. of Arragon; 6. of Portugal; 7. of England; 8. of Sicily; 9. of Scotland; 10. of Hungary; 11. of Navarre; 12. of Cyprus; 13. of Bohemia; 14. of Poland; 15. of Denmark; 16. republic of Venice; 17. duke of Bretagne; 18. duke of Burgundy; 19. elector of Bavaria; 20. of Saxony; 21. of Brandenburg; 22. archduke of Austria; 23. duke of Savoy; 24. grand-duke of Florence; 25. duke of Milan; 26. duke of Bavaria; 27. of Lorraine. This order of rank was not, indeed, universally received; but it contained a fruitful germ of future quarrels; some states, which were benefited by the arrangement, insisting upon its adoption, and others, from opposite reasons, refusing to acknowledge it. To support their claims for precedence, the candidates sometimes relied on the length of time which had elapsed since their families became independent, or since the introduction of Christianity into their dominions; sometimes on the form of government, the number of crowns, the titles, achievements, extent of possessions, &c., pertaining to each. But no definite rules have been established, by which states are designated as being of the first, second, third, fourth, &c. rank. At the congress of Vienna, a discussion took place respecting the settling of the rank of the European powers, and its inseparable consequences; and the commission appointed for the purpose by the eight powers, who signed the peace of Paris, made in their scheme a division of the powers into three classes. But, as opinions were by no means unanimous on the subject, most of the plenipotentiaries voting for three classes, Portugal and Spain for two, and lord Castlereagh entirely rejecting the principle of classification, as the source of constant difficulties, the question respecting the rank of the powers was suffered to rest, and the ambassadors of the crowned heads were merely divided into three classes. (See *Ministers, Foreign.*) Rulers of equal dignity, when they make visits, concede to each other the precedence at home: in other cases, where the precedence is not settled, they or their ambassadors take turns, till a compromise is effected in some way.—Many states claim not a precedence, but merely an equality. But, if neither can be obtained, there are several means of avoiding the scandalous scenes that formerly so often occurred. The ruler either comes incognito, or sends an ambassador of different rank from his with whom he contests the precedence; or the rulers or their ambassadors do not appear on public occasions; or, if they do, it is with a reservation respecting their dignity. In treaties between two powers, two copies are made, and each is signed by only one party; or, if both sign, each party receives the copy in which it holds the place of honor. According to the above-mentioned resolution respecting the relative rank of ambassadors, which forms the 17th affix to the final act of the congress of Vienna, the order to be observed by the ambassadors in signing public papers or treaties between powers, in respect to which the rule of alternate precedence exists, shall be determined by lot. In England and France, far less ceremonial is observed, in the official style, than in Germany,* where forms and titles are carried to an absurd extent, and the cere-

* The following is an instance of the degree of folly to which the love of titles has been carried in Germany. We do not say that it was often carried to this extent, but the instance is too good to be omitted. A certain man of the name of *Seeger*, in the 17th century, had his likeness taken, and, according to the fashion of the period, was represented standing under a crucifix. From his mouth proceeded the words *Domine Jesu Christe, amas me?* and from the mouth of the Savior the following answer:—*Clarissime, nobilissime atque doctissime domine mag. Seeger, rector scholæ Wittenbergensis meritissime atque dignissime, omnino amo te!*

monial words, which extend even to the pronouns by which the princes are designated, it is not possible to translate. Emperors and kings mutually style each other *brother*, while they call princes of less degree *cousin*. The German emperors formerly used the term *thou* in addressing other princes. The *we*, by which monarchs style themselves, is used either from an assumption of state, or from a feeling of modesty, on the supposition that *I* would sound despotical, while *we* seems to include the whole administration, &c.; but the first reason is the more probable.

CERES (with the Greeks, *Demeter*, or *Deo*.) She is particularly the goddess of the earth, or the productive and fruitful earth. She was distinguished, especially, as the inventress of agriculture (hence her attributes of blades and ears of corn), and also as the founder of civil society, who fixed the wandering savages to the soil, and thus softened their manners, gave them the rights of property, the protection of laws (hence her name *Thesmophoros*), and with these a love of country. These ideas are suitably expressed in the works of art. She was the daughter of Saturn and Rhea, born near Enna, in Sicily, which refers to the fruitfulness of that island. By Jupiter, her brother, she was mother of Proserpine. When her daughter was afterwards carried off by Pluto, Ceres resolved to wander over the whole earth, in the human shape, in search of her. She lighted her torch at the fires of Ætna, and mounted her chariot, drawn by dragons. But her endeavors were fruitless. Hecate merely informed her that she had heard the cries of the ravished maid. She arrived, at last, at Eleusis, where the hospitable Celeus received her. When she departed from his house, she permitted him to consecrate to her, in that place, an altar and temple, gave to his son Triptolemus her chariot drawn by dragons, and taught him the cultivation of wheat, that he might spread it over the whole earth, and distribute among men the gifts of the goddess. At length, the all-seeing eyes of the god of day discovered to her the residence of her beloved daughter, and, filled with anger, she demanded of Jupiter her restoration from hell. Jupiter granted her petition on condition that Proserpine had eaten nothing in Pluto's realms. But she had, in fact, eaten part of a pomegranate. Ceres, therefore, obtained her request only so far as this, that her daughter was allowed to remain half the year in the upper world. After finding Proserpine, she revoked the curse which she had pronounced upon the earth, and restored to it life and fertility. Jasion, to whom was attributed the introduction of agriculture into Crete, was, by her, the father of Plutus, the god of riches. Jupiter, inflamed with jealousy, slew Jasion with a thunderbolt. All these circumstances refer to the invention and extending of agriculture. "Ceres has," says Hirt, "in the representations of her, the same lofty stature and the same matronly appearance as Juno; yet there is something milder in her aspect than in that of the queen of the gods; her eye is less widely opened, and softer, her forehead lower, and, instead of the high diadem, her hair is bound with a light wreath or a simple band." She has in her hand a torch, often a sickle, a horn of plenty, or a wreath. Her festivals in Rome were called the *Cerealian*; in Greece, *Thesmophorian* and *Eleusinian*. (See *Egyptian Mythology*.)—Concerning the planet of this name, see *Planets*.

CEREUS, NIGHT-BLOOMING. (See *Cactus*.)

CERIGO (anciently *Cythera*), an island in the Mediterranean, separated from the Morea by a narrow strait, and belonging to the Ionian republic of the Seven Islands; lon. 23° E.; lat. 36° 28′ N.; population, 8 or 10,000; sq. m. 95. It is dry and mountainous, and produces neither corn, wine, nor oil, sufficient for the inhabitants; yet some of the valleys are fertile: sheep, hares, quails, turtles and falcons are abundant. It was anciently sacred to Venus.

CERIGO or KUPSULI (anciently *Cythera*), a town on the west coast of the island of Cerigo, defended by a castle, situated on a sharp rock, surrounded by the sea, with a small harbor; lon. 22° 54′ E.; lat. 36° 28′ N.; pop. 1,200. It is the see of a Greek bishop.

CERINTHUS. (See *Gnostics* and *Millennium*.)

CERIUM, a rare metal, was discovered in 1803, by M. M. Hisinger and Berzelius, in a Swedish mineral, known by the name of *cerite*. Dr. Thomson has since found it, to the extent of 34 per cent., in a mineral from Greenland, called *allanite*. The properties of cerium are, in a great measure, unknown. It is a brittle, white metal, which resists the action of nitric, but is dissolved by nitro-muriatic acid.

CERQUOZZI, Michael Angelo; a Roman painter of the 17th century, who received the surname *delle battaglie* (battle painter), and, at a later period, that of *delle bombocciate*, because, in imitation of Peter Laar, he painted ludicrous scenes taken from

low life. In the palace Spada, at Rome, is a picture representing Masaniello among the Lazzaroni, painted by him. He was born at Rome, in 1602, and died in 1660.

Certiorari, in law; a writ, the purport of which is to remove convictions, orders or proceedings before magistrates, indictments, and records in civil actions *before* judgment, and, under special circumstances, *after* judgment, from inferior courts into the courts above, with a view that the party may have justice done to him, or that the superior court may see whether the justices or court below, before which the proceedings have taken place previously to the *certiorari* being obtained, have kept within the limits of their jurisdiction. This writ, from the moment of its delivery to the judges of the court below, or magistrate, suspends their power, and any subsequent proceedings by them are void and *coram non judice*. Although the writ of *certiorari* removes the record from the inferior court into the court above, yet the court above does not take up the cause where the proceedings stopped, but begins *de novo*.

Ceruse, or white lead, is an oxyde of lead, saturated with carbonic acid, and is prepared as an article of commerce, by the action of acetic acid on the metal. Plates of lead, being exposed to the vapors arising from boiling vinegar, are oxydized by the action of the air and the affinity of the acid. To obtain it in large quantities, plates of lead, about 3 feet long, 6 inches broad, and 1 line thick, are rolled up in such a manner, that a space of half an inch or an inch is left between each roll. These rolls are fixed, perpendicularly, in earthen vessels, which, at the bottom, contain strong vinegar. The latter, however, must not touch the plates; and, to prevent this, some little bars are placed over it, in the form of a cross. The vessels are then covered with plates of lead, and, being placed horizontally in tan or horse-dung, are exposed to a gentle heat. The vinegar now rises in vapors, which settle on the surfaces of the lead plates, penetrate them, and dissolve a great portion of the metal. In the space of from 3 to 6 weeks, the vapors of the acetic acid become saturated with lead, and change the latter into a whitish substance, which, after some time, is scraped off the plates, unrolled for this purpose. The plates are then rolled up again, and the same process is repeated. Ceruse is extensively used in the manufacture of oil paints, and, for this purpose, it is reduced to a fine powder. The pounding and bruising, however, are extremely injurious to the health. The dust, if swallowed, causes a dangerous disease, called the *painter's colic*. Mr. Ward, an Englishman, invented a machine to guard against its pernicious effects. Much of the ceruse which is sold in the shops is adulterated by a mixture of chalk.

Cerutti, Giuseppe Antonio Joachimo; born at Turin, June 13th, 1738, one of the last members of the order of the Jesuits, (previously to its dissolution in 1773), and one of their most eminent professors in the college at Lyons. His Apology for the Jesuits attracted much attention. He had already published two discourses upon the means of preventing duels, and on the reasons why modern republics have not reached the splendor of the ancient. The last received the prize of the academy of Dijon. The Apology for the Jesuits gained him the favor of the dauphin. He was at Paris when the revolution broke out, in 1789. His principles, and, perhaps, a desire of revenging the humiliations which he had experienced as a defender of the Jesuits, made him one of the most zealous supporters of the new order of things. He was intimately connected with Mirabeau, and labored much for him. He also published several pamphlets, among which was a *Mémoire sur la Nécessité des Contributions patriotiques*. In 1791, he was a member of the legislative assembly. Some time after, he delivered, in the church of St. Eustache, a funeral discourse upon Mirabeau. Exhausted by his zealous exertions, he died Feb. 2, 1792. The city of Paris called a street after his name.

Cervantes Saavedra, Miguel de, one of the greatest writers of modern times, was probably born at Alcala de Henares, in 1547. His parents removed from this place to Madrid, when he was about seven years old. Their limited means made it desirable that he should fix on some professional study; but he followed his irresistible inclination to poetry, which his master, Juan Lopez, encouraged. Elegies, ballads, sonnets, and a pastoral, *Filena*, were the first productions of his poetical genius. Poverty compelled him to quit his country, at the age of 22, to seek maintenance elsewhere. He went to Italy, where he became page to the cardinal Guilio Aquaviva, in Rome. In 1570, he served under the papal commander, M. A. Colonna, in the war against the Turks and African corsairs, with distinguished courage. In the battle of Lepanto, he lost his left hand. After this, he

joined the troops at Naples, in the service of the Spanish king. In 1575, returning to his country, he was taken by the corsair Arnaut Mami, and sold in Algiers as a slave. He remained in slavery for seven years. Servitude, far from subduing his mind, served to strengthen his faculties. Vincente de los Rios and M. F. Navarrete, his chief biographers, relate the bold but unsuccessful plans which he formed to obtain his freedom; but, as the only information we have of that period of his life is from his own novel (the Prisoner), of which we cannot positively say that it relates merely the facts of his imprisonment, we cannot determine, with great accuracy, his adventures in Barbary. In 1580, his friends and relations at length ransomed him. At the beginning of the following year, he arrived in Spain, and from this time lived in seclusion, entirely devoted to the muses. It was natural to expect something uncommon from a man, who, with inexhaustible invention, great richness of imagination, keen wit, and a happy humor, united a mature, penetrating and clear intellect, and great knowledge of real life, and mankind in general. But it rarely happens, that expectation is so much surpassed as was the case with Cervantes. He began his new poetical career with the pastoral novel *Galatea* (1584), in which he celebrates his mistress. Soon after the publication of this, he married. Being thus obliged to look out for more lucrative labor, he employed his poetical genius for the stage; and, in the course of ten years furnished about thirty dramas, amongst which his tragedy called *Numancia* is particularly valued. He was not so successful in another kind of drama, particularly favored by the Spaniards, a tangled mixture of intrigues and adventures; and this was, doubtless, the cause why he was supplanted by Lope de Vega, who was particularly qualified for this kind of composition. He, consequently, gave up the theatre, but, it seems, not without regret. From 1594 to 1599, he lived retired at Seville, where he held a little office. He did not appear again as an author till after the lapse of ten years, when he produced a work which has immortalized his name—*Don Quixote.* Cervantes had in view, by this work, to reform the taste and opinions of his countrymen. He wished to ridicule that adventurous heroism, with all its evil consequences, the source of which was the innumerable novels on knight-errantry. The beginning of the work was, at first, coldly received, but soon met with the greatest applause, in which, at a later period, the whole of Europe joined. Cervantes' true poetical genius was nowhere so powerfully displayed as in his Don Quixote, which, notwithstanding its prosaic purpose and its satirical aim, is full of genuine poetry. While it struggles against the prevailing false romance of the time, it displays the most truly romantic spirit. The extraordinary good fortune of the work did not extend to the author. All his attempts to better his condition were unsuccessful, and he lived retired, with his genius and his poverty, and a modest though proud estimation of his merits. After an interval of some years, he again appeared before the public, in 1613, with Twelve Novels (which may be placed by the side of Boccaccio's), and his Journey to Parnassus—an attempt to improve the taste of his nation. In 1615, he published 8 new dramas, with intermezzos, which, however, were indifferently received. Envy and ill will, in the mean time, assailed him, and endeavored to deprive the neglected author of his literary fame; for which the delay of the continuation of Don Quixote afforded the pretext. An unknown writer published, under the name of Alonzo Fernandez de Avellaneda, a continuation of this work, full of abuse against Cervantes. He felt the malice of the act painfully, but revenged himself in a noble manner, by producing the continuation of his Don Quixote (1615), the last of his works which appeared during his life time; for his novel *Persiles and Sigismunda* was published after his death. He found a faithful friend in the count of Lenos, and was thus saved from the death of Butler; but poverty, his constant companion through life, remained true to him till his last moments. He died at the age of 68, April 23, 1616, in Madrid, where he had resided during the last years of his life. He was buried without any ceremony, and not even a common tombstone marks the spot where he rests. In addition to his celebrity as an author, he left the reputation of a man of a firm and noble character, clear-sighted to his own faults and those of others. Many of his works are translated; Don Quixote into all the languages of Europe.

Cesar. (See *Cæsar.*)

Cesarotti, Melchior; one of the most celebrated of the Italian literati of the 18th century; born at Padua, in 1730, of a noble family. He devoted himself to the belles-lettres, and was soon chosen professor of rhetoric in the seminary in which he was educated. He translated three

tragedies of Voltaire—*Sémiramis*, *La Mort de César*, and *Mahomet*. In 1762, he went to Venice, where he translated Ossian into Italian, and was, in 1768, appointed professor of the Greek and Hebrew languages in the university of Padua. Here he published his translation of Demosthenes and of Homer, and his course of Greek literature. After the establishment of the republican government, in 1797, he was appointed, by the existing authorities, to write an Essay on Studies. In this, he made suggestions for the improvement of education. In 1807 appeared his poem called *Pronea* (Providence), in praise of his benefactor, Napoleon. In spite of his advanced age, he subsequently occupied himself with an edition of all his works, which he had commenced in 1800; but his death, in 1808, prevented the completion of this enterprise. Cesarotti was a man of great talents and genius. His prose is animated and powerful, but he indulges too much in innovations, particularly Gallicisms; and cannot, therefore, compete with such writers as Machiavelli, Galileo, &c. The translation of Ossian is considered his best poetical production, and Alfieri praises its beautiful versification. A complete edition of Cesarotti's works was published by his friend and successor, Giuseppe Barbieri (Pisa, 1805 et seq., 30 vols.).

Cestus (Gr. κεστὸς); a girdle worn by Venus, endowed with the power of exciting love towards the wearer. The following is Pope's translation of Homer's description of it:—

In it was every art and every charm
To win the wisest, and the coldest warm—
Fond love, the gentle vow, the gay desire,
The kind deceit, the still-reviving fire,
Persuasive speech, and more persuasive sighs,
Silence that spoke, and eloquence of eyes.

Forcellini says, *Fingunt poetæ, intextas habere cupiditates, voluptates, delicias, illecebras, suspiria, desideria, risus, jocos, blanda verba, gaudia, jurgia, et hujusmodi, quibus amatorum vita constat.* This beautiful fiction has been happily imitated by Tasso, in his description of the girdle of Armida.

Ceto. (See *Phorcus*.)

Cette (lat. 43° 24′ N.; lon. 3° 47′ E.); a town with 7000 inhabitants, in what was formerly *Languedoc*, now in the department of the Herault, upon a peninsula, between the Mediterranean and lake Thau, into which the great canal of Languedoc enters. The port, which is safe, and has been very much deepened, is guarded by the fort St. Pierre and St. Louis. Cette is the principal place of export for the productions of Languedoc. Its commerce in woollen, cotton and silk goods, leather, wine, salt, oil, verdigris, soda, pilchards, tobacco, soap, &c., is considerable. It has, likewise, some sugar refineries and silk manufactories, and a school for navigation. In the neighboring lagoons, 500,000 cwt. salt are made annually.

Ceuta (anciently *Septa*); a city on the African coast of the Mediterranean, in the kingdom of Fez, upon a peninsula opposite Gibraltar, with 7400 inhabitants. It is the seat of a bishop. It has a strong fort. The harbor is bad. The Portuguese possessed themselves of this city in 1415. With Portugal, it was included, in 1570, in the Spanish monarchy, by Philip II, and remained under the Spanish government after the revolution of 1640. In the peace of 1668, Portugal ceded it to Spain. Ceuta is one of those Spanish *presidios*, which are used only for commerce, and as places of transportation for exiles or criminals. Lat. 35° 48′ N.; lon. 5° 11′ W.

Ceva, Thomas; born at Milan, in 1648. Lessing says, that this Italian Jesuit, who died in 1737, was as great a mathematician as poet; and truly a poet, not merely a rhymer, as appears from his Latin poem, the *Puer Jesus*, which he considered as a comic epopee, rather than as a true epic poem. He published several excellent mathematical works; for instance, one on the division of angles, and *Opuscula Mathematica* (Milan, 1699). He also wrote several biographies; as that of the Italian poet Lemene, with judicious remarks upon poetry.

Cevallos, don Pedro; a Spanish minister, of an ancient family of Old Castile; born 1764, at Santander; studied at Valladolid; was a long time secretary of legation at Lisbon; married a relation of the Prince of Peace (see *Godoy*); was made minister of foreign affairs, and discharged the duties of this office with prudence and sagacity. But when the schemes of Napoleon began to throw the court of Madrid into confusion, he took side with the prince of Asturias, upon whom all the Spanish patriots, who desired the independence of their country, placed their hopes. He followed him to Bayonne, was a witness of the events that happened there, and accepted from Joseph Bonaparte the office of *premier*. Joseph thought, perhaps, that a man so generally popular would prove an important support to his cause. But as soon as he arrived at Madrid, he declared himself against Joseph, and joined the Spanish junta; in their service he went to London, where he published a celebrated work on the affairs of Spain in

1808, particularly on the transactions at Bayonne, which contributed not a little to excite the general opposition of Europe to Napoleon's administration. During the Spanish war of independence, he occupied the most important posts, and, on the return of Ferdinand VII, was made first minister. Cevallos received permission, in acknowledgement of his loyalty, to choose a device for his family coat-of-arms; upon which he selected the motto "*Pontifice ac rege æque defensis.*" He soon after lost the favor of the king, by opposing his projected marriage with the princess of Portugal. He was removed from the office of secretary, and sent on embassies to Naples and Vienna, but was recalled in 1820. He has since lived in retirement.

CEVENNES, or SEVENNES; a chain of mountains in the south of France, considered by some a branch of the Alps; by others, of the Pyrenees. They are connected with both, and extend also to Auvergne. In the highest regions of these mountains, hardly any vegetation is to be perceived. The highest summits are the Puy de Dome, 4960 feet high; the Cantal, 5964 feet, and two other elevations, above 6000 feet high. The lower range, which is called the *Garigues*, produces almost nothing. The central mountains are more fertile, and are intersected by pleasant valleys. The chestnut woods, the cultivation of silk, and various sorts of fruit, employ and support a large population. The highest part of the mountains serves principally for pasturing sheep. Several kinds of metals are found here. These mountains have been distinguished as the theatre of a bloody civil war.—Ever since the 13th century, religious sects had been springing up in the Cevennes, which, irritated by the abuses of the Roman clergy, labored to restore the Christian religion to its primitive purity. Traces of them at a very early period are found in this southern extremity of France, under the name of the *Poor Men of Lyons*, the *Albigenses*, and the *Waldenses*. The crusades directed against them by the popes and the inquisitorial tribunals had, their enemies imagined, the effect of annihilating them; but great multitudes, in fact, still survived; and, when the Protestant religion extended itself in Switzerland, and particularly in Geneva, it would naturally find adherents, in this part of France, whom all the persecutions, down to the time of Henry IV, were insufficient to extirpate. From that time they were protected by the edict of Nantes. But, when Louis XIV formed the insane resolution of repealing this act, in 1685, and bringing all his subjects, by force or persuasion, within the pale of the Catholic church, the quiet of the poor but happy people of the Cevennes was broken in upon, and a series of persecutions commenced, hardly distinguishable from those which the early Christians experienced from the Roman government, except that now the persecutors themselves were Christians. The peace of Ryswick, in 1697, afforded Louis XIV leisure to pursue, in earnest, this work of extermination. Dragoons were sent out to second the preaching of the monks, and the tax-gatherers were instructed to exact a rigorous payment of taxes from all who were suspected of Protestantism. Children were torn from their parents to be educated in the Catholic faith, men who frequented houses of prayer were sent to the galleys, women were thrown into prison, and preachers were hanged. These measures, reducing the people to despair, brought on combined resistance and a violent war. Prophets arose, and prophetesses, who foretold the victory of the country people. Whoever fell into the hands of the dragoons was massacred, and every officer or soldier of Louis, who was taken prisoner, suffered the same fate. The peasants attacked their tormentors, the tax-collectors, in the night, with no other dress than a shirt, to escape detection. (See *Camisards.*) The murder of the abbot Chaila, in 1703, who commanded the *dragonades*, as the attempts to produce conversion by the aid of dragoons were called, was the signal, it appears, for a most desperate contest. The forces of Louis were incapable of bringing it to a conclusion, as the crags of the mountains offered numerous places of refuge to the Protestants, and his troops were every moment in danger of being cut off, or of perishing by hunger and cold. The enthusiasts grew more fearless every day. Several leaders arose among them, and Cavalier, at the age of 20 years (with whom Voltaire became personally acquainted), highly distinguished himself. Louis XIV was now placed in a very critical situation, because the war of the Spanish succession made it necessary for him to extend his forces on every side, for the protection of France; and the duke of Marlborough and the duke of Savoy, by promises, and by some small assistance, augmented the flame which was kindled in the south of France. In the diocese of Nimes, the fanatics, determined to recompense evil with evil, murdered 84 priests, and burned 200 churches;

but, in the mean time, more than 40,000 of their number were broken upon the wheel, burned at the stake, or thrown into prison. At length, in 1704, after marshal Montrevel had exerted all his ability to no purpose, Louis recalled his best general, marshal Villars, from the army of the Rhine, to give a new direction to the perilous state of affairs in the south of France. One of the leaders of the rebels had conceived the project of effecting a union with the duke of Savoy in Dauphiny. The whole country, from the seashore to the highest mountain-ridge, was more or less in their hands, and with the inhabitants of Nimes, Montpellier, Oranges, Uzes, &c., agreements were made, which secured them arms, bread, and other necessaries. They melted down a vast number of bells to make cannon, and Cavalier acted like an able general. The Catholic peasantry no longer dared to cultivate their fields, or to carry provisions into the cities. Such was the state of things when Villars arrived at Beaucaire, April 20, 1704, and at Nimes the 21st. He began with instituting the necessary inquiries in regard to the cause of the rebellion, the character of the people, and their mode of thinking. Then he proclaimed a general amnesty for all who would lay down their arms, and forthwith liberated every prisoner who promised to return to his allegiance. By this mode of proceeding, he induced several bodies of the insurgents to lay down their arms; while, on the other hand, he threatened the obstinate with the severest punishment; and, to enforce his menaces, troops were sent out in every direction from a given point, where a body of forces was stationed to afford them assistance, and, if necessary, to meet the combined forces of the insurgents in the field. Every prisoner, taken in arms, was directly put to death, or hanged and broken on the wheel, in Alais, Nimes, or St. Hippolyte. Such was the success of Villars, that, on May 10, Cavalier regarded the cause of the Camisards as desperate, and made proposals for a treaty, which was concluded on condition that he should surrender himself with his followers, but be permitted to leave the country with them. Villars had a personal interview with him in Nimes: the whole troop consisted of 1600 men, and, not far from Nimes, they were entertained by Villars with the greatest hospitality. The memoirs of Villars say their number was 1600: Voltaire speaks only of 800. On the 22d, the treaty was confirmed in Paris, and, at the same time, Cavalier was made colonel, with a pension of 1200 livres, and permission to appoint the officers of the regiment which he was to raise. It was the design of Louis, probably by the advice of Villars, in this way to prevent a company of brave soldiers from leaving the country, at the same time that he guarded against injury from them. Villars now gave orders that every gibbet and every scaffold should be torn down; but, just as he seemed to have completed his task, things took another turn. Cavalier had gone to Anglade, a neighboring place, to organize his regiment, when the peasants, instigated by his lieutenant, and animated by their prophets, became again disorderly, and, without listening to Cavalier, who had hurried back, plunged into the adjacent forests. They would not hearken to his persuasions, nor to the commands of Villars, and obstinately declared that the king must restore the edict of Nantes; otherwise they had no security. At length, however, Villars succeeded, by his personal influence, and by cutting off their provisions, in bringing them to submission. They all entered the service of Piedmont, and marched under Cavalier to Catalonia, where the whole regiment was destroyed in the battle of Almanza, in which Cavalier himself was severely wounded. Meanwhile, the civil war in France did not end with their departure. There were still factions, of which the one headed by a certain Roland was the most distinguished. But Villars, who confided more in kindness and management than in his strength, sought to gain possession of their chiefs only by the former qualities. He succeeded, indeed, in capturing Roland, who was in love with a girl of the country, and the musket of a dragoon spared him the tortures of a public execution. Others surrendered themselves, trusting to the marshal's word, and the *billets de sureté en blanche* which he gave them, securing them and their friends from persecution, whether political or religious. Thus, by the end of December, Villars had happily accomplished his difficult enterprise, and there were only a few remnants of the party, wandering in the highest regions of the mountains. But, the next year, marshal Berwick, after their audacious project to seize him at Nimes had miscarried, totally suppressed them. 200 were executed, and many fled to foreign lands. From that time, a war of opinions has prevailed, to a greater or less degree, in the south of France, and, lately, since the restoration, has led to dreadful outrages in Nimes and other places. (See *Huguenots*, and *France in* 1819.)

CEYLON (*Seilan*); an island in the Indian ocean, containing 19,469 square miles. It is separated from the south-eastern extremity of the Coromandel coast by the shallow strait of Manaar, but united to it by Adam's bridge—a remarkable chain of sand-banks. Ceylon lies between the parallels of 5° 50′ and 9° 50′ N. lat., and between 79° 20′ and 81° 50′ E. lon. For the first certain information relating to this island, which is considered as the cradle of the religion of Buddha, we are indebted to the Portuguese Almeyda, who, in 1505, entered a port of Ceylon by accident, and was hospitably received by the natives. The Portuguese were induced to establish commercial settlements in the island, on account of the great quantity of cinnamon which it produced; but their cruelty, their avarice, and their fanaticism, which they evinced in suppressing the religion of the natives, and endeavoring to convert them to Christianity by violence, made them so much abhorred, that the Cingalese, in 1603, assisted the Dutch in driving them out of the island. By the conquest of the principal Portuguese town, Colombo, the Dutch succeeded, in 1656, in expelling the Portuguese. But the gratitude of the natives, at their imagined deliverance, which had induced them to cede the most valuable districts to the Dutch, was soon changed into hatred. Bloody wars ensued, in which the Europeans were the victors, and forced their opponents to seek refuge in the interior of the island, where they remained independent. After Holland had been erected into the Batavian republic by the French, in 1795, the English took possession of this island, and, at the peace of Amiens, in 1802, it was formally ceded to them. In 1815, they subjected the whole of it by the capture of the Cingalese king of Candy, and the conquest of his principal town. The island is subject immediately to the crown. The capital is Colombo. Its coasts are flat and covered with rice-fields, interspersed with forests of cocoa-trees. The interior of the country is traversed by a chain of steep mountains, covered with wood, which divides the island into two almost equal parts, and the highest point of which is the famous Adam's peak (q. v.), or Hamaleel, 6680 feet high, on which the Cingalese and all the Hindoos worship the colossal footsteps of Adam, who, according to their belief, was created there, and, according to the religion of Buddha, is Buddha himself. The island seems to consist of primitive rock. It has many rivers, few of which, however, are navigable, as they are, for the most part, too shallow in the dry season, and too dangerous in the rainy season. The climate is, on the whole, mild and healthy. Although near the equator, the heat is more moderate than on the continent, on account of the sea-breezes. The monsoons give variety to the climate. The difference between the longest and shortest day is not more than 15 minutes. The island produces gold, silver, lead, tin, iron, quicksilver and salt; besides these, about 20 different kinds of precious stones, among them the amethyst, rock crystal, topaz, garnet, ruby, sapphire, hyacinth, turquoise, &c., are brought down by the rivers, after heavy showers in the rainy season. The rich soil produces nearly every plant peculiar to India and the tropical countries. All the tropical fruits grow wild. Rice, tobacco, pepper, sugar, coffee, pisang, tamarinds, several species of palm, the palmyra-tree, ebony, talipot or talpat-trees, with enormous leaves, of which a single one would cover from 15 to 20 people, hemp, die-stuffs, &c., are found here. The chief production, the cinnamon-tree, is peculiar to the island. About 340,000 pounds of cinnamon are annually sent to England. The best and most prolific cinnamon-woods, generally called *cinnamon-gardens*, are situated on the coasts. The annual produce is about 400,000 pounds. The thick forests, which are but seldom visited by men, contain numerous wild beasts—herds of elephants (the hunting of which constitutes a favorite amusement of the Cingalese), ferocious wild boars, leopards, monkeys, jackals, &c. The island is also rich in tame animals, poultry, &c., and the shores abound in fish. The pearl fishery, on the western coast, in the bay of Condatchy, was formerly very prolific. The inhabitants, whose number Colquhoun estimates at 6000 whites and 800,000 natives, but which, according to others, exceeds 2,000,000, are divided (exclusive of strangers settled there) into two principal nations, quite distinct from each other, namely, Weddas (10,000)—a rude people, living in the interior of the forests, without any social order, who neither attend to agriculture, nor the breeding of cattle, but depend on the produce of the chase for support—and the Cingalese, who have attained a certain degree of civilization, practise agriculture, work in iron and gold, weave cotton, and possess a written language. They are divided into certain castes, like the Hindoos, of which each has its separate laws, customs and dress, and are of the religion of Buddha, which is distinguished for its mild spirit, and the

purity of its doctrine. Besides these, there are Hindoos and Moors. The possession of the port of Trincomalee is of much consequence to the British, it being the safest of all the ports in the East Indies. Bishop Heber says of Ceylon, that the country "might be one of the happiest, as it is one of the loveliest, spots in the universe, if some of the old Dutch laws were done away, among which, in my judgment, the most obnoxious are the monopoly of cinnamon, and the compulsory labor of the peasants on the high roads, and other species of *corvées*." He mentions having heard that the number of Christians on the coast, and amongst the English settlements, does not fall short of half a million: very many of these, undoubtedly, are merely nominally such. The church missionary society has four stations on the island. (For many other interesting facts, we must refer the reader to bishop Heber's *Narrative of a Journey through the Upper Provinces of India, from Calcutta to Bombay*, 1824—1825, *with Notes upon Ceylon*, 2 vols., 8vo.; London, 1828; Philadelphia, 1829.)

Chaban (François Louis René Mouchard), count of; born Aug. 1757; counsellor of state, under the emperor Napoleon, and, in 1813, intendant of finances in Hamburg, while this city was under the government of marshal Davoust. Chaban partook in all the violent measures which the officers of the French government thought themselves authorized to adopt, after Napoleon had declared the department containing this city *hors de la loi* (out of the protection of the law), on account of an insurrection which had broken out there. Chaban is known principally on account of certain silver pieces, nominally of the value of two marks, but, in reality, of less, and bearing a date of an earlier period than that at which they were actually made, and called by his name, because he ordered them to be coined out of the silver of the bank which Davoust had taken by force, shortly before the commencement of the siege of Hamburg by the allies. Chaban died in March, 1814, of an hospital-fever, to which he had purposely exposed himself, as he said, on account of grief at his disappointments. After his death, the requisitions of the military governor became still more oppressive.

Chabanon, a member of the French academy, was born at St. Domingo, in 1730, and died at Paris, July 10, 1792. For his deficiency in genius, he made amends by diligence. He translated Pindar and Theocritus, in 1771 et seq. His best works belong to a species of criticism which is characterized by learning and taste, and affords much instruction and amusement, although never aspiring to a lofty elevation. Among these are his *Discours sur Pindare et la Poésie Lyrique* (1769), and *Observations sur la Musique* (1779 and 1785, 2 vols.; his best work). His tragedies, comedies and academical *éloges* are sensible, neat, elegant, but cold.

Chabert, Joseph Bernard, marquis of; a distinguished navigator, astronomer and geographer. He was born at Toulon, Feb. 28, 1724, and entered the marine in 1741. In 1746, he sailed to Acadia (Nova Scotia), with a French squadron. This voyage made him sensible of the imperfection of all the charts of America, that had been attempted. Immediately on his return to Paris, he commenced the study of astronomy, and first introduced the naval officers of France to an acquaintance with a science of great importance to their honor, and often to their safety. In the war which continued till 1748, he obtained the cross of St. Louis. After peace was concluded, he presented to the government a plan for a voyage of observation in the North American seas, which was executed in 1750. (See the result in his astronomical and hydrographical work, entitled, *Voyage sur les Côtes de l'Amérique Septentrionale*, 1753, 4to.) In 1758, he was chosen a member of the academy, and formed the project of a chart of the Mediterranean. He commenced this work in 1764. He was likewise made inspector-general of the naval depots. While he held this office, the celebrated Méchain spent several years, under his direction, in reducing and arranging a great number of observations, which had been made by Chabert, as the foundation for a new atlas of the coasts of the Mediterranean. The American war interrupted the work, and called the brave Chabert to his post, where he distinguished himself so highly, that, in 1781, he was made commander of a squadron. The revolution drove him to England, and he was received by doctor Maskelyne with great kindness. In 1800, he lost his sight, in consequence of his intense application to study, and, in 1802, returned to Paris, where Bonaparte assigned him a pension. In 1804, he was appointed a member of the board of longitude, and, in 1805, he presented to it a map of Greece, and a description of the coasts of that country. Notwithstanding his blindness, his powerful memory ena-

bled him to make additions to the stores of scientific facts. Lalande praises his accuracy in observations, his patience, his diligence, and his courage in overcoming every obstacle, in the highest terms. He died Dec. 2, 1805, of a lung fever.

CHABERT; a Frenchman, who attracted much attention in London, in the autumn of 1829, by swallowing several species of poison, and exposing himself to a great heat in the Argyle rooms, and in various other places, in presence of a large number of persons of respectability. He swallowed, in a manner which precluded the idea of deception, from 10 to 20 grains of phosphorus, and a teaspoonful of prussic acid, before a company including several medical gentlemen. The antidote which he used, he said, was extremely simple, and the newspapers stated that gentlemen of the London medical faculty had been treating with him for the purchase of his secret. Chabert exposed himself to the heat of an oven, from which he brought a thermometer standing at 380°; his pulse was then beating 168 times in a minute. He called himself the *fire king*. (For a more minute account, we must refer the reader to the London papers of that time.)

CHACABUCO, BATTLE OF; celebrated in the history of modern Chile. In the beginning of 1817, the Spaniards were completely masters of Chile, having, in 1813, beaten Carrera, and compelled him, and others, his compatriots, to cross the mountains for safety. But, on the 12th of February, 1817, the troops of San Martin, commanded by O'Higgins, gained a decisive victory over the Spaniards under Maroto, at Chacabuco, which, with that of Maypu, fought afterwards, gave independence to the country. (See *Chile*, *O'Higgins*, *Maypu*.)—Stevenson's *S. Am.*, vol. iii. p. 131.

CHACTAWS. (See *Choctaws*.)

CHÆRONEA; a place in Bœotia, famous for the battle fought there, 338 B. C., between Philip of Macedon and the confederated Greeks. (See *Greece* and *Philip*.)

CHAFALAYA; the western branch of the mouth of the Mississippi, which runs into St. Bernard's bay.

CHAGAING, or CHAGONG; a town of Birmah, on the west bank of the Irrawaddy, opposite to Ava, partly at the foot, and partly on the side of a hill, sometimes the residence of the king; lon. 96° E.; lat. 21° 56′ N. It stands very high, being built on the slope of several hills, the tops of which are covered with numerous temples, most of them ornamented with spires and gilded roofs, forming a beautiful prospect. The houses are of timber, with tiled roofs. The town derives great riches from its quarries of beautiful white marble, and the manufacture of idols. These are chiefly statues of Boodh or Gaudama, the deity of the country, sitting cross-legged on a pedestal. It is likewise a mart for cotton, exported to China.

CHAILLOT; a village which is situated behind the Tuileries, and now included within the limits of Paris. It is ornamented with splendid country-seats and gardens, affording delightful prospects of the Seine and the surrounding country. On the extremity of the *quai Billy*, opposite to the celebrated bridge of Jena (now the bridge of the military school), is the unfinished palace of the king of Rome, commenced by Napoleon at an enormous expense. The ruins of this palace, on entering the city from the side of Versailles, afford a disagreeable prospect, and an unpleasant contrast with the beautiful architecture of the military school, immediately opposite to it. The parish church is the sepulchre of the brave count Josias Rantzau, marshal of France, who was buried here in 1650. The nuns of the order of *Sainte Marie de la visitation* had a celebrated convent here, where persecuted grandeur often sought an asylum. Here died, in 1669, the queen Henrietta of France, daughter of king Henry IV, wife of Charles I king of England, and her niece, the princess Louisa, of the Bavarian palatinate, who, with the other nuns, used to make hay in the neighboring fields.

CHAIN, in surveying, is a measure consisting of a certain number of links of iron wire, serving to take the dimensions of fields, &c.

Chain. In nautical language, *chains* are strong links or plates of iron, the lower ends of which are bolted through a ship's side to the timbers. They are on the outside, and are used to contain the blocks called *dead-eyes*, by which the shrouds of the masts are extended.—*Top chains* are those which preserve the lower yards from falling, when, in time of battle, the ropes are rendered incapable of service.

CHAIN-CABLE. (See *Cable*.)

CHAIN-TIMBER; a timber of large dimensions, placed in the middle of a building, to give it strength.

CHAIN-WALES. (See *Channels*.)

CHAISE, PÈRE DE LA. (See *Lachaise* and *Cemetery*.)

CHALCEDON (at present, the village *Kademki*); under the Roman dominion, a flourishing city in Bithynia, on the north-

west point of Asia Minor, opposite Constantinople, and not far from the present Scutari. At this place, in the autumn of 451, Marcian, the emperor of the East, held the fourth general council, for the purpose of destroying the ascendency of the Monophysite doctrines (see *Monophysites)*, obtained, in 449, by the influence of the Alexandrian patriarch Dioscuros, at the (so called) *robber-synod* at Ephesus; and to establish a creed of Christian faith, which, equally remote from the Nestorian and Monophysite doctrines, should satisfy all parties of orthodox Christians. The emperor's commissioners took the lead, and after them came the legates of the Roman bishop Leo I, who had endeavored to establish articles of faith without the aid of a council, but deemed it judicious to maintain his influence there, and take revenge for the excommunication pronounced against him by Dioscuros. This council, which consisted of 600 bishops, mostly of the East, deposed Dioscuros, and, after violent debates, adopted into their articles of faith, at the instigation of the Roman legate, the tenor of a missive of Leo to Flavian, the former patriarch of Constantinople, directed against Eutyches, the founder of Monophysitism, besides the confessions of faith of the general councils of Nice and Constantinople; also two synodal missives of the former patriarch, Cyril of Alexandria, condemning the Nestorian tenets. The articles of faith settled by them declared the mother of Jesus the parent of God, and established, in opposition to the Monophysites, the belief of two natures in Christ, existing without mixture or change, without division or separation, so that, by the union of the two natures in one person and substance, their distinction is not destroyed, but the characteristics of each are retained. Besides this creed, the council promulgated 30 canons against the abuses of the clergy, of which canons the 28th conceded to the patriarch of Constantinople equal rights and privileges with the Roman, to whom it merely gave precedence of rank; and thus the matter remained, notwithstanding the remonstrances of the Roman legates. Bloody rebellions in Palestine and Egypt were the immediate consequences of the decrees of the council of Chalcedon against Dioscuros and the Monophysites; and not till after a long period of ecclesiastical contests, during which the Monophysites were entirely separated from the orthodox, and formed a distinct church, did the Chalcedon formula of faith obtain the authority which it now has in the Catholic, Greek, and many Protestant churches.

Chalcedony; a mineral including several varieties, which have received distinct names in the arts. It occurs in small veins, or in cavities of other minerals, and appears to have been formed by the filtration of silicious matter.—1. The common chalcedony has a cloudy or milky appearance when held between the eye and the light. It is semitransparent, or only translucent in various degrees. Though sometimes nearly white, its more common color is gray, more or less shaded with blue, yellow, brown, green, &c. The surface is often rough or uneven. Its fracture is usually even, though seldom smooth. It is usually contained in amygdaloid, porphyry, greenstone or basalt, or in the cavities of these rocks. It sometimes traverses them in veins. Sometimes it occurs in metallic veins, also in granite and gneiss. Oberstein, in the palatinate of the Rhine, is one of the best localities. Fine specimens are found in the islands of Faroe. It is found, also, in Vicentino and Iceland, and in Trevascus mine, in Cornwall, in New South Shetland, in Nova Scotia, and in many parts of the U. States. It receives a good polish, and is much used for ring-stones, seals, &c.—2. Another of the principal varieties is carnelian. The prevailing color of this variety is red; sometimes it has a tinge of yellow or brown, or is nearly white. Its colors, or their different shades, sometimes appear in spots or stripes, or gradually pass into each other. It is commonly semitransparent, sometimes only translucent. Its geological situation is similar to that of common chalcedony, which it often accompanies. The finest specimens, sometimes called *Oriental carnelian*, come from Cambay, Surat, &c. in India. It is obtained, also, from Arabia, Siberia, Sardinia and Surinam. It is found on lake Superior near Portage river, in Missouri at Herculaneum, &c., in Massachusetts at Deerfield. It receives a good polish, and is much employed for seals, bracelets, &c. The ancients often engraved on carnelian. —3. Sardonyx differs from carnelian in its color only, which is reddish-yellow, or nearly orange, sometimes with a tinge of brown. It often appears blood-red by transmitted light. It is found in Massachusetts, at Deerfield, in greenstone.

Chaldæa, in ancient geography; the southerly part of Babylonia, towards Arabia and the Persian gulf, lying west of the mouth of the Tigris and Euphrates, formerly a fertile country, now barren. The

Chaldæans were a Semitic tribe, and one of the most famous nations of Asia. They were the first people who worked in metals, and were not destitute of astronomical knowledge. They founded the Babylonian and Assyrian empires. Their name remained with the priesthood of the Babylonians, whose members were employed in the worship of the gods, in expounding their scriptures, prophesying, the practice of medicine, interpreting dreams, also in conjurations, magic, astrology, &c. They kept their knowledge secret from the people. None of their writings have been handed down to us. It is supposed that the Chaldæans were originally called *Kephenians*, and lived on the Caucasus, and that they settled on the Persian gulf about 800 B. C. (See *Babylonia.*)

CHALDÆAN CHRISTIANS. (See *Sects*, *Syrian Christians*, and *Christians of St. Thomas.*)

CHALK. (See *Lime.*)

CHALLENGE, to jurors, is an objection either to the whole panel or array, that is, the whole body of jurors returned, or to the *polls*, that is, to the jurors individually; and it is either *peremptory*, that is, without assigning any reason, or *for cause* assigned. A peremptory challenge is allowed to be made only by the party accused, and not by the government, or prosecuting officer, and only in capital cases; and is said to be permitted on the ground that a man is liable to conceive a prejudice against another from his mere looks and appearance, for which he can give no reason; and such may be the case of the accused; and it is conceded in favor of life, that, in such case, he may exclude the juror without assigning any reason; and also on the ground that, by questioning a juror as to any objection to him, his prejudice may be thereby excited against the prisoner, who, to save himself from the effect of such prejudice, is permitted to have him rejected. The ground on which peremptory challenge is allowed, supposes the prisoner's life to be in danger, and he is not entitled to it if he pleads in bar or abatement; for the trial of these pleas does not decide on his life. He must, before making such challenge, plead "not guilty," or some plea, the trial of which decides on his life. Having pleaded such a plea, the accused might, by the common law, peremptorily challenge 35 jurors; but the statute of Henry VIII, c. 14, limited the number to 20, in felony, and the limitation is to this number in some of the U. States. By the act of congress of April 30, 1790, a peremptory challenge of 35 jurors is allowed in trials for treason, and 20 in those cases of felony mentioned in the statute. A challenge of the whole panel may be made, because the jury is illegally drawn or summoned, whereby it is not a legal jury; and a challenge of this description may be made by the government as well as by the prisoner. Challenge to the polls may be made both in civil and criminal suits for cause, as that the juror is an alien, not from the proper district, not duly qualified as a freeholder, not of suitable age, &c., or is near akin to one of the parties, is biased, has been guilty of felony, is interested, or is subject to any other exception, according to the common principles of proceeding, or the provisions of any statute on the subject. In court-martials, a prisoner who objects to either of the judges must assign his reasons. In other words, peremptory challenges are not allowed in these courts. The privilege of challenging here belongs equally to the prisoner and the prosecutor. The right of challenging the members of a court-martial prevails on the continent of Europe, as well as in England and America.

Challenge to fight a duel is punishable, in England, with fine and imprisonment. In several of the U. States, this offence is subject to the additional punishment of ineligibility to any public office, either for life or for a limited term. (See *Duel.*)

CHALONS. There are two considerable cities of this name in France—Chalons-sur-Sâone and Chalons-sur-Marne. The latter is the most important. Anciently it was called *Catalaunum*. It lies on the river Marne, and is the capital of the department of the Marne. It is 20¼ miles east of Paris; lon. 4° 22′ E.; lat. 48° 57′ N.; population, 10,784. Before the revolution, it was the see of a bishop, and chief place of the generality of Champagne. It has manufactures of coarse woollen cloth, is well built, and contains a Gothic cathedral, 10 churches, a public library of 30,000 volumes, a museum, a botanic garden, and a cabinet of natural history. Attila, the Scourge of God, was here defeated by the Romans after an obstinate and sanguinary contest.

CHALOTAIS, Louis René de Caradeuc de la; attorney-general at the parliament of Rennes. He was born at Rennes, March 6, 1701, and died July 12, 1785. He is celebrated chiefly for the legal process against him, which accelerated the approach of the French revolution. By the force of his eloquence and the in-

dependence of his principles, Chalotais gained the esteem of the people, and, after the 60th year of his age, excited general attention by the attack which he commenced against the Jesuits. The French court had given them permission to remain in the kingdom, but sought to weaken their influence. D'Alembert, Duclos, Condillac, Mably, Montesquieu and Diderot, the friends of Chalotais, strove to effect the abolition of the order in France. But it was attacked with the greatest violence in Chalotais' celebrated work, which first appeared in 1761, and has been frequently reprinted—*Comptes rendus des Constitutions des Jésuites;* which he first read, in his official capacity, before the parliament of Rennes. His example was followed in the other parliaments, and the consequence was a dissolution of the order. Chalotais was supported, in this process, by that hatred which infallibly attends the abuse of power, and particularly by the numerous Jansenists in France, who had so long opposed the Jesuits. He was aided, also, by the irresolution of the court, and the envy of the other religious orders. In vain did Caveyrac, who attempted, at first, to justify the repeal of the edict of Nantes, write in defence of the Jesuits; in vain did Menoue, Griffet, and the ingenious Cerutti, of their own party, plead the services which they had rendered to the cause of God and to the throne of France, and the brilliant talents which had been developed in their schools. The independent character of Chalotais soon gave his enemies an opportunity of revenging themselves, when a dispute arose between the court and the parliament of Rennes, on account of the refusal of the latter to register certain financial edicts which seemed to infringe the privileges of the duchy of Bretagne. After serving his country for 36 years, Chalotais was arrested with his son and five counsellors of the parliament, who favored his cause, and thrown into prison. He suffered this treatment as the supposed author of several anonymous letters to one of the ministry, in which the style of a person of the lowest class was imitated. The prisoner in vain protested his innocence in several memorials (1766 et seq.), seconded by the pen of Voltaire and the public voice. The commission appointed to examine him published their proceedings, and condemned him before the regular forms of law had been all complied with. Calonne, the minister who conducted the process, and the duke of Aiguillon, governor of the province, were the personal enemies of the prisoner. The parliament of Rennes was dissolved, and a new one summoned, which assumed the right of judging in the case of Chalotais. But the process had scarcely commenced, when the greatest part of the judges refused to serve; the rest, 13 in number, were refused by the prisoner on account of their partiality to the side of the prosecution. The voice of the people at length prevailed. The remonstrances of the court, and of the duke of Choiseul, determined the king to put a stop to the proceedings. The prisoners were banished to Saintes. Chalotais was requested to resign his office, but he refused. The parliament of Rennes desired the reinstatement of all its members. New pamphlets, in relation to the suit, appeared every day, and 150 distributors of them were imprisoned in the Bicêtre. The officers of government at length grew weary of burning the numerous publications, or, as it was said publicly, of burning the truth. From this tedious prosecution of the attorney-general, a new action arose. The parliament of Rennes commenced a process against the governor, the duke of Aiguillon. Louis XVI, the succeeding king, set the attorney at liberty. After 10 years of persecution, he was reinstated in his office at Rennes. The whole process against Chalotais was characterized by weakness as much as by tyranny, and indicated the approaching ruin of a despotism which had lost its energy. In 1826, a Jesuit writer in Paris assailed the character of Chalotais anew. A prosecution was commenced against him by the heirs of the accused, and he was brought in guilty.

Chamade, in military language (generally derived from the Italian *chiamare*, to call), is a signal, either by beat of drum or sound of trumpet, to obtain a conference, when any matter is to be proposed to the enemy.

Chamber. Forcellini defines *camera* an arched roof or ceiling; Herodotus uses the word καμάρα, to signify a covered wagon; Ottfried and Notker, two early German writers, use *kammer* to denote a vaulted chamber, the keeper of which, as early as the time of king Dagobert, was called *camerarius*. The public treasury of the princes was called, in the 10th century, *camera;* and in German, down to the present period, those sciences, an acquaintance with which is essential to the proper administration of the different departments of government, are called *cameral-wissenschaften*. Words derived from

the Latin term *camera* are common in modern European languages: thus *camera* in Italian; in French, *chambre;* in English, *chamber;* in German, *kammer;* in Spanish, *camara;* in Swedish, *kamar.* In many languages, *chamber* is used to designate a branch of government whose members assemble in a common apartment: thus we have the *camera apostolica,* in Rome; *camara de justicia,* in Spain; *chambre des députés,* in France; *kammergericht,* in Germany, &c.—*Chamber of a cannon,* in artillery; that part of the bore of a cannon which receives the powder with which it is charged.—*Chamber of a mortar;* the space where the powder lies.—*Chamber of a mine;* the place where the charge of powder is lodged that is to be used for blowing up the works.—*Chamber of a battery;* a place sunk under ground to hold the powder, bombs, &c., so as to preserve them from rain or moisture.—*Chamber of a lock* is the space between the gates of a lock in a canal, in which the barge rises and sinks, so as to pass the lock.

Chamber of Deputies. (See *Charte Constitutionnelle.*)

Chamber of Peers. (See *Charte Constitutionnelle.*)

Chamber, Imperial. The imperial chamber (in German, *Reichskammergericht*) was a court of the German empire, established at Wetzlar, near the Rhine. It was instituted by the emperor Maximilian I, in 1495. In 1806, when the German empire was dissolved, this court, of course, expired. The imperial chamber had concurrent jurisdiction with the aulic council (q. v.) at Vienna, and was intended, among other things, to adjust the disputes between the different independent members of the German empire, and also such as arose between them and the emperor. The intention of this establishment certainly was good, and its effect, at first, beneficial. But the immense mass of cases which came before it, together with the national pedantry of the Germans, eventually occasioned the protraction of the processes to an interminable length. By the conditions of the peace of Westphalia, after the thirty years' war, particularly by the treaty of Osnaburg, in 1648, the imperial chamber was composed of a Catholic judge, 4 presidents, named by the emperor (2 Catholic and 2 Protestant), and 50 counsellors, 26 of whom were Catholics, and the rest Protestants. After that time, the members of the court were much reduced. The sentences were without appeal, but were often powerless, because the different German princes frequently refused to allow them to be executed in their territories. The history of the imperial chamber affords another instance of the correctness of Napoleon's judgment in dissolving the fabric of the German empire, conformably to the demands of the age.

Chamberlain; a court officer, originally employed, as the name indicates, either to take charge of the private apartments of the king, or of the treasury, called, in the 10th century, *camera.* (See *Chamber.*) The golden key, which is worn by the chamberlains of the European courts on two small golden buttons (as well as the buttons themselves, when the key is omitted), indicates, also, the origin of the office. At present, their employment (when their office is not merely nominal) is to attend on the persons of the princes and their consorts. There is generally a chief or high chamberlain. This officer, in England, is called *lord great chamberlain of England.* His office is one of great antiquity and honor, being ranked as the sixth great office of the English crown. He dresses and undresses the king before and after the coronation. There exists, also, a lord chamberlain of the household, a lord chamberlain of the queen's household, &c. In fact, there are almost as many chamberlains as chambers.—*Chamberlain of London* is the officer who keeps the city money, which is laid up in a chamber of London, in Guildhall. He also presides over the affairs of masters and apprentices, makes free of the city, &c.

Chamberry, or Chamberi (anciently *Cameria, Camerium,* and *Cameriacum*); capital of Savoy, at the conflux of two small rivers, near the Isere; 12½ posts E. Lyons; lon. 5° 55′ E.; lat. 45° 26′ N.; population, 11,991; houses, 1985. It is a bishop's see. It contains a cathedral, 2 parish churches, 14 convents, 4 hospitals, a college, and a public library. In its vicinity are excellent baths, much frequented in summer. It is situated in a delightful valley, and is defended by a castle placed on an eminence. Its suburbs are large and elegant; all the houses have piazzas. It has considerable manufactures and distilleries.—At this place the emperor Sigismund erected the earldom of Savoy into a dukedom, and it was once the residence of the princes; but, after the court was removed to Turin, it lost its splendor.

Chambers, Ephraim; a miscellaneous writer, and compiler of a popular diction-

ary of arts and sciences. He was a native of Milton, in Westmoreland, and was educated at a school at Kendal, under the father of the celebrated bishop Watson. On leaving school, he was apprenticed to J. Senex, a mathematical instrument and globe maker in London. Here he acquired such a taste for the study of science, and made so much proficiency in it, that he not only formed the design of compiling his famous Cyclopædia, but actually wrote some of the articles for it behind his master's counter. The first edition of this work was published in 1728, in 2 vols. folio; and Chambers was soon after chosen F. R. S. Two subsequent editions, in 1738 and 1739, appeared previously to his death, which happened May 15, 1740. Several improved editions of the Cyclopædia have been published, and it has served as the basis of many subsequent works. (See *Rees, Abraham.*)

Chambers. (See *Houses of Legislature*, and *Charte Constitutionnelle.*)

Chambord; a castle, park and village, with the surrounding territory, comprising 5000 acres of forest and 23 farms: the whole ground embraces 11,000 acres. It is situated in the department of Loire-and-Cher, near Blois. It was intended by the French nation as a present to the son of the murdered duke of Berry, the young duke of Bordeaux; but the conduct of the ministry in this affair did not meet with the approbation of the public. The splendid castle of Chambord is situated in the middle of a park, enclosed by walls extending eight leagues. It contains 440 rooms, 13 large staircases, and stalls for the reception of 1200 horses. It was built, in the Gothic style, by Primation, for Francis I, and completed under Louis XIV. Here Francis I indulged his inclination for gallantry; here the arts first sprung to life in France; and here king Stanislaus Leczinsky resided for nine years. In 1745, it was given by Louis XV to marshal Saxe, who died there in 1750. The emperor Napoleon gave the domains of Chambord to the prince of Wagram (Berthier), and constituted it the principality of Wagram. When the widow of the marshal offered the estate for sale, a company was formed, which bought it for 1,542,000 francs, and gave it to the duke of Bordeaux in the name of the people of France, on the day of his baptism, May 1, 1821. Several lithographic prints of Chambord, with descriptions, were published by Engelmann, Paris, 1822; also a large lithograph by Isabey, the largest of the kind in France.

Chambre ardente (*French;* burning chamber); formerly, in France, a chamber in which state prisoners of high rank were tried by torch-light. The chamber was hung with black cloth. When Francis II, in the 16th century, established a court to try the Protestants, who were usually condemned to be burnt, the people called this court, likewise, *chambre ardente*, in allusion to its sentences.

Chambre introuvable (*French;* the chamber not to be found); an appellation that was bestowed, in ridicule, on the French chamber of deputies, which met after the second restoration of Louis XVIII, for its coldness and anti-nationality. This appellation has been preserved. The party opposed to the principles of the revolution were extravagant in their exultation, on account of their triumph; but this reaction lasted only from June 28, 1815, to Sept. 6, 1816. In the proclamation dated from Cambray, the king had already sought to quiet the nation in respect to various apprehensions, which may have contributed to the events of March, 1815. It was conceded that the government had, perhaps, been deficient; the ministry was to acquire more unity by means of a president; the report of the intended reëstablishment of tithes and feudal rights was declared unfounded; the purchasers of the national domains were once more assured of the inviolability of their property; and a promise was made, that all classes of people should be eligible to the offices of state, and even to those immediately connected with the court. After the second return of the king, prince Talleyrand was appointed president of the ministerial council. The other ministers were Louis, Pasquier, Gouvion St. Cyr, Jaucourt, the duke of Richelieu and Fouché. The chamber of deputies was dissolved, the number of deputies increased from 262 to 402, intermediate bodies of electors established for the choice of the members of the chamber of deputies, and the choice placed wholly in the hands of the richest persons of each department. Before the chambers actually convened, the scenes in the south of France, the massacre of the Mamelukes at Marseilles, of the Protestants at Nismes, and of marshal Brune at Avignon, showed what a savage spirit had broken loose. In August, the ministry was again changed. The duke of Richelieu became president; Decazes took Fouché's place; Clarke, duke of Feltre, was made minister of war; Barbé-Marbois, Dubouchage and Corvetto took the places of Pasquier,

Jaucourt and Louis. The perpetrators of the massacres in the south remained unpunished. A royal ordinance, indeed, of Nov. 21, commanded that the murderers of general Lagarde, and the authors of the other atrocities at Nismes, should be brought to trial; but of 18 persons accused, only two were actually tried. On the other hand, Ney atoned with his life for his inconstancy, although it admitted of much extenuation, and notwithstanding the capitulation of Paris, which had declared a general amnesty for all political crimes. On Oct. 7, the session of the chamber of deputies was opened: the choice of them had been guided by the same spirit which now prevailed in their proceedings. All the measures which seemed to favor a relapse to the old state of things, and which could serve as instruments of revenge and persecution, were adopted without discussion, and even demanded. This was the case with the laws of Nov. 9, 1815, respecting the punishment of seditious proclamations; of Dec. 20, respecting the restoration of the *cours prévôtales*; of Jan. 11, 1816, respecting the banishment of the regicides; and of May 8, respecting the abolition of divorce. A host of subordinate officers, who had never taken an active part in public affairs, were removed from their employments, on the pretence of their entertaining revolutionary sentiments; and Clarke, the minister of war, acted altogether arbitrarily in the new organization of the army, degrading meritorious officers and promoting others. The disadvantageous peace of Nov. 20, 1815, the great burden which the foreign armies imposed on the people, and the great scarcity which prevailed, augmented the disaffection thereby occasioned. Disturbances broke out at Grenoble, Toulouse and Lyons, which cost some hundreds of misguided peasants their lives, while their true authors remained undiscovered. The government became finally aware that they could no longer proceed in this course without risking a general eruption. The ministers Vaublanc and Barbé-Marbois were superseded by Lainé and Dambray, and the minister Decazes soon obtained a decisive influence. It being necessary for him to possess a majority in the chamber of deputies, the chamber was dissolved, Sept. 5, 1816, by an ordinance of the king, and the deputies, at the same time, reduced to the number of 258. The law of Feb. 5, 1817, subsequently established new rules for elections, which, for a time, seemed to keep the two leading parties in a kind of equilibrium; but, as apprehensions were entertained that it might enable the constitutionalists to obtain the superiority, they were compelled to yield to their opponents, by the new law of election of 1820.

CHAMELEON (*chamæleo*, Daud.); a genus of reptiles belonging to the *saurian* or lizard-like order, a native of parts of Asia and Africa. The very remarkable power which these animals possess of changing their color, and at pleasure producing a succession of rich and beautifully varied tints over the whole body, at a very early period called the attention of observers to their habits. Aristotle, the great Greek naturalist, who never was equalled except by George Cuvier, has left a very perfect description of the chameleon, in the 11th chapter of his 2d book on the history of animals. Various poets and fabulists have, at different periods, contributed to its celebrity, and, by inaccurate or fanciful representations, have rendered it far more of a prodigy than nature ever designed it to be.—The skin of the chameleon is composed of a sort of small, scaly grains, and, under ordinary circumstances, is of a greenish-gray color. The general form of the body reminds one of the lizard, but the trunk is compressed, and the back highly ridged or cutting. The occiput, or posterior part of the head, is elevated pyramidically; the eyes are large, projecting far outwards, yet almost entirely covered over by the skin, except immediately opposite the pupil. What is still more singular, the eyes are capable of moving independently of each other, taking different directions at the same moment. There is no visible external ear; the tongue is fleshy, cylindrical, and capable of great elongation; the teeth are trilobate. The first ribs unite with the sternum, the succeeding with their correspondents of the opposite side, enclosing the abdomen in a perfect circle. Each of the feet has five toes, but these are separated into two portions (one containing two and the other three toes) by the skin, which covers them entirely to the nails. The tail is long, round and prehensile, or capable of grasping twigs or branches, to sustain the animal. The lungs of the chameleon are vesicular, and so large that, when inflated to the utmost, the whole body becomes almost transparent. With the different degrees of inflation, the surface undergoes changes of color, owing to the variations produced in the distribution of the blood, and not, as has been fabled, by the animal assuming

the color of the body upon which it happens to be placed. It is scarcely possible to witness any thing more curious or beautiful than the rapid transitions from hue to hue, exhibited by the chameleon, when aroused to motion. The chameleons are all exceedingly slow, dull, and almost torpid. The only part which they move with celerity is their long tongue. This organ is clothed, at its extremity, with a viscid, gluey mucus, and is darted out for the purpose of capturing insects, upon which the animal subsists. As they feed but seldom, and are frequently seen inhaling the air, to inflate their bodies as above-mentioned, ancient observers concluded that they fed altogether on air; but closer attention to their habits has shown that they require a diet rather more substantial. The specimens occasionally brought alive to the U. States, rarely survive the first winter after their arrival, though they take food without much difficulty. Three or four species are well known, and are natives of Africa and the Molucca islands. They pass their lives altogether upon trees, feeding upon small insects, for which their construction shows them to be perfectly adapted. Doubtless new species will be added to the catalogue, as the countries of which they are natives shall be more fully explored.

Chamisso, Adalbert de, a naturalist and circumnavigator of the world, born 1781, in Champagne, left France, with his parents, during the revolution, and found a new home at Berlin. He entered the Prussian army, afterwards studied, and became intimate with many of the first German literati. In 1813, he wrote the singular tale, called *Peter Schlemihl*, the history of a man who had lost his shadow, which is translated into English. Chamisso went as naturalist on the voyage of discovery, made at the expense of the Russian chancellor count Romanzoff. He sailed from Cronstadt in 1815, and returned to Berlin in 1818, where he received an appointment in the botanical garden. His *Bemerkungen und Ansichten*, Weimar, 1821, 4to. (Observations and Opinions) during the voyage of discovery, occupy the 3d volume of the work which contains the account of the voyage. Chamisso is also the author of some very pretty German poems.

Chamois (*antilope rupicapra*, Pall.); a well-known species of the genus *antelope* (q. v.), found only in high, mountainous regions, where they feed, in small flocks or families, on the highest cliffs affording vegetation, which are almost inaccessible to man. The chamois are exceedingly shy, and have very acute senses, so that it is only by great patience and skill, that the hunter can come sufficiently near to shoot them. They are so swift, and leap with so much vigor, and with such sureness of foot, as to render it impossible to overtake them in a fair chase. Hence the hunters of the Alps, where a few of this species are still found, are obliged to encounter the greatest perils in pursuit of this favorite game; and, owing to the occurrence of sudden fogs, storms, avalanches, and various accidents, may always be regarded as placing their lives in great jeopardy. Chamois are found among the mountains of the Caucasian range, and among the heights of the Himalaya, in greater abundance than in the Alps and Pyrenees, where they are so closely pursued. Their flesh is considered a very superior article of food; but whether it is in fact much better than that of other animals of the antelope or deer kind, may reasonably be doubted. The skin of the chamois is wrought into a soft, pliable leather, well known by the name of the animal furnishing it. During the winter, the chamois keeps in the caverns and hollows of the rocks. Its voice is a short, sharp whistling or blowing. Two and sometimes three young are produced at a birth.—The chamois is about three feet in length, and two feet high; its head resembles that of the domestic goat, but the nostrils are less, and the upper lip not so prominent. It has no muzzle nor beard. The horns are six or seven inches long, round, almost smooth, at first straight and perpendicular, and suddenly terminating in a hook directed backwards, and slightly downwards. There are no *larmiers*,* nor cutaneous appendages or glands, in front of the lower part of the neck. The skin is clothed with two sorts of hair—a very abundant and brownish woolly, and a dry and frangible, silky hair, varying with the seasons, upon the body exclusively, of a rather deep-brown in winter, of a brown fawn color in summer, and slightly gray in the spring. Both sorts of hair are gray at the base throughout the year. The head is of a pale-yellow color, excepting a black-brown band, which commences near the nose, and ends at the base of the horns and ears, after surrounding the eyes. The tail is black. The inside of the thighs and the ears are white. The hoofs are concave beneath, and terminate by a projecting

* The *larmier* is a construction appended to the eyes of various animals of the deer kind, &c., for which there is no English name. Its use is unknown.

edge, especially on the outside. The female closely resembles the male, except that she is much smaller. The kids are of a deep yellowish color, having the under jaw, both sides of the head, and the throat, white. There is a black band, beginning at the corner of the mouth on each cheek, surrounding the eye, and ending on the forehead, without meeting the band of the other side; end of the tail black; thighs white; a dorsal line, crossed by a transverse one, upon the shoulders.

CHAMOMILE. (See *Camomile.*)

CHAMOMILE, ROMAN (*anthemis nobilis*, Lin.); a perennial plant, native of Europe, and flowering in June or July. Chamomile flowers, such as they are found in the shops, are white, desiccated, of a very aromatic and rather pleasant smell, and of a very bitter and warm taste. They contain an essential oil, of a fine blue color, a gummo-resinous principle, camphor, and tannin. Water and alcohol dissolve their active principles. The Roman chamomile is a moderately energetic stimulant, possessing, on account of its bitterness, some tonic properties, which have rendered it a popular remedy for a number of diseases. It is employed with success to stimulate the digestive functions in dyspepsia, chlorosis, gout, in flatulent colics, &c. It is also advantageously used in slight intermittent fevers, and spasmodic affections. A strong infusion, taken warm, and in a large quantity, provokes vomiting; in consequence of which it is used in this manner, especially in North America and England, in order to assist the action of emetics. It is also administered with advantage as an anthelmintic. The common chamomile (*matricaria chamomilla*, Lin.) is now out of use. (See *Camomile.*)

CHAMOUNI, CHAMOUNIS, CHAMOUNIX, or CHAMOIX; a town of Savoy, in Upper Faucigny; 12 miles E. S. E. Chamberry, 42 S. E. Geneva; population, 1500. It is situated in a celebrated vale, which lies N. of mont Blanc, S. E. of the lake of Geneva; 18 miles long, and 1½ broad. The river Arve flows through the centre of it. The scenery surrounding the vale is unrivalled in beauty and grandeur. It is 3300 feet above the sea. It is visited by all travellers in Switzerland.

CHAMPAGNE; before the revolution, a country of France, bordered E. by Lorraine and Franche-Comté, S. by Burgundy and Nivernois, W. by the Isle of France and Picardy, and N. by Flanders. It is about 195 miles in length, and 135 broad. The land is fertile, and produces the celebrated wine called after its name; also much grain and pasturage. Troyes was the capital. Population, 1,200,000. Square miles, 11,880. It now forms the whole of the departments of Ardennes, Marne, Upper Marne, Aube, and part of those of Yonne and Seine-and-Marne. (See *Champaign.*)

CHAMPAGNE, Philip, an eminent painter, born at Brussels, in 1602, went to Paris in 1621, where he was afterwards appointed painter to the queen Maria de Medicis, who gave him the direction of the paintings for the Luxembourg. He commenced the *Galerie des Hommes illustres.* In the suburb St. Jacques he painted six pictures for the Carmelites. Their church contains a crucifix by him, which, though painted on a horizontal surface, appears to the most practised eye to be perpendicular. The paintings in the dome of the Sorbonne are among his best works. He was director of the academy of fine arts. When he began to feel the infirmities of age, he retired to the Port Royal, where his daughter was a nun. She afforded him the subject for a beautiful painting. She is represented seated, a protracted fever having brought her to the verge of death, given up by the physicians. She is praying with a sister of the convent, and regains her health. The figure of the daughter, particularly her head, is of extraordinary beauty. The museum of Paris possesses, besides this painting, six others of the same artist, among which are a *Lord's Supper* and a *Mater Dolorosa.* Numerous works of his are also to be found at Paris, and scattered through many towns of France. Champagne was very conscientious. He would never paint naked figures. He deserves a very high place amongst the painters of the Flemish school. He died in 1674.

CHAMPAGNE is a wine which is made chiefly in the department of the Marne, in the *ci-devant* province Champagne, and is commonly divided into river and mountain wines (*vins de la rivière de Marne*, and *vins de la montagne de Reims*); the former being, for the most part, white, the latter, red. Not all of these wines are sparkling or frothing, though by the name *champagne*, is generally understood such wine as has been subjected to an imperfect fermentation, and contains a quantity of carbonic acid gas, generated during the insensible fermentation in the bottle, which is disengaged on removing the pressure by which it was detained in solution. The briskest wines are not always the best; they are, of course, the most defective in true vinous quality; and the small portion

of alcohol which they contain immediately escapes from the froth as it rises on the surface, carrying with it the aroma, and leaving the liquor that remains in the glass nearly vapid. For it has been shown, by Humboldt, that, when the froth is collected under a bell-glass surrounded with ice, the alcohol becomes condensed on the sides of the vessel. Hence the still or the creaming or slightly sparkling Champagne wines (*vins crémans*, or *demi-mousseux*) are more highly valued by connoisseurs, and fetch greater prices than the full-frothing wines (*vins grand mousseux*). By icing these wines before they are used, the tendency to effervesce is in some degree repressed; but, when they are kept cool, this precaution is unnecessary. In general, it may be observed that the vineyards on the banks of the Marne supply the choicest wines, and that the quality degenerates in proportion as they recede from the river. Among the white wines of Champagne, the first rank is generally assigned to those of Sillery, the produce of the vineyards of Verzenay, Mailli, Raumont, &c. Of the Reims mountain wines, those of Verzi, Verzenay, Mailli, Bouzy and St. Basle, are most esteemed; but the Clos St. Thierry furnishes perhaps the finest red Champagne. The name *Jolly champagne*, under which, at present, a large quantity of the best champagne is sold in the U. States, does not originate from a place in Champagne, but from the owner of extensive vineyards in that province, who exports much champagne to the U. States. The soil of the principal vineyards throughout Champagne is composed of a loose marl, resting on chalk, and sometimes mixed with flints. For the manufacture of the white Champagne wines, black grapes are now generally used. In making the red wines, the grapes are trodden before they are introduced into the vat. Champagne, when well made, and placed in cool cellars, will retain its good qualities from 10 to 20 years. (For further information respecting this delicious liquor, and the art of making it, see A. Henderson's *History of Ancient and Modern Wines*, London, 1824, 1 vol., 4to.).

Champarty, or Champerty (*campi partitio*, because the parties in champarty agree to divide the land, &c., in question), is a bargain with the plaintiff or defendant in any suit, to have part of the land, debt, or other thing sued for, if the party that undertakes it prevails therein; whereupon the champertor is to carry on the party's suit at his own expense. It is a species of maintenance, and punished in the same manner. (See *Maintenance*.)

Champ Clos. This was, from the commencement of modern history, and long afterwards, a place authorized by the laws made by sovereigns for the purpose, and consecrated to particular combats between those who wished to determine, in that manner, either a lawsuit or dispute of honor. This name was also given to the place set apart for tournaments.

Champ d'Asile; a settlement of French soldiers, in the province of Texas, which was put down in its infancy by the government of Mexico, because Spain was unwilling to permit its existence on the borders of that state. In October, 1818, the colonists were dispersed by a party of Spanish troops. General Lallemand, who was banished from France, and resided in New Orleans, collected them again, and led most of them to a colony established by French emigrants on the Tombigbee, in the state of Alabama. The district where they settled, and part of which they purchased, while the rest was granted them, was called *Marengo*, and the capital which they built was called *Aigleville*. Aigleville was founded principally under the direction of generals Clauzel and Lefebvre Desnouettes. In the treaty concluded by the U. States with Spain, in 1819, respecting the cession of Florida, Texas was given up, without reserve, to New Spain. At the same time, the republic of Texas was formed, under a president, general James Long, who was joined by several Frenchmen from the Champ d'Asile. The capital was *Nacodoches*. This republic, likewise, was soon dissolved, and general Long returned to the U. States. Texas, at present, belongs to the United Mexican States, forming a part of the state of Santander. (See *Texas* and *San Felipe*.)

Champ-de-Bataille (*field of battle*), in military language, is the ground on which an action is fought. The commander who obliges his adversary to quit this ground, and abandon it to him, obtains the victory.

Champ-de-Mars, or de-Mai (*campus Martius*). The *campus Martius* was a large field on the Tiber, in ancient Rome, near the modern Ponte Molle. After the expulsion of the last king, who was the owner, it was consecrated to Mars, and served the Roman youth for a place of military exercise. The people used to assemble there for the election of magistrates, and the place was adorned with splendid buildings and rows of pillars. At a short distance appeared the tomb of Augustus and the Pantheon, now the *Maria rotunda*. When the Franks had conquer-

ed the Gauls, in 486, they held their public assemblies, according to the German custom, in the open air. In the fifth and succeeding centuries, these assemblies were called, from the time of meeting, *March-fields*. In the 8th century, they were transferred by Pepin, the father of Charlemagne, to the month of May, and called the *May-fields;* but the plain where the Frankish kings annually reviewed the army, had the name of the *field of Mars*, or the *campus Martius*. At the May-fields, the king was present with the members of his court, the bishops, the nobles, and the people. The latter, however, long neglected the privilege of attendance, and were at length deprived of it. All questions relating to public affairs, such as war, peace, the enactment of laws, were decided by the majority. Pepin called together only the nobility and the clergy; but Charlemagne ordered that every count should bring with him 13 assessors, or the same number of the most respectable men within his jurisdiction, to represent the people in the general assembly. The first descendants of Capet departed from this usage; but Philip IV, who reigned from 1285 to 1314, restored the third estate, by calling together delegates from the cities.—The modern Champ-de-Mars in Paris is an extensive plain, surrounded by trenches, and furnished with a fourfold row of trees on each side of it. The French guards, and the young men in the military school, used it for their place of exercise. During the revolution, public festivals were celebrated, and races took place here. Even Louis XVI and his family took part in the preparations made here, in 1790, for a great *fête de la fédération*, which was succeeded by scenes of tumult and bloodshed. In 1815, Napoleon selected the Champ-de-Mars for the scene of a general assembly of the French of the 19th century. He determined, after his return from Elba, to lay before the representatives of the nation the articles of a supplementary constitution, called the *Acte additionnel*, which he had drawn up in the form of the Frankish capitularies, and thus, by an imposing show, to establish the legality of his second accession to the throne. This meeting was held June 1, 1815. After a solemn mass, Dubois, one of the 500 deputies from the central committees of the electoral colleges, read an address expressive of the allegiance of the French people to the government of Napoleon. The high chancellor then made known the assent of the people to the proposed supplement to the constitution. Although no deputies appeared from 40 of the departments, the herald announced that the *acte* was accepted by the French nation. Accordingly Napoleon signed it, and declared, in a speech before the assembly, that he enjoyed his distinction as an emperor, a consul, a soldier, in fine, that he received every thing, from the people. He then swore to observe the fundamental laws of the empire, and to enforce their observance. The whole assembly, consisting of about 20,000 persons, repeated the oath. Then a *Te Deum* was chanted, and Napoleon distributed the eagles to the national guards, and the sea and land forces, who were drawn up around him in the form of squadrons and battalions. Inclusive of 27,000 national guards, the whole number amounted to 50,000 men. After this festival, which partook of a political, religious and military character, Napoleon assembled the chamber of peers, and of the deputies of the people. Three weeks after the commencement of the session, the chamber received the abdication of the emperor.

Champe, John, was born in Loudon county, Virginia, and, in the year 1776, at the age of 24, having entered into the revolutionary army, was appointed a sergeant-major in Lee's regiment of cavalry. After the discovery of Arnold's treason, Washington received frequent intelligence that many American officers, and one brigadier, high in his confidence, were concerned in the conspiracy, and, wishing to ascertain whether such was the case, or the report only an artifice of the British general to weaken his confidence in his officers, he desired major Lee to select from his legion some bold and trusty individual, who should proceed to the enemy's army in the character of a deserter, make himself known to one of Washington's confidential agents in New York, obtain, through his means, evidence of the innocence or guilt of the suspected officers, and transmit the result to major Lee. He was also to seize Arnold, and convey him alive to the American camp, but by no means to kill him, as Washington only wished him to undergo public punishment, and hoped that, by his arrest, he would be able to unravel the conspiracy, and save the life of Andre. Lee fixed upon Champe to execute the project, who expressed his readiness to encounter any personal danger for the cause of his country, but loathed the idea of desertion. Lee, however, finally induced him to undertake the hazardous service. Having taken down his instructions in a peculiar character, and

passed the American lines with great difficulty, he reached the British galleys lying below Paulus Hook, hotly pursued by his comrades as a deserter. After an examination by sir Henry Clinton, he was consigned to the care of general Arnold, who retained him in his former rank. One object of his enterprise—the preservation of Andre—was defeated by the precipitancy of that officer in confessing the nature of his connexion with Arnold, before preparations could be made for the abduction of the latter. Champe, however, obtained full evidence of the innocence of the American officers, and resolved on making a bold attempt to carry off Arnold. But, unfortunately, on the very night when the design was to have been executed, by seizing and gagging Arnold in a private garden, where he was accustomed to spend some time previous to retiring to rest, and then conveying him secretly to a boat, which Lee had stationed in the Hudson, he shifted his quarters in order to superintend the embarkation of some troops, and thus the plot was frustrated. On the junction of Arnold with lord Cornwallis in Virginia, Champe found an opportunity of escaping to the army of general Greene, who provided him with means to return to Washington's camp, where he safely arrived, to the surprise and joy of his old confederates. When Washington assumed the command of the army under president Adams, he caused inquiry to be made concerning Champe, designing to reward him by promotion for his exemplary conduct; but he learned, with sorrow, that he had recently died in Kentucky.

Champfort, Sébastien Roch Nicolas, was born in 1741, in a village near Clermont, in Auvergne, and went, while he was young, to Paris. He was then called *Nicolas*, and of his parents knew only his mother, for whom he always retained the tenderest affection. Doctor Morabin was his first patron and instructer. With beautiful features, and an active mind, ingenious, and impatient of restraint, he entered the theatre of life under the name of *Champfort*. He wrote several articles for the *Journal Encyclopédique*, and was one of the editors of the *Vocabulaire Français*. He presented a number of papers to the French and other academies, and wrote some comedies, which were received with great approbation. His *Le Marchand de Smyrne* is still performed. His health soon began to decline, and his income was scarcely sufficient to meet his expenses. Chabanon, his most intimate friend, who enjoyed a pension of 1200 livres, compelled Champfort to accept of it. After he was restored to health, he retired to the country to labor and to study. He prepared some of the most important articles in the *Dictionnaire Dramatique* (1776, 3 vols.), and completed his tragedy *Mustapha et Zéangir*. This production procured for him the office of secretary to the prince of Condé, which he occupied for a time, and then retired to Auteuil. In 1781, he was admitted to the *Académie Française*. His fine inaugural address was his last purely literary work. After this, he married, and lived in retirement, till the death of his wife, when he became reader to the princess Elizabeth, the sister of the king. At the beginning of the revolution, Champfort was connected with the leading characters of the two parties which hastened the approach of the revolution, the one by upholding, the other by attacking, abuses. He endeavored in vain to enlighten the former party, and, being compelled to choose between them, he sacrificed his interest, and joined the one whose character and principles were most agreeable to his own. His connexion with Mirabeau and others at first absorbed his whole attention. He had an important part in several of Mirabeau's speeches and writings. After a time, Champfort's condition was altered, but his principles remained the same. He lost his pension and his office, and supported himself wholly by his own exertions. He was appointed, by the minister Roland, librarian in the great national library; and thus his situation was, for a short time, improved. But, disgusted with the horrors of the revolution, he expressed himself without reserve, and was thrown into prison with Barthélemy and two other officers of the library. He was soon set at liberty; but his short confinement had filled him with such horror, that, when he was to be thrown into prison a second time, he attempted to put an end to his existence. The care of his friends, and medical aid, saved him for a time; but he died in April, 1794, in consequence of his wounds. His writings bear the marks of much study and pure taste. His integrity, fidelity and disinterestedness cannot be disputed. His works were published in 1795, by Ginguené, in 4 vols., and two editions have appeared since.

Champion. In the rudest state of society, men revenge their own wrongs without restraint. One step is made towards a better state of things, when the state (rude as the beginnings of political society may be) confines this right within certain bounds, and allows it to be exercised only

with certain formalities. In some countries, however, particularly in England, the legal recognition of the right of private combat (see *Combat*) had this injurious effect, that the practice became so settled as to be allowed to continue, even after more rational ideas had grown up on the subject of the administration of justice. The combat, after it had become a common means of settling disputes, was not always waged by the contending parties. This was the case, indeed, in appeals of felony, and if the heir, either from sex or age, was incapable of *waging his battle*, as it was called, the question was left to a more rational mode of settlement. But, in the writ of right, the last and most solemn decision respecting real property, the tenant was required to produce his champion, who threw down his glove as a challenge to the champion of the demandant, and the latter, by taking it up, accepted the challenge. The laws authorizing judicial combat, though fallen into disuse, continued to disgrace the English statute-book till the beginning of the reign of George IV, when, an appeal of murder having been made in the case of Abraham Thornton (reported 1 Barnwell and Alderson), he was advised by his counsel to claim his right of trial by battle. (See *Appeal*, vol. 1, p. 305.) As the judges decided that this could not be refused him, the next heir, the brother of the deceased, a lad of 16, declined any further proceedings. Even the right to the English crown was, in some degree, put in issue, by appeal to judicial combat; and the appearance of a champion, offering battle to any one who gainsays the right of the king to the crown, is still a part of the ceremonial of an English coronation. At the last coronation, a question was long agitated in the court of claims, as to the right of a champion to appoint a deputy, in case of his personal incapacity, either through age or profession. The eldest son of the official champion (Mr. Dymocke, in whose family the championship is hereditary, and who was himself in holy orders) was at length allowed to appear as his father's representative.—"When I see," says a German writer, "the number of follies with which governments have leisure to concern themselves, I cannot think that nations are very difficult to be governed."

Champlain, Samuel de; a French naval officer in the 17th century, who explored the gulf of St. Lawrence, in North America, founded Quebec and Montreal, in Canada, and gave his name to an inland lake, which it still retains. He was king's lieutenant, and afterwards governor-general of Canada, where he died in 1634. M. de Champlain was the author of a curious work, entitled *Voyages and Travels in New France, or Canada* (1632, 4to.).

Champlain; a lake of the U. States, lying between New York and Vermont, extending from Whitehall, in New York, to St. John's, in Lower Canada; about 130 miles long, and from 1 to 15 broad, containing 600 square miles, about two thirds of which lie in Vermont. It contains upwards of 60 islands, the largest of which are North and South Hero, and Motte island, and receives the waters of several rivers. Otter creek, Onion river, Lamoile and Missisque flow into it from Vermont; and the Chazy, Saranac, Sable, Bouquet and Wood rivers from New York. It discharges its waters northward into the St. Lawrence by the Richelieu or Sorelle. Two steam-boats ply on this lake, between Whitehall and St. John's. The shipping on the lake, in 1816, amounted to 800 tons, belonging chiefly to Burlington. The principal towns on the lake are Burlington, St. Alban's, Plattsburg and Whitehall.—Sept. 11, 1814, commodore Macdonough, commander of the American fleet, gained a complete victory over the British fleet, on this lake, in Cumberland bay, which lies directly in front of the town of Plattsburg.

Champlain Canal, in the state of New York, forms a communication between lake Champlain and the navigable waters of the river Hudson. It commences at Whitehall, at the south end of the lake, reaches the Hudson at Fort Edward, is continued along the west bank of the river, and forms a junction with the Erie canal at Watervliet, the whole length, including about 17 miles of improved natural navigation in Wood creek and Hudson river, being 64 miles. It is 40 feet wide on the surface, 28 at the bottom, and 4 deep. The amount of lockage is 84 feet. This canal was begun in June, 1818, and completed in November, 1822. (See *Canal*, and *Inland Navigation*.)

Champollion; two French literati of this name, viz:

Champollion (*J. F.*) *the Younger*, born at Figeac, 1790, professor of history at Grenoble, studied the Coptic and other Oriental languages, investigated the inscription on the Rosetta stone (q. v.) and several rolls of papyrus, particularly while he was at Turin, in 1823 and 1824, and published the *Panthéon Égyptien*—a collection of designs taken from figures on Egyptian monuments, with explanations (Paris, 1824, 4to.). He next published his *Précis du*

Systême Hiéroglyphique des Anciens Egyptiens, with engravings (Paris, 1824). In this work, he gives his discoveries of the phonetic alphabet, in which he supposes he has found a key to the whole system of hieroglyphical writing. Hieroglyphics, according to his theory, are partly phonetic (those which serve as signs for sounds), partly hieratic (those which express whole ideas). The two kinds of writing, he says, are intermingled in the ancient inscriptions. Champollion's system rests on the views of Warburton and Young. Th. Ausonioli, in his *Analyse de la Théorie de M. Champ. le Jeune, sur les Hiérogl. des anc. Egypt.* (Paris, 1824), has undertaken to show that his grounds are untenable. In 1825, Champollion delivered lectures on his system in Rome. In 1826, Charles X appointed him to superintend the new department of the royal museum in Paris (in the Louvre), which contains the antiquities of Egypt, brought by Drovetti to Leghorn, and purchased by the king, and the monuments of Eastern antiquity in general. In 1828, M. Champollion went with an expedition of learned men to Egypt, at the expense of the king. The results of this journey seem to be of the highest importance. The 11th letter of M. Champollion has reached us. We hope to be able to give, in the articles *Egypt* and *Hieroglyphics*, a summary of the discoveries of this ingenious decipherer of the Egyptian mysteries.

Champollion-Figeac, J. J., the elder brother of the preceding, and his instructer, was born at Figeac, in Quercy, in 1779. He was formerly professor at Grenoble, and has distinguished himself by his *Lettre sur l'Inscription du Temple de Dendérah*, and other archæological essays. His *Antiquités de Grenoble* (Grenoble, 1807, 4to.) is much esteemed. His *Annales des Lagides* (Paris, 1819, 2 vols.) received the prize of the royal academy of inscriptions, and was completed by him in 1820. He has published, also, inquiries into ancient chronology. With Motte, the lithographer, he published *Les Tournois du Roi René* (after the original manuscripts and designs found in the royal library), with observations, and 20 engravings (Paris, 1826, folio). Only 200 copies were printed, and each copy was valued at 1300 francs. Champollion is a member of the royal institute of France, and other literary societies.

Chance is used to signify accident, and also probability. The latter is its meaning in mathematics. The doctrine of chances teaches how to find the probability of a given event taking place from an examination of the circumstances affecting it. It is called, more properly, by the French, *calcul des probabilités*. It is important for the calculation of insurance risks, the worth of life-annuities, &c. Pascal, Huygens, De Moivre, Parisot (*Traité du Calcul conjectural*, &c., Paris, 1810, 4to.), Laplace, Lacroix (*Traité élémentaire du Calcul des Probabilités*, Paris, 1816), and others, have written ably on this subject. James Bernouilli undertook a work *De Arte conjectandi*, but his death prevented its completion. (See *Probability*.)

Chance-Medley; homicide happening either in self-defence, on a sudden quarrel, or in the commission of an unlawful act, without any deliberate intention of doing mischief.

Chancel is that part of the choir of a church, between the altar or communion-table and the rail that encloses it, where the minister is placed at the celebration of the communion.

Chancellor; an officer supposed to have been originally a notary or scribe, under the emperors, and named *cancellarius*, because he sat behind a lattice, called, in Latin, *cancellus*, to avoid being crowded by the people. There are, however, other derivations of this title. Whatever may have been its origin, the office and name of *chancellor* were undoubtedly known at the court of the Roman emperors, where the title seems to have signified, originally, a chief scribe or secretary, who was afterwards invested with several judicial powers, and superintendence over the other officers of the empire. From the Roman empire the title and office passed to the Roman church, and hence every bishop has, to this day, his chancellor, the principal judge of his consistory. When the modern kingdoms of Europe were established upon the ruins of the empire, almost every state preserved its chancellor, with different jurisdictions and dignities, according to their different constitutions. In all, he seems to have had the supervision of all charters, letters, and such other public instruments of the crown as were authenticated in the most solemn manner, and, therefore, when seals came into use, he had always the custody of the king's great seal. This officer has now great authority in all the countries of Europe.

The *Lord High Chancellor of England* is the first judicial officer of the crown; and first lay person of the state, after the blood royal. He is created neither by writ nor patent, but by the mere delivery of the great seal into his custody. In like manner, the act of taking away the seal by the

king determines the office. He is, *ex officio*, a privy counsellor, and, according to lord Ellesmere, prolocutor of the house of lords by prescription. The question of separating the office of prolocutor of the lords from the office of chancellor has been lately agitated. He has the appointment of all justices of the peace in the kingdom, is visitor, in the king's right, of all royal foundations, and patron of all crown livings, under the value of 20 marks, in the king's books. The office having, in early times, been always filled by ecclesiastics (for no others were then capable of an employment requiring so much writing), he became keeper of the king's conscience; and, by special appointment, he now exercises a general superintendence as guardian over all infants, idiots and lunatics; though these latter powers are not necessarily attendant on his office, as Blackstone seems to have imagined, but can be delegated by the crown to any other judicial officer; as, in fact, they were delegated even as late as the reign of James I, when the seals were held by doctor Williams, then dean of Westminster, and afterwards bishop of Lincoln. The great seal has been not unfrequently put in commission, and was last so on the resignation of lord Thurlow, in the year 1793.

The *Vice Chancellor* is an officer recently created, who takes precedence after the lord chief justice of the common pleas, and before the chief baron. He is addressed, like the master of the rolls, by the style of his *honor*. Though the appointment was made with a view to meet the complaints against delay, and to facilitate the business of suitors, yet, as an appeal lies afterwards to the chancellor, the experiment has not been attended with great success. (For an account of the court of chancery, see *Equity, Courts of.*)

The *Chancellor of the Exchequer* is the principal finance minister of the government, and, as all questions of supply originate in the house of commons, a peer cannot be conveniently appointed to this office. When the first lord commissioner of the treasury is a commoner, the two offices are generally united.

The *Chancellor of the duchy of Lancaster* presides in the court of the duchy chamber, to decide questions relating to lands holden of the king, as duke of Lancaster; but it does not appear that this is a court of record. The chancellorship is generally bestowed during pleasure, though there are two instances of its being granted for life; the last being that of the celebrated lord Ashburton. The chancellor of the duchy of Lancaster is one of the king's cabinet ministers.

The *Chancellor of Oxford* is the supreme head of that university, elected for life by the members of convocation. He is generally a nobleman of the highest rank, who is installed with great ceremony. The duties of the office are almost entirely discharged by the vice-chancellor; the chancellor's own acts being limited to the signing of diplomas, &c.—Under the vice-chancellor are four pro-vice-chancellors, nominated by him from among the heads of colleges, to one of whom, in his absence from the university, he delegates his authority.

The *Chancellor of Cambridge*, whose duties are very similar to those of the chancellor of Oxford, is elected biennially by the senate; but there is no instance, at least in modern times, where a reëlection has not taken place.—The title *chancellor* is given, in England, to several other officers of inferior bodies.

The chancellor was one of the highest officers in the German states, and, by the influence of his office, was one of the most important. In Germany, this dignity was, from the remotest times, vested in one of the higher clergy, until the head of the German clergy, the archbishop and elector of Mentz, united it for ever with his office as arch-chancellor of the empire. The two other spiritual electors held the same dignity, but it was merely titular; the archbishop of Cologne, as arch-chancellor of Italy; the archbishop of Treves, as arch-chancellor of Gaul, and Arles, i. e., the kingdom of Burgundy, once belonging to Germany. The arch-chancellorship of Mentz, on the contrary, had important duties attached to it—the direction of the diet, and of the public business, as well as of all the imperial chanceries. The elector appointed a vice-chancellor, who was the actual minister of the empire at the imperial court.—The chancellor of France was the highest officer of state, and the only one, who, when once appointed, could not be dismissed. In case, therefore, it was desired to remove him from participation in affairs, a keeper of the seals (*garde des sceaux*) was appointed. As the chancellor was properly the minister of justice, he was chosen from the body of jurists. A relic of his spiritual character was, that all his furniture, liveries, and even his coach, were black. This dignity is now restored. Besides the chancellor of the kingdom, the *chancelier de France*, the queen (in Germany, also, the empress had her arch-

chancellor, the bishop of Fulda), the sons and grandsons of the king, the first prince of the blood, the orders of knighthood, the universities, &c., all had their chancellors. The German states began about the middle of the 15th century to appoint chancellors, whose duties are widely different, but are generally united with the office of president of the higher judicial and executive authorities. In Bavaria, for example, there were a chancellor of the privy council, and a court-chancellor, a chancellor of fiefs, and executive chancellors, in the different provinces. King Frederic II (the Great) of Prussia established, some years after his accession to the throne, in 1747, the office of a grand-chancellor and *chef de justice* for the famous Samuel de Cocceji, to whom he had committed the reform of the judiciary. He had several successors in this dignity, but it was finally abolished. In the Austrian monarchy there are three court-chanceries—1. the imperial-royal, at the head of which stand the high court-chancellor, with three other court-chancellors, viz., the Bohemian-Galician, the Lombardo-Venetian, and the Austrian-Illyrian; 2. the Hungarian; and, 3. the Transylvanian. In Austria, almost every office of importance is called a *court* office. The dignity of a privy-chancellor of the court and state was conferred, after a long interruption, on prince Metternich.

Chancery. (See *Equity, Courts of.*)

Changes. (See *Combination.*)

Channel, English; the sea between England and France, the passage of which is often very tedious for vessels going from the Atlantic into the German ocean. (See *Calais* and *Dover.*)

Channels, or Chain-Wales, of a ship; broad and thick planks projecting horizontally from the ship's outside, abreast of and somewhat behind the masts. They are formed to extend the shrouds from each other, and form the axis or middle line of the ship, so as to give greater security and support to the masts, as well as to prevent the shrouds from damaging the gunwale, or being injured by rubbing against it.

Chant. (See *Church Music.*)

Chantrey, Francis; an English statuary. The opinion of English critics is not without foundation, that this artist, who was formed in the school of nature, and who has struck out a new career by the power of his own genius, has exercised a favorable influence on the improvement of sculpture in England. He was born in 1782, at Morton, a village on the borders of Derbyshire. While a schoolboy, he made models in clay. His mother, the widow of a wealthy farmer, had destined him for a lawyer. But the very day that he arrived at Sheffield, to enter his new school, he saw some images exhibited at the window of the sculptor and gilder Ramsay. That moment decided his destiny; and, in obedience to his impulse, he resolved to become an artist. He became a pupil of Ramsay, labored three years without cessation, designed and modelled every leisure moment, and studied from nature, but was obliged to conceal his productions from his dissatisfied master. In 1802, he went to London, where he became known by a successful bust of the celebrated Horne Tooke, in which he displayed the principles of a free, natural style. The city of London now intrusted him with the execution of the statue of George III; after the completion of which he prepared a design of a monument, to be erected on the shore of Yarmouth, in honor of Nelson; but the idea, in itself tasteless, of erecting the statue of the hero 130 feet high, with a star on his left breast (to be illuminated by night), as a Pharos, on a pier projecting far into the sea, and on a pedestal made of the bows of vessels taken from the enemy, was too gigantic to be executed. Chantrey's reputation was more increased by a group of two sisters (in the cathedral of Litchfield) embracing each other in the gentle slumber of death, whose childish forms exhibit repose and tranquillity in every outline and in every member; a kneeling female, lady St. Vincent, and a lively girl, standing on tiptoe, and caressing a dove in her bosom (the daughter of the duke of Bedford), placed at Woburn abbey, at the side of Canova's Graces. He has also executed several other monuments in St. Paul's church and other places. His latest productions are highly esteemed—the busts of Playfair, Walter Scott, Benjamin West, Wordsworth, &c. In 1814, Chantrey visited Paris, where he viewed the models of Italian sculpture, and afterwards travelled to Italy. He has, nevertheless, remained faithful to his original natural style. One of the last works of Chantrey is the statue of Washington, in the state-house at Boston. He has lately completed a bronze statue of Pitt, 12 feet high, in modern costume, for the city of London.

Chaos; according to the signification of the word, the void which embraces all things. Hesiod mentions, as the original principles of all things, Chaos, Earth, Tar-

tarus and Eros (Love); other ancient poets made Chaos alone the primeval source from which every thing is derived; others added to it Night, Erebus and Tartarus; and others still represented Chaos as the parent of the Earth and Heaven; after the production of which, Eros (Love) completed the creation. In later times, by *chaos* is understood the unformed primeval matter, of which every thing is made. Chaos, according to Hesiod, produced by and out of itself Erebus and Night, who, in turn, were the parents of Æther and Day.

Chapel Hill; a post-town in Orange county, North Carolina, near the head of New Hope creek, a branch of the Haw; 28 miles W. N. W. of Raleigh; lon. 79° 3′ W.; lat. 35° 40′ N. It has an elevated and healthy situation, and contains about 30 houses. The surrounding country is hilly, abounding in springs, and the soil is not remarkably fertile. This is the seat of the university of North Carolina, which was incorporated in 1793; and degrees were first conferred in 1797. The college buildings consist of a chapel, two spacious edifices for the accommodation of students, all of brick, and a president's house. The funds consist of 30 or 40,000 dollars in bank stock, 50 or 60,000 acres of land, and all escheated property. There is a good chemical apparatus. The college library contains about 1800 volumes. The executive officers consist of a president, who is also professor of moral philosophy, and 4 professors, 1 of mathematics, 1 of chemistry, 1 of languages, and 1 of rhetoric; and 2 tutors.

Chapelain, Jean, better known by an unsuccessful poem than many poets by successful ones, was born in Paris, Dec. 4, 1595. Marini, who went to Paris to have his *Adonis* printed there, induced him to write a preface to that poem, by which Chapelain attracted the notice of cardinal Richelieu. The latter, having the weakness to set up for a *bel esprit*, stood in need of a poet who would labor with him, and, at times, also, for him. Chapelain was possessed of talents and learning; he was obsequious and (which was the principal thing) discreet, and thus his fortune was made. He became one of the first members of the *Académie Française*, and was charged with the organization of that body. He received a large pension, and soon became the oracle of the French poets of that time. It would have been better, however, if he himself had not set up for a poet. His Maid of Orleans (*Pucelle*) was begun in 1630, and was, consequently, one of the first epic attempts in French literature. As it was announced 20 years before its publication, great expectations had been raised, which were by no means answered on its appearance (1656). In the first 18 months, indeed, six editions were rapidly sold; but it soon became an object of ridicule with the modern French poets, and sunk into oblivion. As a man, Chapelain was universally esteemed. He died Feb. 22, 1674. The most complete edition of his *Pucelle* (18 books) appeared at Geneva in 1762. The royal library in Paris contains all the 24 books in manuscript.

Chapelle (properly Claude Emanuel Luillier); so called from La Chapelle, a village near Paris, where he was born in 1626; one of the most amiable and pleasing of the French poets. His lively and convivial disposition, his wit and talents, procured him the friendship of persons the most distinguished for rank and learning: among the latter were Racine, Boileau, Molière, Lafontaine, Bernier, &c. The productions of Chapelle bear the stamp of his characteristic ease, gayety and wit. His description of a journey to Montpellier, *Relation d' un Voyage fait en France* (1662, 12mo.), written jointly with Bachaumont, is a model of ease and pleasantry. He also wrote many songs, sonnets and epistles. He possessed, in a remarkable degree, the talent of saying many witty things on a barren subject. He died in 1688.

Chaplain properly signifies a person provided with a chapel, or who discharges the duties thereof. The name is applied to clergymen both in the Catholic and Protestant churches. The origin of the term is generally explained in the following manner: Bishop Martin (q. v.) is said to have worn a hood (*capa*) which was valued as possessing miraculous powers, and was, therefore, preserved, after his death, in a separate house, called, from this hood, *capella* (chapel), and the person stationed in the chapel to show it to pious spectators was termed *chaplain*. Charlemagne is said to have possessed St. Martin's hood among his relics, and to have erected a chapel, called by the name of St. Martin, in Germany, at the place where Fürth afterwards arose. This emperor is also related to have built similar chapels at Nuremberg and Altenfurt. Another less probable derivation deduces the word, indeed, from *capella*, but explains it to signify the box in which the first missionaries carried the requisites for celebrating the Supper, who were thence denominated *chaplains*.

CHAPPE D'AUTEROCHE, Jean, born in the year 1722, in Auvergne, took clerical orders, and devoted himself to the study of astronomy. In 1760, he was appointed by the academy to observe the transit (q. v.) of Venus over the sun's disk, at Tobolsk (June 6, 1761). He had the good fortune to find the sky clear and serene at the time when he wished to make his observations. After an absence of two years, he returned, and published a narrative of his travels. Besides much valuable information, it contains many unfavorable remarks on Russia, so that the empress Catharine II herself wrote a reply to it, in a pamphlet, entitled *Antidote contre le Voyage de l'Abbé Chappe*. The same phenomenon, by which Chappe had been attracted to the north, prompted him, in 1769, at the suggestion of the academy, to undertake a voyage to California; but, before he could complete the object of his voyage, he died at St. Lucar, Aug. 1, 1769. His observations on this voyage have been published by C. F. Cassini, under the title *Voyage de Californie* (Paris, 1772, 4to.). They did not answer the expectations which had been entertained of them.

CHAPPE, Claude, nephew of Chappe d'Auteroche (q. v.), born in 1763, celebrated as the inventor of the telegraph, attracted notice, in his 20th year, by several valuable essays in the *Journal de Physique*. Wishing to communicate with his friends, who lived at the distance of several miles from him, he conceived the idea of conversing with them by means of signals; and his experiments for this purpose led him to his important invention. Having succeeded in erecting his machine on a large scale, he laid a description of the work, which he called *telegraph*, before the national assembly, in 1792. The establishment of the first telegraphic line was ordered in 1793: the first event communicated by it was the capture of Condé. The convention, having received this news at the opening of a session, forthwith decreed that Condé should be called, in future, *Nordlibre*, and was apprized, in the same sitting, that the edict had been delivered and published to the army.* The method of interchanging messages by signals was known to the ancients, and has been used by navigators from time immemorial. The tactician Æneas mentions several attempts to express the letters of the alphabet at a distance by signals; and, towards the end of the 18th century, a trial of this kind was made by Amontons. The system of the former, however, admits of only a very limited application; a whole night being hardly sufficient to compose two or three words according to his method. Amontons, who is generally placed among the inventors of the telegraphic art, left no sketch of the machine contrived by him. The problem, therefore, still remained to be solved. The object was, to discover an expedient for conveying any information with despatch to any place and at any time. Chappe invented a machine, the signals of which are very distinct, while its motions are easy and simple. It may be erected at any place, defies every kind of weather, and, notwithstanding its simplicity, contains signs enough to convey any ideas, in such a way that not more than two signals are commonly necessary. The honor of this invention was contested by many persons. The chagrin which these disputes produced in the mind of Chappe threw him into a deep melancholy, and, in 1805, he put a period to his existence by precipitating himself into a well. His brother, Jean Joseph, became director of the telegraph in Paris.

CHAPTAL, Jean Antoine Claude, count of Chanteloup, peer of France, born in 1756, devoted himself to the study of medicine and the natural sciences. Having been long known as a distinguished physician, he rendered himself conspicuous as an adherent to the cause of the revolution, at the assault upon the citadel of Montpellier, in 1791. Being called to Paris, in 1793, on account of the scarcity of gun-powder, his chemical knowledge, and his activity in the enormous factory at Grenoble, enabled him to supply the necessary quantity, by the production of 3500 pounds every day. In 1794, he returned to Montpellier, received a place in the administration of the department of the Herault, and the professorship of chemistry, which had been founded there for him. In 1798, he was made a member of the Institute, favored the revolution of the 18th Brumaire (q. v.), was appointed by the first consul, in 1799, counsellor of state, and, in 1800, minister of the interior, in which post he encouraged the study of all the arts, and established a chemical manufactory in the neighborhood of Paris. In 1804, he fell into disgrace: the reason assigned is, that he refused to declare, in

* The telegraph at Liverpool communicated intelligence to that at Holy Head, 156 miles distant, and received an answer, the whole within the period of 35 seconds. This is supposed to be the quickest interchange of communication that ever took place. *Atlas* (London paper), Sept. 27, 1829.

one of his reports, that sugar prepared from beets was better than that from the sugar-cane. In 1805, however, he was made, by the emperor, grand cross of the legion of honor, and member of the conservative senate. After the return of Napoleon from Elba, he was appointed director-general of commerce and manufactures, and minister of state. On the restoration of the king, he was obliged to retire to private life, and, at the same time, to enter into negotiations with the princess of Orleans, relative to Chanteloup, which formerly had belonged to her. In March, 1816, the king nominated him a member of the academy of sciences. Chaptal's works on national industry, chemistry, the cultivation of the vine, &c., are very much esteemed; especially his *Chimie appliquée aux Arts* (Paris, 1807, 4 vols.); his *Chimie appliquée à l'Agriculture* (Paris, 1823, 2 vols.); and *De l'Industrie Française*, Paris, 1819, 2 vols.). He was director of two chemical manufactories, at Montpellier and Neuilly, discovered the application of old wool, instead of oil, in the preparation of soap, and the mode of dyeing cotton with Turkish red. He invented several kinds of cement and artificial Puzzolanas, by means of native calcined ochre, without the aid of foreign matters; new varnishes for earthen ware, without the use of lead ores and plumbago, &c., which are so often destructive of health and life; and extended the application of chemical agents to bleaching.

CHAPTER (from the Latin *caput*, head); one of the chief divisions of a book. As the rules and statutes of ecclesiastical establishments were arranged in chapters, so also the assembly of the members of a religious order, and of canons, was called a *chapter*, because some or all of the chapters, containing the rules, were read there; and the place where they assembled, as well as the reproof administered to a delinquent member, by reading the rules of the chapter transgressed, had the same name. The orders of knights, which originally had much of the ecclesiastical constitution, used this expression for the meetings of their members, and even some corporations of mechanics or tradesmen call their assemblies *chapters*. In England, as elsewhere, the deans and chapters had the right to choose the bishop, but Henry VIII assumed this right as a prerogative of the crown. In Prussia, also, Protestant bishops have been lately elected, and, still more lately, an archbishop, without the vote of a chapter, by a mere order of the government. This arbitrary and partial imitation of ancient forms, by which a bishop and archbishop may be elected or degraded like an officer of the army, afforded just occasion of ridicule to the Catholics.

CHARACTER. This name is given to certain marks, used to signify objects or ideas. The written language of the Chinese is a language of figures, every object or notion being expressed in it by a particular figure. We, also, for the sake of brevity and precision, use, in several sciences, certain signs: for instance—*Astronomical Signs:* ☉ Sun; ☽ Moon; ⊕ Earth; ☿ Mercury; ♀ Venus; ♂ Mars; ⚶ Vesta; ⚵ Juno; ⚴ Pallas; ⚳ Ceres; ♃ Jupiter; ♄ Saturn; ♅ Herschel. The twelve signs of the zodiac: ♈ Aries; ♉ Taurus; ♊ Gemini; ♋ Cancer; ♌ Leo; ♍ Virgo; ♎ Libra; ♏ Scorpio; ♐ Sagittarius; ♑ Capricornus; ♒ Aquarius; ♓ Pisces.—*Mathematical and Arithmetical Signs*, &c.: Roman ciphers: I, 1; II, 2; III, 3; IV, 4; V, 5; VI, 6; VII, 7; VIII, 8; IX, 9; X, 10; XX, 20; L, 50; C, 100; CC, 200; D or IↃ, 500; M or CIↃ, 1000, &c. In *Algebra*, the first letters of the alphabet, *a*, *b*, *c*, commonly denote given magnitudes, while the last letters, *x*, *y*, *z*, &c., stand for unknown magnitudes, which are to be found. Furthermore, + (*plus*) more, — (*minus*) less, signify addition and subtraction; × denotes multiplication, ÷ division, = equality, √ root (*radix*). Also: ° degree; ′ minute; ″ second; ‴ third; &c.—*Chemical Signs:* △ air; ▽ earth; ▽ water; △ fire; ☽ silver; ☉ gold; ♀ copper; ♂ iron; ♄ lead; ♃ tin; ☿ quicksilver; ⦶ nitre; ⊖ salt; ♁ sulphur; ♀ tartar.—*Geometrical and Trigonometrical Signs:* ∟ angle; △ triangle; □ square; ○ circle; ∽ similarity; ∥ or # parallel; ≌ equality and similarity, or coincidence; A > B, A greater than B.—Formerly there were more signs and abbreviations used in scientific works than at present. In Prussia, the use of signs in medical prescriptions has been abolished on account of the danger of their being confounded.

CHARACTER MASKS; such as appear, not in dominos, but in the usual dress of certain ranks.

CHARADE; a syllabic enigma; that is, an enigma, the subject of which is a name or a word, that is proposed for discovery from an enigmatical description of its several syllables, taken separately, as so many individual words. A charade may be called complete, if the different enigmas which it contains are brought into a proper relation to each other, and, as a

whole, unite in an epigrammatic point. The most agreeable manner of expressing such conceits is in verse. Sometimes charades are proposed under the form of little stories, sonnets, &c.

CHARCOAL. (See *Carbon.*) To the information contained in the article *Carbon*, we will only add a fact lately announced in the scientific journals, that, in Picardy, and other provinces of France, where turf is almost exclusively used as fuel, the inhabitants, by means of a cheap apparatus, are able to carbonize it so as to render it equal to the best charcoal.

CHARDIN, Jean, son of a Protestant jeweller in Paris, and a jeweller himself, was born in 1643. Before he had reached his 22d year, his father sent him to the East Indies, in order to buy diamonds. After a short residence in Surat, Chardin lived six years in Ispahan, where he was less engaged in mercantile business than in profound studies and scientific researches, making use of his connexions at court for collecting the most authentic information of the political and military state of Persia. He collected the most valuable materials relating to antiquities and history. In 1670, he returned to France. Finding, however, that he could hope for no employment on account of his religion, he again left France for Persia, in 1671, taking with him a considerable quantity of jewels, &c. He spent 10 years partly in Persia and partly in India. In 1681, he arrived in London, where, soon after his arrival, Charles II bestowed on him the honor of knighthood. Chardin published the first volume of his travels, in London, in 1686. The other volumes were about to follow, when he was appointed minister plenipotentiary of the king of England to the states-general of Holland, and agent of the English East India company to the same. His new duties did not distract him from his favorite employment, so that, in 1711, two editions of his travels appeared. He soon after returned to England, where he died in 1713. The exactness and truth of his statements, and the extent of his knowledge, have been confirmed by all succeeding travellers. The best edition of Chardin's travels is that by Langlès, 1811, in 10 vols. 8vo., with an atlas in folio.

CHARENTE; a river in France, rising in the department of the Upper Vienne. It falls into the sea about 8 miles below Rochefort, opposite to the isle of Oleron, after a course of about 100 miles. It gives its name to a department. (See *Departments.*)

CHARENTON; a market-town about three leagues and a half from Paris, on the road to Troyes and Lyons, at the confluence of the Marne with the Seine. To its situation, Charenton, which is a very busy and populous place, owes its numerous mercantile and manufacturing establishments. The bridge across the Marne must be considered as the key to Paris on this side; hence the memorable attacks upon it both in the civil wars of France, and in those with foreign enemies. In 865, the Normans made themselves masters of it, and destroyed it. In 1814, its possession was warmly contested. The students of the veterinary school at Alfort, in the neighborhood, had solicited from the government permission to defend this post against the advancing troops of Wirtemberg and Austria. It was intrusted to them; but they were compelled to retire, after a heroic defence, before superior numbers. At Petit-Charenton is the celebrated hospital for the insane, where many unfortunate individuals, of both sexes (usually 4—500), are treated with great care, in order to effect their cure: those who are declared incurable are sent to Bicètre. Here died, in 1813, Sade, the author of *Justine*, whom Napoleon, on account of this immoral and dangerous publication, had ordered to be treated as insane.

CHARETTE DE LA COUTRIE. (See *Vendée.*)

CHARGÉ D'AFFAIRES. (See *Minister, Foreign.*)

CHARITY, brothers and sisters of. (See *Fraternities.*)

CHARKOW; capital of Slobodsk-Ukraine, in Russia, containing about 1500 houses, and nearly 15,000 inhabitants. It carries on considerable commerce, and four great fairs are held in the place every year. In 1803, the high school at Charkow was erected into a university, and several professors were invited thither from Germany. The emperor granted it an annual income of 130,000 paper-rubles, and, in addition to this, a donation of 400,000 rubles was offered by the nobility of the country for its organization, of which sum, however, the greater part was yet unpaid in 1809. The number of professors is 38, and that of the students about 300; 60 of whom are supported at the emperor's expense. The latter are bound, after leaving the university, to teach, for six years, in the schools within the district of the university, and are pretty arbitrarily sent, by the university, to those places in which they are to be employed.

The university possesses a library, and a cabinet for the natural sciences. Charkow also contains a gymnasium, a military academy, &c. A philotechnic society likewise holds its meetings there.

CHARLATAN (in Italian, *ciarlatano*); a mountebank, quack-doctor, empiric; hence every one who makes loud pretensions to knowledge or skill which he does not possess. The word is probably derived from the Italian *ciarlare* (to prate), because the chief art of a charlatan consists in boasting and idle talk. We find charlatans in all sciences, politics, religion, &c. Of the latter, Molière says:—

> Aussi ne vois-je rien qui soit plus odieux
> Que les dehors plâtrés d'un zèle spécieux;
> Que ces francs charlatans, que ces dévots de place, &c.

How many political proclamations resemble, in charlatanism, the boasting placards of quacks, or the advertisements of new systems for teaching languages, &c., in a few hours! (For further information, see the interesting article *Charlatan* in the *Encyclopédie Moderne*, and for instances of charlatanism, see the daily papers.)

CHARLEMAGNE (*Carolus Magnus*, Charles the Great); one of those characters whose achievements bear the impress of gigantic power, by whom nations have been formed and destroyed, and who have exercised an influence which has been felt for centuries, and compelled succeeding generations to admire their greatness, though unable to justify all their actions. Charlemagne, king of the Franks, and subsequently emperor of the West, was born in 742, in the castle of Carlsberg, on the lake of Wurmsee, in Upper Bavaria. Others mention the castle of Ingelheim, near Mentz, and others Aix-la-Chapelle, as the place of his nativity. His father was Pepin the Short, king of the Franks, son of Charles Martel. After the decease of his father, in 768, he was crowned king, and, according to the wish which Pepin had expressed, divided France with his younger brother Carloman; but the conditions of this partition were several times altered, without being ever adjusted to the satisfaction of the parties. Their mutual discontent was fostered principally by the king of the Lombards, Desiderius (the father-in-law of both princes), because Charlemagne had repudiated his wife. Desiderius sought revenge for the rejection of his daughter, by exciting and encouraging commotions in France, in which he was assisted by the circumstance that the nobles aspired to independence. The people of Aquitania were the first who attempted to become independent. Charlemagne marched against them with rather a small army; but he relied on the assistance of his brother Carloman, to whom a portion of Aquitania then belonged. Carloman appeared, indeed, in the field, but, in the decisive moment, deserted his brother, who was obliged to sustain, alone, an unequal conflict. His great courage and conduct, after a long and doubtful contest, procured him the victory, in 770, and the insurgents submitted. In this campaign, the youthful hero displayed such distinguished military talents, that the fear of his name curbed his fiercest vassals. This contest convinced Charlemagne of the necessity of repressing the nobles, and employing them thenceforward in important enterprises, in order to divert their attention from the internal affairs of the empire. Had he not, therefore, himself been inclined to wars of conquest, in which his talents could be exhibited in all their splendor, he would have been induced to undertake them by the internal condition of the empire. At Carloman's death, in 771, and after the flight of his wife and her two sons to her father, in Italy, Charlemagne made himself master of the whole empire, the extent of which was already very great, as it embraced, besides France, a large part of Germany. He now formed the plan of conquering the Saxons, for which his zeal for Christianity and its diffusion served him as a tolerable pretence. The Saxons, a nation of German heathens, were in possession of Holstein and Westphalia, between the rivers Weser and Elbe, and, like other barbarians, preferred pillaging to peaceful occupations, and a wandering to a settled mode of life. They had several leaders, and constituted various tribes, which were seldom disposed to coöperate. An invasion of the Saxons into the territory of the Franks was the alleged cause of the first war which Charlemagne began against them in 772. The other wars were produced by the rebellions of this warlike nation, which, overpowered, but not entirely vanquished, was never reduced to complete submission till the peace of Seltz, in 803, after it had embraced Christianity. A part of the Saxons Charlemagne removed to Flanders and Switzerland, and their seats were occupied by the Obotrites, a Vandal tribe in Mecklenburg. The famous pillars called *Irminsäule* were destroyed by Charlemagne, as monuments of pagan worship. Thus for 32 years did the Saxons resist a conqueror, who, at times, indulgent to

imprudence, often severe to cruelty, striving, with equal eagerness, to convert and to subdue them, never became master of their country till he had transformed it almost entirely into a desert. The Saxons might have made a more successful defence against the power and genius of Charlemagne, had they not been distracted by internal dissensions. The most celebrated of their leaders was Wittikind, and, next to him, Alboin, who finally embraced Christianity in 783. To explain the protracted resistance of the Saxons, we must remember that the manner in which the armies of those days were organized produced an armistice every year (the levy of troops being only for one campaign); that Charlemagne was obliged to wage wars at the same time against the Lombards, the Avars, the Saracens and the Danes; and that the magnitude of his states facilitated the rebellions of his vassals, on which account all his attention was often required to preserve internal tranquillity, and maintain his own authority. While he was combating the Saxons on the banks of the Weser, pope Adrian implored his assistance against Desiderius, who had torn from him the exarchate of Ravenna, which Pepin the Short had presented to the holy see, and who was urging the pope to crown the nephews of Charlemagne, that Charlemagne himself might be considered a usurper, and his subjects be induced to renounce their allegiance. The danger was urgent. Charlemagne immediately left Germany, and marched with his army to Italy. Desiderius fled to Pavia, which was bravely defended by the Lombards. The city finally fell, and Desiderius, with the widow and sons of Carloman, were carried prisoners to France. Desiderius ended his life in a monastery. Respecting the fate of the others, history is silent. In 774, Charlemagne was crowned king of Italy with the iron crown. Although the kingdom of Lombardy was now extinct, the provinces of which it consisted were allowed to retain their former laws and constitutions, it being a general maxim of the great monarch not to deprive the conquered nations of their usages and laws, nor to govern them all under one form. In this he followed the dictates of sound policy, which, in so turbulent times, led him to beware of consolidating all his vassals into a political body with equal rights, which might render a general combination against their ruler practicable. In 778, he repaired to Spain, to assist a Moorish prince. He conquered Pampeluna, made himself master of the county of Barcelona, and spread the terror of his name every where. But, on his return, his troops were surprised in the valley of Roncesvalles by the Saracens, in connexion with the mountaineers (the Gascons), and suffered a severe defeat; remarkable from the circumstance, that Roland, one of the most famous warriors of those times, fell in the battle. (See *Chivalry*.) The disaffection of the tribes of Aquitania induced Charlemagne to give them a separate ruler: for this purpose he selected the youngest of his sons, Louis (called *le Débonnaire*). The Lombards were no less turbulent, and the Greeks made incessant efforts to reconquer Italy; and the nobles, to whom he had intrusted a part of the sovereignty of this country, evinced little fidelity. He therefore gave them his second son, Pepin, for a monarch; his eldest son, Charles, remaining constantly with him, and assisting him in his manifold undertakings. In 780, he caused these two sons to be crowned by the pope in Rome, hoping, by this means, to render the royal dignity inviolable in the sight of the people. Charlemagne had another son, also called *Pepin*, who was the oldest of all his children, being the son of his divorced wife. This circumstance probably inspired the monarch with an aversion to Pepin, and prevented him from admitting him to participate in the government. Pepin, therefore, became the instigator of a conspiracy against his father, and finally died in a monastery. After returning from Spain, Charlemagne was again obliged to take the field against the Saxons. Exasperated by the defeat of his generals in 782, he caused 4500 Saxons to be massacred at Verden—a measure which urged to fury the hatred of the people. The year 790, the 22d of his reign, was the only one which he passed without taking up arms. As his power increased, he meditated more seriously the accomplishment of the plan of his ancestor, Charles Martel, to restore the Western empire. To prevent the partition of the empire, the empress Irene, who then reigned at Constantinople, proposed to Charlemagne to marry their children, by which means the world would again have been united under one dominion. Her proposition was accepted; but Irene's ambition carried her so far, that she dethroned her own son, to render herself supreme, and offered her own hand to Charlemagne, who did not seem averse to this singular union, which would have afforded the world an unparalleled spec-

tacle, had not Irene herself been deposed. In the year 800, Charlemagne was crowned emperor of the West by pope Leo III; and, although his journey to Rome had, in all probability, no other object, he professed himself much surprised at this ceremony. On Christmas-day, he was proclaimed Cæsar and Augustus; he was invested with the ornaments of the ancient Roman emperors, and the only thing forgotten was, that the empire could not subsist long in a family where the authority was, by law, divided among the children of the deceased monarch. After Charlemagne had made a monk of one of his sons, Pepin, king of Italy, died in 810, whose death was followed, the next year, by that of Charles, the oldest. Thus, of his legitimate sons, one only remained, Louis, king of Aquitania, whom he adopted as his colleague in 813, as his age and increasing weakness gave him warning that the end of his life could not be far distant. He died Jan. 28, 814, in the 71st year of his age and the 47th of his reign, with anticipations and fears that his empire would not long withstand the attacks of foreign enemies; apprehensions which the event confirmed. He felt, too late, that the same Saxons, part of whom he had driven from their seats, would one day take revenge on his empire, and in their train bring with them other barbarians. Charlemagne was buried at Aix-la-Chapelle, his favorite and usual place of residence. He was deposited in a vault, where he was placed on a throne of gold, in full imperial costume. On his head he wore the crown; in his hand he held a chalice; at his side was the sword; on his knees lay the book of the evangelists; at his feet his sceptre and shield. The sepulchre was sealed, and over it was erected a kind of triumphal arch, on which were the words "Here lies the body of Charles, the great and orthodox emperor, who gloriously enlarged, and for 47 years happily governed, the empire of the Franks." Charlemagne was a friend of learning; he deserves the name of restorer of the sciences and teacher of his people. He attracted, by his liberality, the most distinguished scholars to his court; among others, Alcuin, from England, whom he chose for his own instructer; Peter of Pisa, who received the title of his grammarian; and Paul Warnefried, more known under the name of *Paul Diaconus*, who gave the emperor instruction in Greek and Latin literature. By Alcuin's advice, Charlemagne established an academy in his palace at Aix-la-Chapelle, the sittings of which he attended, with all the scientific and literary men of his court—Leidrades, Theodulphus, the archbishops of Treves and Mentz, and the abbot of Corvey. All the members of this academy assumed names characteristic of their talents or inclinations. One was called *Damœtas*, another *Homer*, another *Candidus*; Charlemagne himself took the name of *David*. From Italy he invited teachers of the languages and mathematics, and established them in the principal cities of his empire. In the cathedrals and monasteries he founded schools of theology and the liberal sciences. He strove assiduously to cultivate his mind by intercourse with scholars; and, to the time of his death, this intercourse remained his favorite recreation. He spoke several languages readily, especially the Latin. He was less successful in writing, because he had not applied himself to it till he was further advanced in years. In the winter he read much, and even caused a person to read to him while he took his meals. He endeavored to improve the liturgy and church music. He was desirous of introducing the Roman liturgy into his states; but the clergy, who clung to the ancient usages, offered some resistance. Several churches, however, complied with the wish of the monarch, and others mingled the Roman and Gallican liturgy. He attempted to introduce uniformity of measures and weights, but was unable to accomplish his design. Another great plan of his was to unite the Rhine with the Danube, and, consequently, the Atlantic with the Black sea, by means of a canal. The whole army was employed on the work; but its accomplishment was prevented by the want of that knowledge of hydraulic architecture which has been since acquired. The arts, however, under his patronage, produced other monuments of his fame. The city of Aix-la-Chapelle received its name from a splendid chapel, which he caused to be built of the most beautiful Italian marble. The doors of this temple were of bronze, and its dome bore a globe of massive gold. The imperial palace was built in the highest style of splendor. Charlemagne also erected baths, in which more than 100 persons could swim in warm water. He was himself very fond of swimming, and frequently used these baths, with all the nobles of his court, and even with his soldiers. At Seltz, in Alsace, he had a no less splendid palace. To Charlemagne France is indebted for its first advances in navigation. He built the light-house at

Boulogne, and constructed several ports. He encouraged agriculture, and made himself immortal by the wisdom of his laws. Thus his law *de villis* is esteemed a monument of his views on rural economy; and Menzel, in his history of the Germans, says of him, "His greatest praise is, that he prevented the total decline of the sciences in the West, and supplied new aliment to their expiring light; that he considered the improvement of nations as important as their union and subjugation. This love of intellectual improvement is the more laudable in a prince whose youth was spent in military exercises and the chase, and his whole after life in the whirlpool of war; at a time, too, before the charm of beautiful models had made intellectual occupation an enjoyment, but when literature and science, appearing in heavy forms, destitute of grace, deterred rather than invited. His fame filled even the East. He received ambassadors from the patriarch of Jerusalem, from the emperors Nicephorus and Michael, and was twice complimented with embassies from Haroun al Raschid, the famous caliph of Bagdad, all of which he received with a splendor unexampled even in the East. He convened councils and parliaments, published capitularies, wrote many letters (some of which are still extant), a grammar, and several Latin poems. His empire comprehended France, most of Catalonia, Navarre and Arragon; the Netherlands, Germany as far as the Elbe, Saale and Eyder, Upper and Middle Italy, Istria, and a part of Sclavonia. In private life, Charlemagne was exceedingly amiable; a good father, and generous friend. His domestic economy afforded a model of frugality; his person, a rare example of simplicity and greatness. He despised extravagance of dress in men, though, on solemn occasions, he appeared in all the splendor of majesty. His table was very frugal. His only excess was his love of the other sex. He was large and strong; his height, according to Eginhard, equalled seven times the length of his foot. His head was round; his eye large and lively; his nose of more than common size; his countenance had an agreeable expression of serenity. His gait was firm; his bearing manly. He enjoyed constant health, till the last four years of his life, when he was attacked by fevers, and began to limp. In summer, he was accustomed to repose for two hours after dinner, for which purpose he used to undress; but at night he slept uneasily. He wore the dress of his country; on his body, a linen shirt, over which was a coat with a silk border, and long breeches. For his outer dress, he wore a cloak, and always his sword, the hilt and belt of which were of gold and silver. He possessed a natural, impressive eloquence, and, in his expression of countenance, there was something to excite respect, united with gentleness and kindness. (See *Eginhard.*)

Charlemont and Givet; one of the strongest fortresses in France, in the department of the Ardennes, with 3500 inhabitants. The works occupy both banks of the Meuse, about 25 miles above Namur, at the junction of several roads, on a steep mountain. The two places completely command the river, and serve as a point of support to a friendly army, advancing along the Meuse, and as a serious obstruction if the forces belong to the enemy, obliging them to leave behind a corps of observation, at least double the number of that which composes the garrison. The castle and small town of Charlemont were built in 1555, by Charles V. Louis XIV, who had obtained possession of the place by the peace of Nimeguen, as it was capable of containing only two battalions, enlarged it by fortifying the small town of Givet, which lies at the foot of the hill, and by increasing the fortifications of Charlemont. At present, the place consists of four fortresses, two of which, Charlemont and Great Givet, lie on the left bank of the Meuse, and the other two, Little Givet and Mont d'Haur, upon the right. Charlemont rises from a narrow rock, which is 200 feet high, commands almost every direction, descends perpendicularly towards the Meuse, and the west side, on the north, is very steep, and descends with a gentle slope on the east. This last side, the only one on which an attack can be apprehended, is defended by six bastions, a horn and a crown-work, and several detached works. Almost all the moats are hewn in the rock, and well provided with casemates. Great Givet has four bastions and three ravelins with dry ditches. Little Givet contains four bastions, and full ditches, but no covered way; and Mont d'Haur, a hill opposite to Charlemont, is included within the lines of the fortress by a strong crown-work, and may, at the same time, serve as a fortified camp. The fortress is calculated for a garrison of 11,000 men, but, in case of necessity, can contain 25,000, and may be defended by 3—4000 men. Though the two Givets and Mont d'Haur would not offer great obstacles to an attack, yet Charlemont is almost impregnable. It has

never yet been seriously attacked. The Prussians, indeed, contemplated assailing it, in 1815, but abandoned the design, although the Givets and Mont d'Haur had already capitulated. By the treaty of Paris, it was occupied by a Russian garrison.

CHARLEROY, or CHARLES SUR SAMBRE; a town in the Netherlands, in Namur, on the north side of the river Sambre, in a place formerly called *Charnoy;* 20 miles E. N. E. Mons, 20 N. E. Maubeuge; lat. 50° 26′ N.; lon. 4° 32′ E.; population, 3744. It has manufactures of glass, hardware and woollen stuffs, and in the neighborhood are extensive pits of turf and coal. It was taken by the French, under general Valence, in the month of November, 1792, with 4000 prisoners. It was recovered by the Austrians, in the month of June, 1793, when the French were twice defeated; once with the loss of 4000 men, and again of 7000. July 25, 1794, it again surrendered to the French at discretion, with the garrison of 3000 men and 60 pieces of cannon.

CHARLES; the name of many important personages, whose lives are here given or referred to, in the following order:—

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For the sovereigns of this name not enumerated here, we refer the reader to the history of the countries to which they belong.

CHARLES MARTEL; a son of Pepin Heristel (mayor of the palace under the last kings of the Merovingian dynasty). His father had governed under the weak kings of France with so much justice, and so much to the satisfaction of the people, that he was enabled to make his office hereditary in his family. Chilperic II, king of the Franks, refusing to acknowledge Charles Martel as mayor of the palace, the latter deposed him, and set Clothaire IV in his place. After the death of Clothaire, he restored Chilperic, and, subsequently, placed Thierri on the throne, showing how absolute was the control of the mayor, and that the royal dignity was a mere phantom. Charles Martel rendered his reign famous by the great victory which he gained, in October, 732, over the Saracens, near Tours, from which he acquired the name of *Martel*, signifying *hammer.* He died in 741. His son Pepin the Short governed the Franks till the year 752, nominally under the effeminate king Childeric III; but, in this year, pope Zachary replied to a question put to him by the states of France, that he ought to be king who had the royal power; in consequence of which the Franks declared Pepin king at Soissons, in 752. He died in 768, highly honored by his subjects. His sons were Charlemagne and Carloman. (See *Charlemagne.*)

CHARLES IV, emperor of Germany, of the house of Luxemburg, was born in 1316, and educated at Paris. His father, John of Luxemburg, king of Bohemia, celebrated in history for his chivalric spirit, fell in the battle of Crecy. The quarrels of the emperor Louis the Bavarian with the king of Bohemia, the father of Charles, the choice of the latter, in the room of the emperor, excommunicated by Clement VI, and the victory which Louis, far his superior in power and talents, obtained over his rival, we have not room to relate. After the death of Louis, Oct. 21, 1347, Charles of Luxemburg, who inherited the kingdom of Bohemia, and had been chosen emperor in 1346, by five electors, hoped to occupy the imperial throne without opposition. But the very means which had raised him to the throne created him enemies. The princes of the empire regarded him as a servant of the pope. Ten years had not yet elapsed, since Germany, at the diet of Rense, had adopted the most energetic measures against the claims of the holy see. The election of Charles IV was the first infringement of the celebrated constitution of 1338. In consequence, the archbishop of Mentz, whom Clement IV had deposed, the electors of Brandenburg and the palatinate, the duke of Saxe Lauenburg, who arrogated a vote in the election, assembled at Lahnstein, declared the choice of Charles to be void, and elected Edward III of England, brother-in-law of the last emperor; but this monarch, then

at war with France, made use of the offer of the electors so far only as to secure the neutrality of the king of Bohemia, and rejected the proffered crown. Equally fruitless was the choice of Frederic the Severe, landgrave of Meissen; upon which the enemies of Charles elected the virtuous and heroic count Günther of Schwarzburg, whom Charles, as some writers, though without sufficient authority, assert, put out of his way by poison. Those who surrounded Günther in his last moments extorted from him an abdication, for which they were munificently paid by Charles, who was as liberal, when the gratification of his ambition was concerned, as he was unjust and rapacious in satisfying his avarice. Charles now used every effort to appease his enemies. He married the daughter of the elector of the palatinate, gave the elector of Brandenburg Tyrol as a fief, and was unanimously elected emperor, and consecrated at Aix-la-Chapelle. But no sooner was he crowned, than he took possession of the imperial insignia, and, contrary to his express promise, conveyed them to Bohemia. He persuaded his father-in-law, the elector of the palatinate, to subject a great portion of the upper palatinate to the feudal court of Bohemia. This tribunal, which he regarded as the most proper instrument for the subjugation of Germany, was enlarged in its jurisdiction more and more. In 1354, the emperor went to Italy, to be crowned by the pope; but this favor he purchased on terms which made him an object of ridicule and contempt. He engaged to appear without any armed force. Having been consecrated at Milan king of Italy, he confirmed the Visconti in the possession of all the usurpations of which he had promised to deprive them. He also annulled all the acts of his grandfather, Henry VII, against Florence, and, by a treaty concluded at Padua, resigned the latter city, with Verona and Vicenza, to Venice. Trafficking thus with his rights, he went to Rome, and was crowned by a delegate of the pope, but did not dare to remain there a single day. He refused the request of some Romans, to claim the city, as belonging to him, in the name of the empire, and, in a treaty, renounced all sovereignty over Rome, the States of the Church, Ferrara, Naples, Sicily, Sardinia and Corsica, and even took an oath not to return to Italy without the consent of the pope. Despised by the Guelphs, detested by the Ghibellines, Charles returned to Germany, where he issued the celebrated golden bull, which, till recently, continued a fundamental law of the German empire. (See *Bull.*) He thus acquired some claims to the public gratitude; but these were soon effaced by the general indignation, excited by the proposal made, with his consent, by the papal nuncio, to introduce a tax, equal to the tithe of all ecclesiastical revenues, for the benefit of the holy see. All the members of the diet opposed it; and Charles, in his anxiety to conciliate the princes of the empire, announced that he would propose to the assembly a reform of the German clergy. The pope, enraged at this proposal of the emperor, exhorted the electors to depose him. Charles immediately relapsed into his accustomed submissiveness, and not only abandoned all his reforms, but even confirmed, in 1359, all the privileges of the clergy, all their present and future possessions, and made them independent of the secular power. Such vacillating conduct subjected him to the contempt of both parties, of which he received a proof before the close of the same diet, which was held at Mentz. Several princes had, by degrees, obtained possession of many territories, formerly fiefs of the empire. Charles attempted to reunite them with the empire; but the dissatisfaction which was manifested at the attempt, frustrated this plan of the weak emperor, who indemnified himself by selling to the king of Poland the rights of sovereignty, which had been hitherto exercised by the German emperors, over some of his provinces. It may be easily supposed that, under such an emperor, Germany did not enjoy internal tranquillity. Bands of robbers plundered the country in all quarters. The emperor marched against them without accomplishing any thing, and, finally, left the princes and cities to protect themselves by mutual alliances, as well as they were able. The state of Italy was no less melancholy. Tuscany was suffering the evils of anarchy; Lombardy was distracted by civil wars, and the Visconti had made themselves masters of the Milanese. The emperor, true to his principle of sanctioning power wherever found, appointed these usurpers his vicars-general in Lombardy. Imboldened by this, Barnabas Visconti threatened to subject all Italy to his yoke. Pope Urban V sent an invitation to Charles to concert measures of resistance with him, hastened from Avignon to Rome, concluded several alliances, levied troops, and waited for the emperor, who actually appeared with a considerable force; so that Italy, for a short time, deemed itself safe. Charles took advantage of the pope's situation to persuade him to

crown his fourth wife, Elizabeth of Pomerania, at Rome, and, in return, entered into the most positive engagements with Urban. Notwithstanding this, he again engaged in negotiations with the Visconti, and sold them a formal confirmation of all their usurpations. In like manner, during his residence in Italy, he sold states and cities to the highest bidder, or, if they themselves offered most, made them independent republics. With great treasures, but despised by his enemies, and hated by his allies, he returned to Germany. Gregory XI, having given his consent that his son Wenceslaus should be elected king of the Romans,* he employed his ill-gotten wealth to purchase the votes of the electors, who were irritated at the conduct of the pope, and distributed among them, in addition, the domains of the empire on the Rhine, and several free imperial cities. Thus he attained his object. To maintain their rights against the arbitrary measures of the emperor, the imperial cities in Suabia formed the (so called) *Suabian league*, which Charles opposed in vain. To the pope he manifested his gratitude by extending the privileges of the clergy. The empire was nearly ruined, when Charles died at Prague, in 1378. To his eldest son, Wenceslaus, he left Bohemia and Silesia; to the second, Sigismund, the electorate of Brandenburg; and to the third, Lusatia. His reign is remarkable for the improvement and prosperity of Bohemia; for the founding of the universities of Prague and Vienna; for a terrible persecution of the Jews, and as the period when the sale of letters of nobility commenced in Germany. The history of this prince affords a fine illustration of the soundness of the theory of legitimacy, many of his usurpations having become a part of the "divine right" of succeeding rulers.

Charles V, emperor of Germany and king of Spain (in the latter capacity, he is called *Charles I*), the eldest son of Philip, arch-duke of Austria, and of Joanna, the daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain, was born at Ghent, Feb. 24, 1500. Philip was the son of the emperor Maximilian and Mary, daughter of Charles the Bold, last duke of Burgundy. Charles's birth gave him claims to the fairest countries of Europe. He was educated in the Netherlands, under the care of William of Croy, lord of Chièvres. Charles preferred military exercises to study. Chièvres, without diverting him from his favorite occupations, taught him history, formed him for affairs of state, and implanted in him that gravity which he retained through life. After the death of Ferdinand, his grandfather, in 1516, Charles assumed the title of *king of Spain*. The management of this kingdom was intrusted to the celebrated cardinal Ximenes, who, by his genius, prepared the way for the glorious reign of Charles V. In 1519, Maximilian likewise died, and Charles was now elected *emperor*. He left Spain to take possession of his new dignity, for which he had to contend with Francis I, king of France. His coronation took place at Aix-la-Chapelle, with extraordinary splendor. The elective capitulation (*Wahlcapitulation*, see *Capitulation*), signed by his ambassadors, he ratified without hesitation. The chief features of it were the reservations made by the electors, securing themselves against foreign influence. The emperor was not to begin any war without their consent; no language but the German or Latin was to be used in the administration of the affairs of the empire; and the rich commercial confederacies of merchants, whose wealth, as the instrument expressed it, had enabled them to act according to their own will, were to be abolished by the emperor, assisted by the advice of the members of the empire. The association aimed at was the powerful Hanseatic league, whose influence had excited the electors' jealousy. The progress of the reformation in Germany demanded the care of the new emperor, who held a diet at Worms. Luther, who appeared at this diet, with a safe conduct from Charles, defended his cause with energy and boldness. The emperor kept silent; but, after Luther's departure, a severe edict appeared against him, in the name of Charles, who thought it for his advantage to show himself the defender of the Roman church. The claims which Francis I had advanced to the empire, and those which he still preferred to Italy, the Netherlands and Navarre, made war appear inevitable. Charles prepared for it by an alliance with the pope. Hostilities broke out in 1521. The French, victorious beyond the Pyrenees, were unsuccessful in the Netherlands. A congress held at Calais only increased the irritation, and gave Henry VIII, king of England, a pretext for declaring himself for Charles, whose party daily acquired strength. A serious insurrection in Spain was happily subdued. The defeat of Bonnivet, in the Milanese, and the accession of the constable of Bourbon, indemnified Charles V for his want of success in Provence. Francis,

* This was the title given to the person elected during the lifetime of the emperor, to succeed him after his death.

who was besieging Pavia, was defeated by the imperial forces, and taken prisoner, in 1525. On this occasion, Charles feigned the moderation of a Christian hero. Without improving his advantages, he remained inactive in Spain. But he thought to attain his object in another way. He proposed to Francis I such hard conditions, that this unfortunate prince swore that he would die in captivity, rather than accede to them. Meanwhile, he was carried to Spain, and treated with respect. Charles, however, did not visit him, until he was informed that the life of his prisoner was in danger. The interview was brief. Charles promised his captive a speedy release. The treaty of Madrid was finally concluded in January, 1526. The power of Charles now became a source of uneasiness to most other princes of Europe. Pope Clement VII placed himself at the head of a league of the principal states of Italy against the emperor; but their ill-directed efforts were productive of new misfortunes. Rome was taken by storm by the troops of the constable, sacked, and the pope himself made prisoner. Charles V publicly disavowed the proceedings of the constable, went into mourning with his court, and carried his hypocrisy so far as to order prayers for the deliverance of the pope. On restoring the holy father to liberty, he demanded a ransom of 400,000 crowns of gold, but was satisfied with a quarter of that sum. He also released, for 2,000,000, the French princes, who had been given to him as hostages. Henry VIII of England now allied himself with the French monarch against Charles, who accused Francis of having broken his word, given on the honor of a gentleman. The quarrel brought on a challenge to a duel, which did not, however, take place. The war was terminated in 1529, by the treaty of Cambray, of which the conditions were favorable to the emperor. Charles soon after left Spain, and was crowned in Bologna as king of Lombardy and Roman emperor. On the occasion of this solemnity, the proud Charles kissed the feet of the same pope who had been his prisoner. In 1530, he seemed desirous, at the diet of Augsburg, to reconcile the various parties; but, not succeeding, he issued a decree against the Protestants, which they met by the Smalcaldic league. He also published, in 1532, a law of criminal procedure. (See *Carolina*.) Notwithstanding his undertakings in favor of the Catholic religion, Charles always showed himself moderate towards the Protestants, whenever his interest left room for toleration. Nor did the Protestant princes hesitate to furnish their contingents, when he was assembling an army against the Turks. Having compelled Solyman to retreat, he undertook, in 1535, an expedition against Tunis, reinstated the dey, and released 20,000 Christian slaves. This success added to his character somewhat of the chivalric, which gave him still more influence in Christendom, and promoted his political projects. He manifested this chivalrous spirit still more in a speech, which he made at Rome, before the pope and cardinals, when hostilities were renewed in Italy against France. In this he proposed a duel, in which the duchy of Burgundy on the one part, and the duchy of Milan on the other, were to be the prize; but, on the following day, he expressed himself in such a manner to the French ambassador, that it was suspected that his challenge was only a figure of speech. His invasions of Provence and Picardy met with small success. A truce was concluded in 1537, and, in 1538, prolonged for 10 years. The two monarchs had an interview, in which they spoke only of mutual respect and esteem. Soon after, Charles, who was in Spain, where he had annihilated the old constitution of the cortes, wished to pass through France to the Netherlands. He spent six days with Francis I in Paris, where the two princes appeared together in all public places like brothers. Courtiers were not wanting, who advised the king of France to detain his guest, until he had annulled the treaty of Madrid; but Francis was satisfied with promises, which Charles very soon forgot. Having quelled the disturbances in the Netherlands, Charles resolved, in 1541, to crown his reputation by the conquest of Algiers. Against Doria's advice, he embarked in the stormy season, and lost a part of his fleet and army, without gaining any advantage. After his return, his refusal to invest the king of France with the territory of Milan involved him in a new war, in which the king of England embraced his part. The army of Charles was defeated at Cerisola; but, on the other hand, he penetrated to the heart of Champagne. The disturbances caused in Germany by the reformation induced the emperor to accede to the peace of Crespy, in 1545. The policy of Charles was to reconcile the two parties, and, towards the Protestants, he employed alternately threats and promises. After some show of negotiation, the Protestant princes raised the standard of war. The emperor declared, in 1546, the heads of the league

under the ban of the empire, excited divisions among the confederates, collected an army in haste, and obtained several advantages over his enemies. John Frederic, the elector of Saxony, was taken prisoner in the battle of Mühlberg, in 1547. Charles received him sternly, and gave him over to a court-martial, consisting of Italians and Spaniards, under the presidency of Alva, which condemned him to death. The elector saved his life only by renouncing his electorate and his hereditary estates; but he remained a prisoner. Meanwhile, the emperor appeared somewhat more moderately inclined towards the vanquished party. On coming to Wittenberg, he expressed surprise that the exercise of the Lutheran worship had been discontinued. He visited the grave of Luther, and said, "I do not war with the dead: let him rest in peace: he is already before his Judge." The landgrave of Hesse Cassel, one of the heads of the Protestants, was compelled to sue for mercy: notwithstanding his promise, Charles deprived him of his freedom. After having dissolved the league of Smalcalden, the emperor again occupied himself with the plan of uniting all religious parties, and, for this purpose, issued the *Interim* (q. v.), so called, which was as fruitless as the measures proposed by him at the diet of Augsburg. Neither was he successful in securing the imperial crown to his son. Discord still agitated public sentiment, and a new war broke out against him. Maurice of Saxony, whom he had invested with the electoral dignity, formed a league, which was joined by Henry II, king of France, the successor of Francis. The preparations had been made with the greatest secrecy. Charles was at Inspruck, superintending the deliberations of the council of Trent, and meditating great plans against France and Turkey. He was expecting the aid of Maurice, when this prince threw off the mask, appeared suddenly at the head of an army, and invaded the Tyrol in 1552, while Henry II entered Lorraine. Charles was near being surprised in Inspruck, in the middle of a stormy night. Tormented by the gout, he escaped alone, in a litter, by difficult roads. Maurice abandoned the imperial castle to plunder, the council of Trent was dissolved, and the Protestants dictated the conditions of the treaty of Passau, in 1552. Charles was not more successful in Lorraine. He was unable to recover Metz, defended by the duke of Guise. In Italy, he lost Sienna, by a revolt. He withdrew to Brussels, where, hard pressed by his enemies, and suffering from the gout, he became gloomy and dejected, and, for several months, concealed himself from the sight of every one, so that the report of his death was spread through Europe. His last exertions were directed against France, which constantly repelled his assaults. The diet of Augsburg, in 1555, confirmed the treaty of Passau, and gave the Protestants equal rights with the Catholics. Charles saw all his plans frustrated, and the number of his enemies increasing. He resolved to transfer his hereditary states to his son Philip. Having convened the estates of the Low Countries at Louvain, in 1555, he explained to them the reasons of his resolution, asserted that he had sacrificed himself for the interests of religion and of his subjects, but that his strength was inadequate to further exertion, and that he should devote to God the remainder of his days. He then turned to Philip, who had thrown himself on his knees, and kissed the hand of his father; reminded him of his duties, and made him swear to labor incessantly for the good of the people. He then gave him his blessing, embraced him, and sunk back exhausted on his chair. At that time, Charles conferred on Philip the sovereignty of the Netherlands alone. Jan. 15, 1556, he conferred upon him, in like manner, the Spanish throne, reserving for himself merely a pension of 100,000 ducats. The remaining time that he spent in the Netherlands he employed in reconciling his son with France, and effected the conclusion of a truce. Having made an unsuccessful attempt to induce his brother Ferdinand to transfer the imperial crown to the head of his son, he sent a solemn embassy to Germany, to announce to the electors his abdication; after which he embarked at Zealand, and landed on the coast of Biscay. It is said that he threw himself on the earth on landing, kissed it, and exclaimed, "Naked I left the womb of my mother, and naked I return to thee, thou common mother of mankind." He had selected for his residence the monastery of St. Justus, near Placensia, in Estremadura, and here he exchanged sovereignty, dominion and pomp for the quiet and solitude of a cloister. His amusements were confined to short rides, to the cultivation of a garden, and to mechanical labors. It is said that he made wooden clocks, and, being unable to make two clocks go exactly alike, was reminded of the folly of his efforts to bring a number of men to the same sentiments. He attended religious services twice every day, read books of devotion, and, by de-

grees, fell into such dejection, that his faculties seemed to suffer from it. He renounced the most innocent pleasures, and observed the rules of the monastic life in all their rigor. In order to perform an extraordinary act of piety, he resolved to celebrate his own obsequies. Wrapped in a shroud, and surrounded by his retinue, he laid himself in a coffin, which was placed in the middle of the church. The funeral service was performed, and the monarch mingled his voice with those of the clergy, who prayed for him. After the last sprinkling, all withdrew, and the doors were closed. He remained some time in the coffin, then rose, threw himself before the altar, and returned to his cell, where he spent the night in deep meditation. This ceremony hastened his death. He was attacked by a fever, of which he died, at the age of 59 years, Sept. 21, 1558.—Charles had a noble air, and refined manners. He spoke little, and smiled seldom. Firm of purpose; slow to decide; prompt to execute; equally rich in resources, and sagacious in the choice of them; gifted with a cool judgment, and always master of himself, he steadily pursued his purposes, and easily triumphed over obstacles. Circumstances developed his genius, and made him great. Although his want of faith was notorious, he imposed, by the semblance of magnanimity and sincerity, even on those who had already experienced his perfidy. An acute judge of men, he knew how to use them for his purposes. It is improbable that it was his intention to establish a universal monarchy. In misfortune he appears greater than in prosperity. He protected and encouraged the arts and sciences, and is said to have picked up a brush, which had fallen from the hand of Titian, with the words, "Titian is worthy of being served by an emperor." By his wife Eleonora, daughter of Emanuel, king of Portugal, he had one son, afterwards Philip II, and two daughters. He had, also, several natural children.—Charles V is one of the most remarkable characters in history. He exhibited no talents in his youth, and, in after life, when his armies in Italy were winning battle after battle, he remained quietly in Spain, apparently not much interested in these victories; but, even in his early youth, his motto was, *not yet* (*nondum*). It was not till his 30th year, that he showed himself active and independent; but, from this time to his abdication, he was, throughout, a monarch. No minister had a marked influence over him. He was indefatigable in business, weighing the reasons on both sides of every case with great minuteness; very slow in deciding; unchangeable of purpose; so that he once said to a courtier, who praised him for his perseverance and firmness, that he sometimes insisted upon things not right. Granvella was the only person who possessed his entire confidence. (See *Granvella.*) Wherever he was, he imitated the customs of the country, and won the favor of every people except the Germans. Among them he was not liked, owing to his want of the frankness which they expected in their emperor. Charles was slow in punishing, as well as in rewarding; but, when he did punish, it was with severity; when he rewarded, it was with munificence. His health early declined. In his 40th year, he felt himself weak. His sufferings from the gout were extreme: he could not even open a letter without pain. After his mother's death, he thought sometimes that he heard her voice, calling to him to follow her. It is said that, when arming for battle, he trembled; but, in the heat of the engagement, was as cool as if it were impossible for an emperor to be killed. We know of no work, in which the character of Charles has been delineated with more truth than in the valuable production of Mr. Ranke, professor in the university of Berlin,—The Princes and Nations of the South of Europe in the sixteenth and seventeenth Centuries (Hamburg, 1827). Among the numerous sources of the history of Charles V, we would mention Hormayr's *Aus durchaus ungedruckten Papieren*, in his *Archiv. für Geogr. Historie*, &c. (Jahrg. 1810). The work of Robertson is too well known to need recommendation.

Charles VI, the second son of the emperor Leopold I, was born Oct. 1, 1685. His father destined him for the Spanish throne. The last prince of the house of Hapsburg, Charles II, disregarding the house of Austria, whose right to the Spanish throne was undoubted, according to the law of inheritance by descent, had, by his will, made Philip, duke of Anjou, second grandson of Louis XIV, heir of the Spanish monarchy, and, after the death of Charles II, Nov. 1, 1700, Philip had taken possession of the vacant kingdom. England and Holland united against him, and this alliance was soon joined by the German empire, Portugal and Savoy. Charles was proclaimed king of Spain, at Vienna, in 1703, and proceeded, by way of Holland, to England, from whence, in January, 1704, he set sail, with 12,000 men, for Spain, which was almost wholly

occupied by the French, and landed in Catalonia. He succeeded in making himself master of Barcelona; but he was soon besieged there by his rival Philip V. The French had already taken Mont Jouy, preparations were making for an assault on the city, and it seemed as if Charles could not escape being captured. Nevertheless, at the head of a garrison of hardly 2000 men, he made the most obstinate resistance, till the long-expected English fleet appeared, which put to flight the 12 French ships that blockaded the harbor, and landed a body of troops, which compelled the French speedily to raise the siege. This event was followed by alternate reverses and successes. Twice Charles reached Madrid, and twice was he driven from the city. The first time, in 1706, he caused himself to be proclaimed king, in the capital, under the name of *Charles III.* He had been a second time compelled to flee to the walls of Barcelona, when he was informed of the death of his brother Joseph I. According to the will of Leopold, this event placed the double crown of Charles V on his head; to his claims on Spain, it added the more certain possession of the Austrian dominions. But the allies were averse to seeing so much power united in the same hands. Charles repaired to Germany by way of Italy, and, on his arrival, learned that, at Eugene's suggestion, he had also been elected emperor. His coronation took place at Frankfort, in December, 1711, and, in the following year, he received, at Presburg, the crown of Hungary. At the same time, he still retained the empty title of king of Spain. He now prosecuted, under the conduct of Eugene, the Spanish war of succession, which his brother had carried on with so much success in the Netherlands; but Marlborough's disgrace, and the retreat of the English army, having resulted in a defeat at Denain, the allies concluded a peace with France at Utrecht, in 1713, in spite of all the efforts of the emperor to prevent it. He was obliged, in the following year, to sign the treaty of Rastadt. This treaty secured him in the possession of Milan, Mantua, Sardinia and the Netherlands. Soon after, in June, 1715, the Turks declared war against Venice. The emperor undertook the defence of this republic. His brave armies, led by Eugene, achieved decisive victories at Peterwardein and Belgrade. But, as the Spaniards menaced Italy, Charles concluded, in 1718, the peace of Passarowicz, by which he obtained Belgrade, the north of Servia, and Temeswar. Cardinal Alberoni, who was at the head of the cabinet of Madrid, involved Austria, by his schemes, in a new war. But the quadruple alliance, concluded at London in 1718, terminated the war with the removal of this minister, in 1720. To secure his dominions to his daughter Maria Theresa, in default of male heirs, Charles strove to induce the various powers to guaranty the pragmatic sanction, which settled the succession in her favor. He succeeded, by degrees, in gaining the concurrence of all the European powers. The emperor availed himself of a short period of peace to establish various institutions for the benefit of commerce. He visited, in person, the coasts of Istria, where he caused roads and harbors to be constructed, and vessels to be built. His plans respecting the Indian trade in the Netherlands had not the same success, and he was compelled to sacrifice them to the pretensions of the maritime powers. The reign of this prince, by nature a lover of peace, was marked with perpetual agitations. The succession to the Polish throne, after the death of Augustus II, in 1733, disturbed the peace of Europe. Charles, with Russia, supported the son of this prince; but France and Spain declared themselves for Stanislaus Leczinsky. From this arose a bloody war, which terminated, in 1735, in the loss of the Two Sicilies and a part of the duchy of Milan. Austria received Tuscany in exchange for Lorraine, and obtained Parma. Hardly had Charles finished this war, when his alliance with Russia involved him anew in a war with the Turks. In 1737, his troops, under field-marshal Seckendorf, invaded Servia, without any declaration of war, and occupied Nissa. But the Turks renewed their attacks with a continually augmented force, and obliged the emperor, after three unsuccessful campaigns, to cede to them, by the peace of Belgrade, in 1739, Walachia, and the Austrian part of Servia, with Belgrade. Charles died Oct. 20, 1740, at a time when he was employed in the improvement of his distracted finances, and was about putting the last hand to the pragmatic sanction, by causing the grand-duke of Tuscany, his son-in-law, to be chosen king of the Romans.

Charles VII (properly *Charles Albert*), king of the Romans, born at Brussels, in the year 1697, was the son of Maximilian Emanuel, elector of Bavaria, then governor of the Spanish Netherlands. His youth was spent at the imperial court, and,

in the war against the Turks, he commanded the army of auxiliaries sent by his father. In 1722, he married the daughter of Joseph I, having previously renounced all rights which this marriage might give him to the succession to the throne of Austria. In 1726, he succeeded his father as elector of Bavaria. He was one of the princes who protested against the pragmatic sanction, guarantied, in 1732, by the diet of Ratisbon, and, in consequence, concluded a defensive alliance with Saxony. After the death of Charles VI (q. v.), in 1740, he refused to acknowledge Maria Theresa as his heiress, founding his own claims to the succession on a testament of Ferdinand I. He was supported by the king of France, with a considerable force. In 1741, he was recognised, at Lintz, as arch-duke of Austria. The obstacles thrown in his way by cardinal Fleury, who wished not to dismember the Austrian monarchy, as well as the want of artillery and ammunition, prevented him from getting possession of Vienna. On the other hand, he took Prague, where he was crowned and proclaimed king of Bohemia. In 1742, he was unanimously elected king of the Romans: he made a solemn entry into Frankfort, and was crowned by his brother, the elector of Cologne. But fortune soon deserted him. The armies of Maria Theresa reconquered all Upper Austria, and overwhelmed Bavaria. It was necessary to abandon Bohemia. Charles fled to Frankfort, and convoked a diet, when an attack of the king of Prussia on Maria Theresa allowed him to return to Münich in 1744, in which city he died in January, 1745, exhausted by grief and disease. He was succeeded in the electorate by his son Maximilian Joseph, in the imperial dignity by Francis I, husband of Maria Theresa.

Charles the Bold, duke of Burgundy, son of Philip the Good and Isabella of Portugal, born at Dijon, Nov. 10, 1433, at first bore the name of *count of Charolais*, under which he distinguished himself in the battles of Rúpelmonde, in 1452, and of Morbeque, in 1453. He was of a violent, impetuous disposition, sometimes breaking out into fury; and early displayed that unhappy ambition, which was the source of his errors and misfortunes. His dislike of the lords of the house of Croy, the favorites of his father, was insurmountable; and, being unable to procure their disgrace, he withdrew from the court, and went to Holland. He was again reconciled, however, with his father, whom he inspired with his own hatred of Louis XI, and placed himself at the head of the party then forming against that monarch. Having passed through Flanders and Artois, he crossed the Somme at the head of 26,000 men, and appeared before Paris. The king sent the bishop of the city, Alain Chartier, to reproach him for waging war against his sovereign. But the heir of Burgundy answered, "Tell your master, that against a prince who makes use of the dagger and poison, there are always sufficient grounds of war, and that, in marching against him, one is very sure of finding, on the way, companions enough. Moreover, I have taken up arms solely at the urgent request of the people, nobility and princes: these are my accomplices!" Louis met him at Montlheri. Charles broke through one wing of the royal army, and allowed himself to be carried on too far in pursuit of the fugitives. Surrounded by 15 *gens d'armes*, who had already killed his master of the horse, he received a wound, but refused to surrender; performed prodigies of valor, and thus gave his soldiers time to come to his release. From this time, Charles conceived so high an opinion of his talents for war, that the greatest reverses could not cure him of it. He succeeded his father in 1467, and immediately engaged in a war with the citizens of Liege, whom he conquered and treated with extreme severity. Before this undertaking, he had been obliged to restore to the citizens of Ghent the privileges which had been taken from them by Philip the Good. He now revoked his forced concessions, caused the leaders of the insurrection to be executed, and imposed a large fine on the city. In 1468, he married Margaret of York, sister of the king of England, and resolved immediately to renew the civil war in France; but Louis disarmed him by giving him 120,000 crowns of gold. Oct. 3 of the same year, the monarch and the duke had a meeting at Peronne, in order to adjust their differences. There the duke learned that the inhabitants of Liege, instigated by the king, had rebelled anew, and made themselves masters of Tongres. Charles was enraged. In vain did Louis on oath protest his innocence; he was imprisoned and strictly guarded. After hesitating long between the most violent measures, the duke finally compelled the king to sign a treaty, the most disgraceful condition of which was, that he should march with Charles against the city of Liege, which he had himself excited against the

duke. Charles encamped before Liege, in company with the king: the city was taken by storm, and abandoned to the fury of the soldiers. Such success rendered the mind of the duke utterly obdurate, and added the last traits of that inflexible, sanguinary character, which made him the scourge of his neighbors, and led to his own destruction. Edward IV conferred on him, in 1470, the order of the garter. Shortly after, he received, in Flanders, Edward himself, who came to seek an asylum with the duke. Charles gave him money and ships to return to England. About the end of the same year, the war between the king of France and the duke of Burgundy was renewed; and never did Charles show himself more deserving of the name of the *Bold*, or *Rash*, than in this war. Forced to sue for a truce, he nevertheless soon took up arms anew, accused the king, publicly, of magic and poisoning, and, at the head of 24,000 men, crossed the Somme. He took the city of Nesle by storm, caused fire to be set to it, and, as he saw it burning, said, with barbarous coolness, "Such are the fruits of the tree of war." An enemy to tranquillity, insensible to pleasure, loving nothing but destruction and bloodshed, and, notwithstanding his pride, master of the art of procuring allies, Charles, who desired to be equal to Louis XI in dignity and rank, as well as in power, formed the plan of enlarging his dominions on the Rhine, and elevating his states into a kingdom, under the name of *Belgic Gaul*. He visited the emperor Frederic III, at Treves, to obtain the title of king and vicar-general of the empire, which the emperor had promised him, on condition that he should marry his daughter to the archduke; but, as neither would enter first into obligations, they separated in dissatisfaction, and the negotiation was broken off. Louis, meanwhile, involved Charles in greater embarrassments, by exciting against him Austria and the Swiss. Charles now determined to dethrone him, and, for this purpose, made an alliance with the king of England; but, being compelled to hasten to the aid of his relative, the bishop of Cologne, he lost ten months before Neuss, which he besieged in vain, and then hastened to Lorraine, to take revenge on the duke Rene, who, at the instigation of France, had declared war against him. Having completed the conquest of Lorraine by the taking of Nancy, in 1475, he turned his arms against the Swiss; and, notwithstanding the representations of these peaceful mountaineers, who told him that all that he could find among them would not be worth so much as the spurs of his horsemen, he took the city of Granson, and put to the sword 800 men, by whom it was defended. But these cruelties were soon avenged by the signal victory which the Swiss obtained near the same city, March 3, 1476. The loss of this battle plunged Charles into a gloomy dejection, which disturbed his mind and his health. With a new army, he returned to Switzerland, and lost the battle of Murten (Morat), June 22d. The duke of Lorraine, who had fought in the army of the Swiss, led the victors to the walls of Nancy, which surrendered Oct. 6th. At the first information of this siege, Charles marched to Lorraine, to retake the city of Nancy from the duke René. He intrusted to the count of Campo-Basso the charge of the first attack, and, on learning that this officer was a traitor, he regarded the information as a snare. Campo-Basso protracted the siege, and gave René time to come up with 20,000 men. On the approach of this army, he deserted, with his troops, to the enemy, so that the army of Charles now consisted of only 4000 men. Against the advice of his council, Charles persisted in risking battle with unequal forces. On the 5th or 6th Jan., 1477 (John von Müller himself is in doubt respecting the day), the two armies met: the wing of the Burgundian was broken through and dispersed, and the centre, commanded by the duke in person, was attacked in front and flank. As Charles was putting on his helmet, the gilded lion, which served for a crest, fell to the ground, and he exclaimed, with surprise, "*Ecce magnum signum Dei!*" Defeated, and carried along with the current of fugitives, he fell, with his horse, into a ditch, where he was killed by the thrust of a lance, in the 44th year of his age. His body, covered with blood and mire, and with the head imbedded in the ice, was not found till two days after the battle, when it was so disfigured that for some time his own brothers did not recognise it. He was finally known by the length of his beard and nails (which he had suffered to grow since his defeat at Morat), as well as by the scar of a sword-cut, which he had received in the battle of Montlheri. With this prince expired the feudal government in Burgundy. Charles was not without good qualities. In the government of his people, we find no traces of the severity with which he treated himself, and his disposition made him attentive to the administration of jus-

tice. He was buried at Nancy, at the command of the duke of Lorraine. In 1550, Charles V, his great-grandson, caused his remains to be conveyed to Bruges. He was married three times, but left only one daughter, Maria, heiress of Burgundy, by Isabella of Bourbon, his second wife. (See *Maximilian I.*)—Compare the work of the baron de Barante, peer of France, *Hist. des Ducs de Bourgogne de la Maison de Valois* (Paris, 1824, 10 vols.). In Quentin Durward, sir Walter Scott has described the character of Charles, and some of the quarrels between him and Louis of France.

Charles VII, king of France. (See *France*, and *Joan of Arc.*)

Charles IX, king of France, son of Henry II and Catharine of Medici, born in 1550, at St. Germain-en-Laye, ascended the throne at the age of 10 years, after the death of his brother Francis II. No regency was appointed, and it was deemed sufficient to write to the parliament, through the young prince, that he had requested his mother to undertake the administration of the public affairs; and the parliament acquiesced in this resolution, to avoid exciting new contests between the Guises and the princes of the blood. Catharine consented that the king of Navarre should be appointed governor-general of the realm, as she was too well aware of the weakness of his character to fear it. In order to gratify her ambition, she resolved to throw every thing into confusion. (See *Catharine de Medici.*)—The Guises soon saw that they must oppose a Catholic league to the political associations of the Calvinists. (See *Guise.*)—The cruel persecutions against the Huguenots now broke out. (See *Bartholomew's Day, St.*)—The duke of Guise, who obtained possession of the person of the young king, was shot by an assassin before Orleans, in February, 1563. In his last moments, he advised the king and the queen mother to negotiate with the parties. This advice was followed; a treaty was signed, March 19, and Havre was taken from the English, July 27. The king, who was the same year declared of age, visited the provinces in company with his mother. At Bayonne, he had a meeting with his sister Isabella, the wife of Philip II of Spain. This excited such suspicions in the Calvinists, that they took up arms, and immediately formed the plan of attacking the king on his return to Paris. Being warned in season, he escaped the danger; but this plot could not fail to arouse the hatred of Charles, who was proud by nature, and more to be pitied than blamed for his too great confidence in his artful mother. After the battle of St. Denis, 1567, in which the constable of Montmorenci lost his life, Catharine entered into negotiations for peace. But the Calvinists reserved a part of the places which they were to have surrendered, and continued to keep up a communication with England and the German princes. A new civil war soon broke out. Notwithstanding the jealousy of Charles, Catharine placed the duke of Anjou at the head of the royal army. The prince of Condé having been shot in the battle of Jarnac, in 1569, and the admiral Coligni having been defeated at Montcontour, in the same year, the king concluded peace, in 1570, on terms which were so favorable to the Calvinists, that they seem even to have suspected treachery under them. The heads of that party did not therefore all appear at court when Charles celebrated his marriage with Elizabeth, the daughter of Maximilian II. By degrees this distrust disappeared, and the marriage of the young king of Navarre (afterwards Henry IV) with Margaret, sister of Charles IX, seemed to banish every suspicion. This marriage took place August 18, 1572. On the 22d, the first attempt was made on the life of Coligni, and on the 24th began that massacre known under the name of the *massacre of St. Bartholomew's*, from having taken place on the night of the festival of that saint. Civil war broke out for the fourth time, and Catharine now became aware of the errors of her policy. Charles could no longer conceal his aversion to her, and was on the point of assuming himself the reins of government, when he died, childless, in 1574. He was succeeded by his brother Henry III. Charles was brave, indefatigable, ambitious, of a lively, penetrating genius, and loved the sciences. The cruelties which disgrace his reign should be laid to the charge of his mother rather than himself.

Charles X, Philip, king of France and Navarre, brother of Louis XVI and Louis XVIII, succeeded the latter on the throne of France, Sept. 16, 1824. Till 1795, he bore the title of *count of Artois*; till 1824, that of *monsieur*. He was born at Versailles, Oct. 9th, 1757, and, in 1773, married Maria Theresa of Savoy, the sister of the countess of Provence, his brother's wife, who bore him the duke of Angoulême (q. v.) and the duke of Berri (q. v.), and died June 2d, 1805. He was educat-

ed at the court of Louis XV, and manifested in his youth an amiable disposition, and a capacity for mental improvement, together with a fondness for the *fêtes* then fashionable at Versailles, and for expensive pleasures. At a ball in the opera-hall, in 1778, he pulled off the mask of the duchess of Bourbon. This affront gave rise to a duel with the duke of Bourbon, related by the baron Bezenval in his *Mémoires*. In 1782, the count of Artois served as a volunteer in the camp of St. Roch, before Gibraltar, and was created chevalier of St. Louis. In 1787, as president of a bureau of the notables, he pursued different views from his brothers, the king and the count of Provence. The people, therefore, believed that he was opposed to the reform, which was so universally desired; and, when, with the count of Provence, he had completed the registration of the stamp and land tax acts, manifested their ill will by an attack on his person. Two days after the 14th of July, 1789, he and the prince of Condé gave the signal for the fatal emigration, from which so much misery has sprung. The count of Artois repaired to Turin, had an interview with the emperor Leopold in Mantua, resided some time at Worms, at Bruck near Bonn, at Brussels and Vienna. The monarchs assembled at Pilnitz (q. v.) afterwards promised him to support the cause of his family. Louis XVI took the oath to maintain the constitution, Sept. 14th, 1791, and invited the French princes who were at Coblentz to return to France; but they refused to obey, and protested against the new constitution—equally disobedient to their country and their king. Hereupon the legislative assembly of the nation withdrew from the count of Artois, May 19, 1792, the appanage of 1,000,000 francs, assigned him by the constitution, and referred his creditors to his estates. The prince was then at Turin, from whence he excited commotions at Lyons, and in other parts of France. He then undertook the command of a corps of emigrants, which, in connexion with the Prussian army, invaded Champagne. After the issue of this campaign, so unfortunate for the Bourbons, the count retired to Hamm, in Westphalia, where, after the death of Louis XVI, he was appointed by his brother, who had taken the title of *regent*, lieutenant-general of the kingdom. He now solicited the assistance of the empress Catharine, who received him at her court with the greatest distinction, and presented him with a valuable sword, "*pour le rétablissement et la gloire de votre maison.*" The English government gave him, at the end of 1794, a pension of £15,000 sterling. He had himself sent his diamonds, and the sword which Louis XVI had given his son, to marshal Broglio, to relieve, by the sale of them, the most pressing wants of the emigrants. As Russia seemed disposed to send troops to the assistance of the French royalists, the count proceeded from Hamm, by way of Cuxhaven, to England, in July, 1796, embarked from that country on board the squadron of commodore Warren, and landed on the Ile-Dieu Sept. 29, 1796, expecting to carry aid to the chiefs of Vendée. But advices from England that the Russian auxiliary corps was not to be expected, made him resolve to re-embark. He returned to England, where he afterwards resided in the castle of Edinburgh. In 1799, he left Scotland, in order to join the band of the prince of Condé in the Russian army in Switzerland; but, being informed of Korsakow's defeat and Suwarrow's retreat, he returned to England. After the peace of Amiens, he again took up his residence in Edinburgh. On the renewal of the war in 1803, he went to London, and, subsequently, till 1809, resided at Hartwell, an estate which Louis XVIII had purchased. In 1813, he went to the continent, to await the result of the entry of the allies into France. In February, 1814, he crossed the Rhine, and was at Vesoul, when the complaints made by the duke of Vicenza, at the congress of Chatillon, induced him to return. After Napoleon's abdication, he, as lieutenant-general of the kingdom, immediately proclaimed, in Nancy, to the French people, "the triumph of liberty the reign of the laws, the abolition of the conscription, the suppression of the *droits-réunis*, and the entire oblivion of the past." April 12, 1814, he entered Paris, and assumed the supreme authority till the arrival of Louis XVIII, in whose name he declared to the president of the senate, April 15, that the king, his brother, would recognise for the basis of the constitution—representation in two chambers, personal liberty, freedom of the press, and other rights, for which they had been so long contending. He now entered immediately on the work of reform. He caused the papal archives and other things, taken from Rome by Napoleon, to be restored to the holy father: the *cours prevôtales*, the tribunals of the customs, and a portion of the *droits-réunis*, were suppressed. The *cours prevôtales* (q. v.) were afterwards restored for two years. He then signed the

treaty of April 23, by which France abandoned 53 strong places occupied by French troops, 31 ships of the line and 12 frigates. Louis XVIII appointed him colonel-general of the French national guards, and of the Swiss. Monsieur, in the same year, travelled through the southern departments, visiting Lyons, Marseilles and Avignon. When the news of Napoleon's landing in France reached Paris, Monsieur immediately proceeded to Lyons, March 8th, where, however, he found such a disposition prevailing, that he soon left the city, accompanied by a single cavalry officer. In Paris, he accompanied the king, March 16, to the chamber of deputies, and swore, "in the name of honor, fidelity to the king and charter." It being impracticable to defend Paris, he, with the duke of Berri, followed the king to the Netherlands. After the return of the king, July 7, 1815, he presided in the electoral college of the capital, by which means he conciliated somewhat the popular favor. On the opening of the chambers, Oct. 7, Monsieur, as well as the other princes, renewed their oath of fidelity to the charter. He took a part in several subjects brought before the chamber of peers, as president of a bureau; but, of late years, the French princes have made no use of their seat and vote in the chamber. In 1818, he resigned the command of the national guards. He was, moreover, the founder and distributor of the decoration of the lily. The party, in particular, of the ultra-royalists, and of the ultra-montanists, seems to have attached itself to him or to his friends; and, during the last part of the reign of Louis XVIII, he had an important influence on the course of public affairs and the appointment of ministers. On the day of his brother's death, whom he had not left for a moment during the two last days of his life, he was received, Sept. 16th, 1824, with the ancient and customary cry "*Le roi est mort! Vive le roi!*" Sept. 17, the members of the royal family, the diplomatic corps, and the first civil authorities, rendered him their homage. The duke of Angoulême now assumed, in conformity with ancient usage, the title of *dauphin;* his wife was called *dauphiness;* the duchess of Berri, *madame.* Charles X immediately conferred on the house of Orleans the title *altesse royale.* He was received with applause when he made his public entry on horseback into Paris from St. Cloud, Sept. 27. Some traits of goodness of heart, marks of kindness, and peculiar expressions, indicating a certain chivalric feeling and French tone of sentiment, gained him favor. The greatest impression was made by the restoration of the freedom of the press with respect to periodicals, Sept. 29, 1824. The former ministry, under Villèle (q. v.), was, however, retained. But the dauphin received a seat and voice in the ministerial councils, and the count of Clermont-Tonnère was made minister of war, and the duke of Doudeauville minister of the king's household. Sept. 22, 1824, the session of the chambers was opened by Charles X. The same was done by him Jan. 31st, 1826. With respect to the measures of his reign, the indemnification of the emigrants, the restriction of the ultra-montane and Jesuit parties, the acknowledgment of the independence of Hayti, the process of Ouvrard, the law of sacrilege, of substitutions, &c., we refer to the article *France.* The solemn coronation of the king at Rheims, May 29, 1825, was an important national event, where many ancient and some ridiculous usages were revived; for instance, the vial containing the holy oil (which was brought in former ages by a dove from heaven) was again restored!* Charles X swore to govern according to the charter. After the death of the duke of Montmorenci, he appointed the duke of Rivière governor and tutor of his grandson, the duke of Bordeaux, presumptive heir of the throne, and Tharin, bishop of Strasburg, a friend of the Jesuits, teacher of the prince. The first minister of the king, the count of Villèle (q. v.), had to undergo a hard contest in the chambers with the liberal and royalist opposition, especially on the subject of the financial deficiencies, the attempts of the theocratical-Jesuitical party, and some measures respecting foreign affairs. Strong efforts were afterwards made for the reëstablishment of the censorship of the periodical press, and it was restored in 1827. Seventy-six new peers were created, because the chamber of peers had shown a spirit of opposition to M. Villèle. The speech of Charles, at the opening of the chamber, a short time after the battle of Navarino, excited much sensation, because it was rather favorable to the Greeks. The monarch did not, like his royal brother, the king of England, speak of the engagement as an "untoward event." August 29, 1828, and during some days following, the French general

* The splendid work *Sacre de S. M. Charles X dans la Métropole de Rheims, le 29 Mai*, 1825, has been lithographed by Langlême, at Paris, from Deroy and Adam's designs.

Maison, who had arrived with 154 transport vessels in the bay of Coron, in the Morea, landed his forces, amounting to 15,000 men, who were destined to support the Greeks. Admiral de Rigny had previously assisted in the battle of Navarino, Oct. 20, 1827, as commander of the French squadron. Villèle lost his office in 1828, having become unpopular by yielding to the ultra and to the Jesuit party, as well as by his avarice. The king now appointed a ministry rather liberal in its character, the chief person of which was Portalis; but, as early as the middle of 1829, he supplanted this ministry by an ultra-royalist one, under the direction of prince Polignac, who had been till then the French ambassador in London. It is believed by many, that prince Polignac is the offspring of an intrigue between the king and a princess Polignac, a lady of the court, and that Charles has long desired to make him prime minister, without regard to the character of the ministry which he should form. Thus it is said in Paris, that Polignac, before the members of the present ministry were selected, offered a place to the distinguished liberal Royer-Collard, and that, seeing he could not find support or confidence among the liberals, he decided to throw himself into the arms of the other party. However this may be, the sudden and inconsistent changes of the ministry, which have taken place during Charles's reign, seem to indicate that he is not possessed of very great talents for government. He is said to be a strict Catholic. The Bourbons have much to do to win the favor of the French. They are regarded as aliens, and their conduct hitherto has been such as to strengthen this feeling. The ministry of Polignac has been very unpopular, and it is generally expected that the king will dissolve the chamber before the next session (beginning of 1830).

CHARLES I, king of England and Scotland, was born in Scotland, in the year 1600, and was the second son of James VI and Anne of Denmark. Soon after the birth of his son, James succeeded to the crown of England, and, upon the death of prince Henry, in 1612, Charles was created prince of Wales. His youth appears to have passed respectably, little being recorded of him previously to his romantic journey into Spain in company with Buckingham, in order to pay his court in person to the Spanish infanta. Through the arrogance of Buckingham, this match was prevented, and the prince was soon after contracted to Henrietta Maria, daughter of Henry IV of France. In 1625, he succeeded to the throne, on the death of his father, and received the kingdom embroiled in a Spanish war, and full of suspicion and dislike to the minister Buckingham. The first parliament which he summoned, being much more disposed to state grievances than grant supplies, was dissolved; and, by loans and other expedients, an expedition was fitted out against Spain, which terminated in disgrace and disappointment. In the next year, a new parliament was summoned; and the disgust and jealousy, which prevailed between the king and this assembly, laid the foundation of the misfortunes of his reign. The house of commons impeached the minister, and the king supported him. They held fast the public purse, and he intimated a design of following *new counsels*, should they continue to resist his will, and suddenly and angrily dissolved them, after a short session, while they were preparing a remonstrance against the levying of tonnage and poundage without consent of parliament. Charles then began to employ his threatened mode of raising funds, by loans, benevolences, and similar unpopular proceedings; which, however partially sanctioned by precedent, were wholly opposed to the rising notions of civil liberty throughout the nation, and to the constitutional doctrine, which rendered the commons the guardian and dispenser of the public treasure. His difficulties were further increased by a preposterous war with France, intended to gratify the private enmity of Buckingham, who added to the odium against him by an ill-fated expedition in assistance of the Huguenots of Rochelle. In 1628, the king was obliged to call a new parliament, which showed itself as much opposed to arbitrary measures as its predecessor, and, after voting the supplies, prepared a bill, called "A petition of right, recognising all the legal privileges of the subject," which, notwithstanding the employment of all manner of arts and expedients to avoid it, Charles was constrained to pass into a law; and, had the concession been unequivocal and sincere, and the constitutional mode of government, which it implied, been really adopted by both sides, much that followed might have been prevented. Charles, however, by his open encouragement of the doctrines of such divines as Sibthorpe and Mainwaring, who publicly inculcated the doctrine of passive obedience, and represented all limitation of kingly power as

seditious and impious, too clearly sanctioned the jealousy of the commons, who would not, in consequence, rest in confidence or slacken their attacks upon Buckingham, on which account they were suddenly prorogued. The assassination of the favorite soon after, by the enthusiast Felton, removed one source of discord, and Charles became more his own minister; and some differences with his queen, which had been fomented by Buckingham, being made up, he ever after continued much under her influence. The parliament, which met in January, 1628, manifested so determined a spirit against the king's claim of levying tonnage and poundage by his own authority, that it was suddenly dissolved, and Charles was determined to try to reign without one. For this purpose, having judiciously terminated the pending wars between France and Spain, he raised sir Thomas Wentworth, afterwards so celebrated as lord Strafford, to the principal place in his councils. This able statesman had begun his political career in opposition to the court, but, having been gained over, was, by his austerity, talent and firmness, an exceedingly fit instrument to curb the spirit of resistance to prerogative, which had become so strong among the commons. In ecclesiastical affairs, Charles, unhappily for himself and the church, was guided by the counsels of Laud, then bishop of London, a prelate whose learning and piety were debased by superstition and a zeal as indiscreet as intolerant. Under these counsels, some years passed away in the execution of plans for raising money without the aid of parliament, with other dangerous expedients. The arbitrary courts of high commission and star chamber, in the hands of Laud, also exercised, in many instances, the most grievous oppression; of which the treatment of Williams, bishop of Lincoln, and others, affords memorable examples. In 1634, ship-money began to be levied, which being strictly applied to naval purposes, the nation at large acquiesced in it with less than usual repugnance; and some writers, who courageously attacked the court against the principle, were treated with so much severity, that others were deterred from following their example. So desperate did the cause of liberty at this time appear, that great numbers of the Puritans emigrated to New England; and, by order of the court, a ship was prevented from sailing, in which were sir Arthur Hazelrig, John Hampden and Oliver Cromwell. It was in 1637, not long after this remarkable event, that Hampden commenced the career of resistance by refusing to pay ship-money; the right to levy which, without authority of parliament, he was determined to bring before a court of law. His cause was argued for 12 days in the court of exchequer; and, although he lost it by the decision of 8 of the judges out of 12, the discussion of the question was followed by the most important consequences in its operation upon public opinion. It was in Scotland, however, that formal warlike opposition was destined to commence. From the beginning of his reign, Charles had endeavored to introduce into that country a liturgy copied from the English —an innovation which produced the most violent tumults, and ended in the formation of the famous *Covenant*, in 1638, by which all classes of people mutually engaged to stand by each other. The Covenanters levied an army, which the king opposed by an ill-disciplined English force, so equivocally inclined, that, not able to trust to it, Charles agreed to a sort of pacification. The next year, he raised another army; but, his finances being exhausted, after an intermission of 11 years, he again assembled a parliament, who, as usual, began to state grievances previously to granting supplies. Losing all patience, the king once more hastily dissolved it, and prosecuted several members who had distinguished themselves by their opposition. Raising money in the best manner he could devise, an English army was again made to proceed towards the north; but, being defeated by the Scots, it became obvious that affairs could no longer be managed without a parliament, and, in 1640, that dreaded assembly was again summoned, which proved to be the famous long parliament, whose career forms so memorable a portion of English history. It is not within the limits of this work to give an account of the proceedings connected with the prosecution, condemnation and execution of Strafford and Laud, or the various measures of reaction in regard to ship-money, tonnage and poundage, and the abolition of the iniquitous courts of high commission and star chamber: suffice it to say, that Charles soon found himself reduced to a comparatively passive spectator of the ascendency of the democratical portion of the constitution, and was obliged, both in Scotland and in England, to yield to the torrent which assailed him. In the mean time, a flame burst out in Ireland, which had no small effect in kindling the ensuing conflagra-

tion at home. The oppressed Catholic population of that country, during the confusion of the times, rose against the government for the purpose of regaining their rights. Very exaggerated accounts of the massacre of the Protestants are to be found in several of the historians. Later writers have established the fact, that the number who perished in this insurrection was very limited. The old Catholic settlers of the English pale joined the native Irish, and, to strengthen their cause, pretended to have a royal commission, and to act in defence of the king's prerogative against a puritanical and republican parliament. This pretended commission is now generally deemed a forgery; but such was the supposed partiality of Charles to popery, that this event added considerably to popular disaffection. The parliament being summoned, the king left the conduct of the war entirely to it; but it now became evident that the commons intended systematically to pursue their advantages, and to reduce the crown to a state of complete dependence. They framed a remonstrance, containing a recapitulation of all the errors of the reign; renewed an attempt for excluding bishops from the house of lords; passed ordinances against superstitious practices; and so inflamed the popular odium against the Episcopal orders, as to intimidate its members from attending to their duty in parliament. At length, it being apparent that either the zealous adherents of prerogative, or those who were anxious to establish the government upon a more democratic basis, must give way, Charles, instigated, it is supposed, by the injudicious advice of his queen and lord Digby, caused his attorney-general to enter, in the house of peers, an accusation against five leading members of the commons, and sent a sergeant-at-arms to the house to demand them. Receiving an evasive answer, he, the next day, proceeded himself to the house, with an armed retinue, to seize their persons. Aware of this intention, they had previously withdrawn; but the king's appearance with a guard caused the house to break up in great disorder and indignation. The accused members retired into the city, where a committee of the house was appointed to sit, and the city militia was mustered under a commander appointed by parliament, which also demanded the control of the army. Here the king made his last stand, the matter having now arrived at a point which arms alone could decide. The queen fled to Holland to procure ammunition, and Charles, with the prince of Wales, proceeded northwards, and, for a time, fixed his residence at York. The king was received in his progress with great demonstrations of loyalty from the gentry; and many eminent and virtuous characters, who had been the conscientious opposers of his arbitrary measures in the first instance, now joined his party. On the other hand, all the Puritans, the inhabitants of the great trading towns, and those who had adopted republican notions of government, sided with the parliament; and in no public contest was more private and public virtue ranged on both sides, however alloyed, as in all such cases, with ambition, bigotry and the baser passions. The first action of consequence was the battle of Edge-hill, and, although indecisive, it enabled the king to approach London, and produce considerable alarm. He then retired to Oxford, and negotiations were entered into which proved unavailing. Nothing decisive, however, happened against the royal side, until the battle of Marston-moor, in 1644, which was gained chiefly by the skill and valor of Cromwell. The succeeding year completed the ruin of the king's affairs, by the loss of the celebrated battle of Naseby. Thenceforward a series of disasters attended his armies throughout the kingdom, and he took the resolution of throwing himself into the hands of the Scottish army, then lying before Newark. He was received with respect, although placed under guard as a prisoner; and, a series of abortive negotiations ensuing, an agreement was made with the parliament to surrender him to their commissioners, on the payment of a large sum, claimed as arrears by the Scottish army. The king was accordingly surrendered to the commissioners appointed, and was carried, in the first place, to Holmby-house, in Northamptonshire; subsequently, to the head-quarters of the army at Reading, and, soon after, to Hampton-court, where he was treated with no small portion of the respect exacted by his station. In the mean time, however, the army and Independents becoming all-powerful, he was led into some fears for his personal safety, and, making his escape with a few attendants, proceeded to the southern coast. Not meeting a vessel, as he expected, he crossed over to the Isle of Wight, and put himself into the hands of Hammond, the governor, a creature of Cromwell's, by whom he was lodged in Carisbrook castle. While in this remote situation, the Scots, ashamed of the manner in which they had delivered him

up, and indignant at the proceedings of the English, marched a considerable army to his relief, under the duke of Hamilton. This force, although strengthened by a large body of English royalists, was entirely routed and dispersed by Cromwell, as were the insurgents in Kent and Essex by Fairfax. During this employment of the army and its leaders, a new negotiation was opened with the king in the Isle of Wight, who agreed to nearly every thing demanded of him, except the abolition of Episcopacy; and so much had it now become the interest of the parliament itself to comply with him, that a vote was at length carried, that the king's concessions were a sufficient ground for a treaty. The triumphant army, however, on its return, cleared the house by force of all the members opposed to its views; and, thereby procuring a reversal of this vote, the king's person was again seized, and, being brought from the Isle of Wight to Hurst castle, preparations were made for trying him on the capital charge of high treason against the people. As the house of lords refused to concur in a vote for this purpose, the commons declared its concurrence unnecessary; and the king, being conducted to London, and stripped of all ensigns of royalty, was brought before the court of justice, specially erected for this unprecedented trial, on the 20th of Jan., 1649. The behavior of Charles had been calm and dignified throughout his adversity, and in no respect was it more so than on this occasion. Three times he objected to the authority of the court, when brought before it, and supported his refusal by clear and cogent arguments. At length, evidence being heard against him, on the proof that he had appeared in arms against the parliamentary forces, sentence of death was pronounced against him. He requested a conference with both houses, which was rejected, and only three days were allowed him to prepare for his fate. As he left the tribunal, he was insulted by a portion of the soldiery, and other base and unpardonable indignities were offered to him, which he bore with dignified equanimity. The interposition of foreign powers, the devotion of friends and ministers, who sought to save him by taking all the blame upon themselves, were vain. After passing three days, between his condemnation and execution, in religious exercises, and in tender interviews with his friends and family, he was led to the scaffold. His execution took place before the banqueting-house, Whitehall, on the 30th of Jan., 1649, where, after addressing the people around him with great firmness and composure, the ill-fated king submitted to the fatal stroke. Thus died Charles I, in the 49th year of his age, than whom few kings have been more distinguished for the virtues which ornament and dignify private life. He was, in an eminent degree, temperate, chaste and religious, and, although somewhat cold and reserved in demeanor, was, in fact, highly kind and affectionate, and secured the warmest attachment of those who had access to him. His talents were also considerable; but he shone more in suffering than in acting, and was deficient in the decision and self-reliance, which are necessary to superior executive ability. His mind was cultivated by letters, and a taste for the polite arts, particularly painting, the professors of which he munificently encouraged; and the collections of works of art, which he made in his prosperity, show great judgment in the selection. He had also a feeling for poetry, and wrote in a good style in prose, without reference to the famous *Eikon Basilike*, his claim to which is now generally disputed. To all these personal and private acquirements, he joined a graceful figure and pleasing countenance, and, under happier circumstances, would doubtless have been regarded as a very accomplished sovereign. With respect to his political character, as exhibited in the great struggle between himself and the parliament, it is impossible not to perceive that he strove to maintain a portion of prerogative that had become incompatible with any theory of civil and religious liberty; but it is equally certain that he only sought to retain what his predecessors had possessed, and what power never concedes willingly. There are periods, possibly, in the history of every people, in which old and new opinions conflict, and a concussion becomes unavoidable; and it was the misfortune of Charles to occupy the throne at a time when the developement of the representative system necessarily encountered the claims of prerogative. If the parliament had acquiesced in the kingly pretensions, as usually explained by Laud and the high-churchmen of the day, it would have dwindled into a mere registry of royal edicts, like those of France. On the other hand, Charles acted a part which every monarch, in his situation, may be expected to act; for a philosophical appreciation of the true nature of a political crisis is scarcely to be expected from one who sits upon a throne. The most forcible accusation against

Charles is on the score of insincerity. It is asserted that he never intended to fulfil the conditions imposed upon him. This can scarcely be denied; but it is equally certain that some of them might justly be deemed questionable, if not demanded with a direct view to produce that conduct in the king which so naturally followed. On the whole, though many may demur to his title of *martyr*, few will hesitate to regard him as a victim to a crisis which the growing power of the commons, and the unsettled nature of the prerogative, rendered sooner or later inevitable. His fate, like that of the house of Stuart generally, exhibits the danger and absurdity of those high theoretical notions of kingly prerogative, which, while they add very little to the real power of those whom they are intended to favor, too frequently seduce them into encounters with currents of principle and action, a resistance to which is always futile, and generally destructive.

Charles II, king of England and Scotland, son of Charles I and Henrietta Maria of France, was born in 1630. He was a refugee at the Hague on the death of his father, on which he immediately assumed the royal title. He first intended to proceed to Ireland, but was prevented by the progress of Cromwell. He therefore listened to an invitation from the Scots, who had proclaimed him their king; and, being obliged to throw himself into the hands of the rigid Presbyterians, they subjected him to many severities and mortifications, which caused him to regard that sect ever after with extreme aversion. In 1651, he was crowned at Scone; but the approach of Cromwell, with his conquering army, soon rendered his abode in Scotland unsafe. Hoping to be joined by the English royalists, he took the spirited resolution of passing Cromwell, and entering England. He was immediately pursued by that active commander, who, with a superior army, gained the battle of Worcester; and Charles, after a variety of imminent hazards, in one of which he was sheltered for 24 hours in the branches of a spreading oak, reached Shoreham, in Sussex, and effected a passage to France. He passed some years in Paris, little regarded by the court, which was awed by the power of the English commonwealth; and this indignity induced him to retire to Cologne. It is the province of history to state the circumstances that produced the restoration, which general Monk so conducted, that Charles, without a struggle, succeeded at once to all those dangerous prerogatives, which it had cost the nation so much blood and treasure, first to abridge, and then to abolish. This unrestrictive return was not more injurious to the nation than fatal to the family of the Stuarts, which, had a more rational policy prevailed, might have occupied the throne at this moment. On the 29th of May, 1660, Charles entered his capital amidst universal and almost frantic acclamations; and the different civil and religious parties vied with each other in loyalty and submission. His first measures were prudent and conciliatory. Hyde, lord Clarendon, was made chancellor and prime minister; and an act of indemnity was passed, from which those alone were excepted who were immediately concerned in the late king's death. A settled revenue was accepted in lieu of wardship and purveyance, and the army was reduced. In respect to religion, there was less indulgence; for not only were prelacy and the parliamentary rights of bishops restored, which was to be expected, but an act of uniformity was passed, by the conditions of which nearly all the Presbyterian clergy were driven to a resignation of their livings. In 1662, he married the infanta of Portugal, a prudent and virtuous princess, but in no way calculated to acquire the affection of a man like Charles. The indolence of his temper, and the expenses of his licentious way of life, soon involved him in pecuniary difficulties; and the unpopular sale of Dunkirk to the French was one of his most early expedients to relieve himself. In 1663, a rupture took place with Holland, which, as it proceeded from commercial rivalry, was willingly supported by parliament. It was attended, in the first instance, by various naval successes; but, France and Denmark entering into the war, as allies of the Dutch, the English were overmatched, and a Dutch fleet entered the Thames, and, proceeding up the Medway, burnt and destroyed ships as high as Chatham. Such was the naval disgrace of a reign, which, on many other accounts, is probably the most nationally discreditable one in the English annals. The domestic calamities of a dreadful plague, in 1665, and of the great fire of London, in 1666, added to the disasters of the period. Soon after, Clarendon, who had become very unpopular, and was personally disagreeable to Charles, was dismissed, and sought shelter from his enemies by a voluntary exile. A triple alliance between England, Holland and Sweden, for the purpose of checking

the ambition of Louis XIV, followed. It did honor to the political talents of sir William Temple, and was one of the few public measures of the reign which deserve approbation. The thoughtless profusion of Charles, however, soon brought him into a condition which rendered him the mere pensioner of Louis; by whose secret aid he was supported in all his attempts to abridge the freedom of his people. In 1670, he threw himself into the hands of the five unprincipled ministers, collectively denominated the *cabal*, who supported him in every attempt to make himself independent of parliament. A visit which Charles received from his sister, the duchess of Orleans, was rendered subservient to French policy, by means of one of her attendant ladies, a beautiful Frenchwoman. This female made, as was intended, a conquest of Charles, who created her duchess of Portsmouth; and, amidst all his other attachments, she retained an influence over him which kept him steadily attached to France. The party troubles of this reign commenced, about this time, by the open declaration of the duke of York, presumptive heir to the crown, that he was a convert to the Roman Catholic religion. Soon after, the ministry broke the triple alliance, and planned a rupture with the Dutch; and, as the king did not choose to apply to parliament for money to carry on the projected war, he caused the exchequer to be shut up in January, 1672, and, by several other disgraceful and arbitrary proceedings, gave great disgust and alarm to the nation. The naval operations against the Dutch were by no means successful, and, a new parliament being called, which strongly expressed the discontent of the nation, the cabal was dissolved, and a separate peace made with Holland in 1674. Divisions in the cabinet, fluctuations in the king's measures, and parliamentary contests, followed, and occupied the next three years, until, in 1677, Charles performed a popular act, by marrying his niece, the princess Mary, to the prince of Orange. By taking some decided steps in favor of the Dutch, he also forwarded the peace of Nimeguen, in 1678. The same year was distinguished by the pretended discovery of the celebrated popish plot, for the assassination of the king, and the introduction of the Catholic religion. Notwithstanding the infamous characters of Oates and Bedloe, and the improbable nature of their disclosures, their tale, supported by the general suspicion of the secret influence of a Catholic faction, met with universal belief; and, in relation thereto, the parliament exhibited nearly as much credulity and heat as the vulgar. Many Catholic lords were committed; Coleman, the duke of York's secretary, and several priests, were hanged; and a venerable nobleman, the earl of Stafford, was beheaded. The duke of York thought fit to retire to Brussels, and a bill for his exclusion from the throne passed the house of commons. Such was the state of the country, that Charles was obliged to give way to some popular measures, and the great palladium of civil liberty, the habeas corpus bill, passed during this session. The temper of the parliament was so much excited, that the king first prorogued and then dissolved it. The court now sought to establish a balance of parties; to distinguish which, the terms *whig* and *tory* were about this time invented. In 1680, a new parliament assembled, and the commons again passed the exclusion bill, which was rejected by the lords. This parliament was also dissolved in the next year, and a new one called at Oxford, which proved so restiff, that a sudden dissolution of it ensued; and, like his father, Charles determined henceforward to govern without one. By the aid of the tory gentry and the clergy, he obtained loyal addresses from all parts of the kingdom, and attachment to high monarchical principles came again into vogue. The charge of plots and conspiracies was now brought against the Presbyterians. A person named *College* was executed upon the same infamous evidence as had been previously turned against the Catholics; and the famous earl of Shaftesbury, who headed the popular party, was brought to trial, but acquitted. The nonconformists, generally, were also treated with much rigor; and a step of great moment, in the progress to arbitrary power, was the instituting suits at law (*quo warrantos*) against most of the corporations in the kingdom, by which they were intimidated to a resignation of their charters, in order to receive them back so modelled as to render them much more dependent than before. These rapid strides towards the destruction of liberty at length produced the celebrated Ryehouse plot, the parties to which certainly intended resistance; but that the assassination of the king was ever formally projected, seems very doubtful. It certainly formed no part of the intention of lord William Russel, whose execution, with that of Algernon Sidney, on account of the plot, forms one of the striking events

of this disgraceful reign. Charles was, at this time, as absolute as any sovereign in Europe; and, had he been an active prince, the fetters of tyranny might have been completely riveted. Scotland, which, at different periods of his reign, had been driven into insurrection by the arbitrary attempts to restore Episcopacy, was at length completely dragooned into submission; and the relics of the Covenanters were suppressed with circumstances of great barbarity. It is said, however, that Charles was becoming uneasy at this plan, which was chiefly supported by the bigoted austerity of the duke of York; and that he had made a resolution to relax, when he expired, from the consequences of an apoplectic fit, in Feb., 1685, in the fifty-fifth year of his age and twenty-fifth of his reign. At his death, he received the sacrament, according to the rites of the Roman church, and thus proved himself to have been, during the whole of his life, as hypocritical as profligate. The character of Charles II requires little analysis. He was a confirmed sensualist and voluptuary; and, owing to the example of him and his court, his reign was the era of the most dissolute manners that ever prevailed in England. The stage was an open school of licentiousness, and polite literature was altogether infected by it. Charles was a man of wit, and a good judge of certain kinds of writing, but was too deficient in sensibility to feel either the sublime or the beautiful, in composition; neither was he generous even to the writers whom he applauded. He possessed an easy good nature, but united with it a total indifference to any thing but his own pleasure; and no man could be more destitute of honor or generosity. His ideas of the relation between king and subject were evinced by his observation on Lauderdale's cruelties in Scotland:—"I perceive," said he, "that Lauderdale has been guilty of many bad things against the people of Scotland; but I cannot find that he has acted in any thing contrary to *my* interest." Yet, with all his selfishness and demerits as a king, Charles always preserved a share of popularity with the multitude, from the easiness of his manners. Pepys' memoirs, and other private documents, however, clearly show the opinion of the more reflecting portion of his subjects; and it is now pretty generally admitted, that, as he was himself a most dishonorable and heartless monarch and man, so his reign exhibited the English character in a more disgraceful light than any other in British history. It need not be added, that he left many illegitimate children, the descendants of some of whom are still among the leading peerage of the country. The fate of his most distinguished son, the ill-fated duke of Monmouth, is an affair of history.

Charles Edward Stuart. (See *Edward.*)

Charles XII, king of Sweden, born at Stockholm, June 27, 1682, was well instructed in the languages, history, geography and mathematics. He understood German, Latin and French. Curtius' history of Alexander was his favorite book. On the death of his father, in 1697, when he was but 15 years old, he was declared of age by the estates. Meanwhile, the young king showed but little inclination for business: he loved violent bodily exercises, and especially the chase of the bear. To his jealous neighbors, this seemed a favorable time to humble the pride of Sweden in the north. Frederic IV of Denmark, Augustus II of Poland, and the czar Peter I of Russia, concluded an alliance which resulted in the *northern war*, so called. The Danish troops first invaded the territory of the duke of Holstein-Gottorp. This prince, who had married the eldest sister of the king of Sweden, repaired to Stockholm, and asked for assistance. Charles had a particular attachment for him, and proposed, in the council of state, the most energetic measures against Denmark. After making some arrangements respecting the internal administration, he embarked at Carlscrona in May, 1700. Thirty ships of the line, and a great number of small transports, strengthened by an English and Dutch squadron, appeared before Copenhagen. Arrangements were making for the disembarkation, when Charles, full of impatience, plunged from his boat into the water, and was the first who reached land. The Danes retired before the superior power of the enemy. Copenhagen was on the point of being besieged, when the peace negotiated at Travendal was signed (Aug. 8, 1700), by which the duke of Holstein was confirmed in all the rights of which it had been attempted to deprive him. Thus ended the first enterprise of Charles XII, in which he exhibited as much intelligence and courage as disinterestedness. He adopted, at this time, that severe and temperate mode of life, to which he ever remained true, avoiding relaxation and useless amusements; wine was banished from his table; at times coarse bread was his only food; he often slept in his cloak

on the ground; a blue coat, with copper buttons, was his whole wardrobe; he wore large boots, reaching above his knees, and gloves of buffalo skin. With respect to the female sex, he manifested the greatest indifference, and no woman ever had any influence over him. After thus checking Denmark, the attacks of Augustus and Peter were to be repelled. The former was besieging Riga, the latter menaced Narva and the country situated about the gulf of Finland. Without returning to his capital, which, in fact, he never revisited, Charles caused 20,000 men to be transported to Livonia, and went to meet the Russians, whom he found, 80,000 strong, in a fortified camp, under the walls of Narva. On the 30th Nov., 1700, between eight and ten thousand Swedes placed themselves in order of battle, under the fire of the Russians, and the engagement began. On the previous evening, Peter had left his camp on pretence of bringing up reinforcements. In less than a quarter of an hour, the Russian camp was taken by storm. Thirty thousand Russians perished on the field or threw themselves into the Narva; the rest were taken prisoners or dispersed. After this victory, Charles crossed the Dwina, attacked the intrenchments of the Saxons, and gained a decisive victory. Charles might now have concluded a peace, which would have made him the arbiter of the North; but, instead of so doing, he pursued Augustus to Poland, and determined to take advantage of the discontent of a great part of the nation, for the purpose of dethroning him. Augustus attempted in vain to enter into negotiations; in vain did the countess Königsmark, mistress of Augustus, endeavor to obtain an interview with Charles, and disarm the Swedish hero by her beauty. Charles refused to negotiate with the king or to speak with the countess. The war continued; the Swedes gained a brilliant victory at Clissau; in 1703, all Poland was in the possession of the conquerors; the cardinal primate declared the throne vacant; and, by the influence of Charles, the new choice fell on Stanislaus Leczinsky. Augustus hoped to be secure in Saxony, as Peter had meanwhile occupied Ingria, and founded St. Petersburg, at the mouth of the Neva. But the victor of Narva despised an enemy on whom he hoped, sooner or later, to take an easy revenge, and invaded Saxony. At Altranstädt (q. v.), he dictated the conditions of peace, in 1706. The Livonian Patkul (q. v.), who was the prime mover of the alliance against Sweden (at that time Peter's ambassador in Dresden), was delivered up to him, on his demand, and was broken on the wheel. It was, with justice, a subject of astonishment, that a prince, till then so magnanimous, could stoop to such intemperate revenge. In other respects, Charles exhibited, during his stay in Saxony, moderation and magnanimity. He subjected his troops to the strictest discipline. Several ambassadors and princes visited the camp of the king at Altranstädt, among whom was Marlborough, who sought to discover Charles's plans, and convinced himself that the victorious hero would take no part in the great contests of the South. The king of Sweden, however, before he left Germany, required the emperor to grant to the Lutherans in Silesia perfect freedom of conscience; and the requisition was complied with. In Sept., 1707, the Swedes left Saxony. They were 43,000 strong, well clothed, well disciplined, and enriched by the contributions imposed on the conquered. Six thousand men remained for the protection of the king of Poland: with the rest of the army Charles took the shortest route to Moscow. But, having reached the region of Smolensk, he altered his plan, at the suggestion of the Cossack hetman Mazeppa, and proceeded to the Ukraine, in the hope that the Cossacks would join him. But Peter laid waste their country, and the proscribed Mazeppa could not procure the promised aid. The difficult marches, the want of provisions, the perpetual attacks of the enemy, and the severe cold, weakened Charles's army in an uncommon degree. General Löwenhaupt, who was to bring reinforcements and provisions from Livonia, arrived with only a few troops, exhausted by the march, and by continual skirmishes with the Russians. Pultawa, abundantly furnished with stores, was about to be invested, when Peter appeared with 70,000 men. Charles, in reconnoitring, was dangerously wounded in the thigh; consequently, in the battle of June 27th, O. S. (July 8th), 1709, which changed the fortunes of the Swedish hero and the fate of the North, he was obliged to issue his commands from a litter, without being able to encourage his soldiers by his presence. This, and still more the want of agreement between Renschild and Löwenhaupt, were the reasons why the Swedes did not display their usual skill in manœuvring, which had so often given them the victory. They were obliged to yield to superior force, and the enemy obtained a com-

plete victory. Charles saw his generals, his favorite minister, count Piper, and the flower of his army, fall into the power of those Russians so easily vanquished at Narva. He himself, together with Mazeppa, fled with a small guard, and was obliged, notwithstanding the pain of his wounds, to go several miles on foot. He finally found refuge and an honorable reception at Bender, in the Turkish territory. His enemies were now inspired with new hope. Augustus protested against the treaty of Altranstädt; Peter invaded Livonia; Frederic of Denmark made a descent on Schonen. The regency in Stockholm took measures for the defence of the Swedish territory. General Steinbock assembled a body of militia and peasants, defeated the Danes at Helsingborg, and compelled them to evacuate Schonen. Several divisions were sent to Finland to keep off the Russians, who, nevertheless, advanced, being superior in numbers. Charles, meanwhile, negotiated at Bender with the Porte; succeeded in removing the ministers who were opposed to him, and induced the Turks to declare war against Russia. The armies met on the banks of the river Pruth, July 1, 1711. Peter seemed nearly ruined, when the courage and prudence of his wife (see *Catharine*) produced a peace, in which the interests of Charles were entirely neglected. This monarch, however, projected at Bender new plans, and, through his agents, solicited of the Porte auxiliaries against his enemies. But the Russian agents were no less active to prepossess the Porte against him, pretending that Charles designed to make himself, in the person of Stanislaus, the actual master of Poland, in order, from thence, in connexion with the German emperor, to attack the Turks. The seraskier of Bender was ordered to compel the king to depart, and, in case he refused, to bring him, living or dead, to Adrianople. Little used to obey the will of another, and apprehensive of being given up to his enemies, Charles resolved to defy the forces of the Porte, with the two or three hundred men of which his retinue consisted, and, sword in hand, to await his fate. When his residence at Varnitza, near Bender, was attacked by the Turks, he defended it against a whole army, and yielded only step by step. The house took fire, and he was about to abandon it, when, his spurs becoming entangled, he fell, and was taken prisoner. His eye-lashes were singed by powder, and his clothes covered with blood. Some days after this singular contest, Stanislaus came to Bender to ask the king of Sweden to give his consent to the treaty which he saw himself obliged to conclude with Augustus; but Charles refused. The Turks now removed their prisoner from Bender to Demotica, near Adrianople. Here he spent two months in bed, feigning sickness, and employed in reading and writing. Convinced, at last, that he could expect no assistance from the Porte, he sent a parting embassy to Constantinople, and set off in disguise with two officers. Accustomed to every deprivation, Charles pursued his journey on horseback, through Hungary and Germany, day and night, with such haste, that only one of his attendants was able to keep up with him. Exhausted and haggard, he arrived before Stralsund about one o'clock on the night of the 11th Nov. O. S. (22d), 1714. Pretending to be a courier with important despatches from Turkey, he caused himself to be immediately introduced to the commandant, count Dunker, who questioned him concerning the king, without recognising him till he began to speak, when he sprang joyfully from his bed, and embraced the knees of his master. The report of Charles's arrival spread rapidly throughout the city. The houses were illuminated. A combined army of Danes, Saxons, Russians and Prussians immediately invested Stralsund. Charles performed, during the defence, miracles of bravery. But, being obliged to surrender the fortress, on Dec. 15, 1715, he proceeded to Lund, in Schonen, and took measures to secure the coast. He then attacked Norway. The baron of Görtz, whose bold but intelligent plans were adapted to the situation of the Swedish monarchy, was, at that time, his confidential friend. His advice was, that Charles should gain Peter the Great to the interest of Sweden by important concessions, make himself master of Norway, and from thence land in Scotland, in order to dethrone George I, who had declared himself against Charles. Görtz discovered resources for prosecuting the war, and entered into negotiations, at Aaland, with the plenipotentiaries of the czar. Peter was already gained, and a part of Norway conquered; the fortunes of Sweden seemed to assume a favorable aspect; Charles was besieging Fredericshall, when, on Nov. 30, 1718, as he was in the trenches, leaning against the parapet, and examining the workmen, he was struck on the head by a cannon ball. He was found dead in the same position, his hand

on his sword, in his pocket the portrait of Gustavus Adolphus and a prayer-book. It is more than probable, that the ball which killed him was fired, not from the fortress, but from the Swedish side. His adjutant, Siguier, has been accused as an accomplice in his murder. A century afterwards, Nov. 30, 1818, Charles XIV caused a monument to be erected on the spot where he fell. At Charles's death, Sweden sunk from the rank of a leading power. In his last years, he had formed great plans for the improvement of its navy, trade and commerce. At Lund, he often conversed with the professors of the university, and attended public disputations on geometry, mechanics and history. In Bender, the reading of useful books was one of his principal employments: he sent for Swedish scholars, and caused them to travel through Greece and Asia. Accounts of some of these travels have been printed; there are others in manuscript at Upsal. Firmness, valor and love of justice were the grand features of Charles's character, but were disfigured by an obstinate rashness. After his return, he showed himself more peaceable, gentle, moderate, and disposed to politic measures. Posterity, considering him in relation to his times, will say that he had great virtues and great faults; that he was seduced by prosperity, but not overcome by adversity. His history has been written by his chaplain, Norberg. Adlerfeld has published his military memoirs. Voltaire's *Histoire de Charles XII*, though not complete, nor free from errors in dates, names and geographical facts, is written with much clearness and elegance.

Charles XIII; king of Sweden; born Oct. 7, 1748; second son of king Adolphus Frederic and Louisa Ulrica, sister of Frederic the Great of Prussia. Having been appointed, at his birth, high admiral of Sweden, his education was directed chiefly to the learning of naval tactics, for which purpose he accompanied several cruises in the Cattegat. In 1765, he became honorary president of the society of sciences at Upsal. In 1770, he commenced the tour of Europe. The death of Adolphus Frederic recalled him to Sweden, where he took an important part in the revolution of 1772. His brother, Gustavus III, appointed him governor-general of Stockholm, and duke of Südermannland. In 1774, he married Hedwig Elisabeth Charlotte, princess of Holstein-Gottorp. In the war with Russia, in 1788, he received the command of the fleet, defeated the Russians in the gulf of Finland, and, in the most dangerous season of the year, brought back his fleet in safety to the harbor of Carlscrona, after which he was appointed governor-general of Finland. After the murder of Gustavus III, in 1792, he was placed at the head of the regency, and, happily for Sweden, preserved the country at peace with all other nations, while he united with Denmark for the protection of the navigation in the northern seas. He likewise founded a museum, established a military academy for 200 pupils, and gained universal esteem. In 1796, he resigned the government to Gustavus Adolphus IV, who had become of age, and retired, as a private man, to his castle of Rosersberg. He never appeared again in public life till a revolution hurled Gustavus Adolphus IV, in 1809, from the throne, and placed Charles at the head of the state, as administrator of the realm, and, some months afterwards, June 20, 1809, as king of Sweden, at a very critical period. The peace with Russia, at Fredericksham, Sept. 17, 1809, gave the country the tranquillity necessary for repairing its heavy losses, and for completing the constitution. He had already adopted prince Christian of Holstein-Sonderburg-Augustenburg as his successor, and, after his death, marshal Bernadotte, who was elected by the estates, in August, 1810, to take the place of the prince. On him he bestowed his entire confidence. May 27, 1811, he founded the order of Charles XIII, which is conferred solely on freemasons of high degree. June 21, 1816, he acceded to the holy alliance. His prudent conduct in the war between France and Russia, in 1812, procured Sweden an indemnification for Finland by the acquisition of Norway, Nov. 4, 1814. Although some disappointed nobles may have given utterance to murmurs against his government, Charles XIII nevertheless enjoyed the love of his people till his death, Feb. 5, 1818.

Charles XIV, John, king of Sweden and Norway (or Scandinavia), married, Aug. 16, 1798, Eugénie-Bernardine Désirée (born Nov. 8, 1781), daughter of the merchant Clary, of Marseilles, sister of the wife of Joseph Bonaparte. Feb. 5, 1818, he succeeded Charles XIII, by whom he had been adopted. This prince, whose political station practically refutes the necessity of the principle of legitimacy maintained by the potentates of Europe, was born, Jan. 26, 1764, at Pau, at the foot of the Pyrenees, and was called *Jean Baptiste Jules Bernadotte.* His father was

a lawyer. His uncommon intellectual cultivation shows that he was educated with great care. In 1780, he voluntarily entered the military profession, and, in 1789, at the age of 26 years, was still a sergeant. When the revolution broke out, he entered with enthusiasm the ranks of the defenders of his country, and rose quickly through the steps of military promotion. In 1794, he was general of division in the battle of Fleurus; in 1795, he contributed essentially to the passage of the French over the Rhine, at Neuwied; in 1796, he served in Jourdan's army. His services on the Lahn, the blockade of Mentz, the battle of Neuhoff, the passage over the Rednitz, the taking of Altorf, the capture of Neumark, and the advantages obtained over Kray, whom he deprived of his magazines on the Marne, established his reputation as a general. He afterwards led reinforcements to the army of Italy, and was intrusted, by Bonaparte, with the siege of the fortress of Gradisca. In the contests which ensued before he could make himself master of it, he afforded a model of coolness and intrepidity. Shortly before the 18th Fructidor, Bonaparte chose him to carry to the directory the banners taken in the battle of Rivoli, and, in his letter, called him one of the generals who had most essentially contributed to the renown of the Italian army. After the treaty of Leoben, the disturbances in the southern provinces continuing in consequence of the 18th Fructidor, the directory appointed general Bernadotte commandant at Marseilles; but he refused to turn his sword against his fellow-citizens, and returned to his division in Italy. After the treaty of Campo-Formio, he was appointed ambassador of the French republic to the court of Vienna. A tumult, caused by planting the tri-colored banner on the palace of the embassy, induced him to leave Vienna. He repaired to Rastadt, and from thence to Paris. In the campaign of 1799, Bernadotte, as commander of the army of observation, under Jourdan, was instructed to cross the Rhine and invest Philippsburg. But the approach of the arch-duke Charles, the retreat of Jourdan over the Rhine, the dissolution of the congress of Rastadt, and the progress of the allies in Italy, rendered extraordinary measures necessary. Bernadotte, being placed in the ministry of war, urged the accusation of the generals who had so speedily surrendered the Italian fortresses, encouraged the zeal of the conscripts, exerted himself for the restoration of military discipline, and checked the abuses that had crept into the army. Three months after, he saw himself removed from the office which he had administered in the most difficult crisis, at the moment when he might have enjoyed the order he had produced. He therefore retired from the public service, and had already taken up his abode in the country, when the 18th Brumaire effected a change in his situation. Bonaparte called him to the council of state. Here he opposed the establishment of the order of the legion of honor. The first consul, on the other hand, refused to place him at the head of the expedition destined for St. Domingo, and Bernadotte expressed himself very explicitly respecting the entire incompetency of general Leclerc for the duty. An alienation thus took place between him and Bonaparte; and his brother-in-law Joseph could only bring about a kind of political reconciliation between them. He now received the command of the army of the West, and, by his humane measures, suppressed, in its origin, the insurrection excited in the hardly quieted Vendée, by some chiefs of the Chouans. (q. v.) After the peace of Lunéville, he was appointed ambassador to the U. States; but the revival of the war prevented his proceeding thither. In 1804, the first consul sent him to Hanover in the place of Mortier, and his humanity and disinterestedness gained the love of the Hanoverians. In the same year, the change of the consulate into a hereditary empire gave him the staff of a marshal of the French empire, and, soon after, the grand decoration of the legion of honor. On the renewal of hostilities with Austria, Bernadotte led an army through Anspach, effected a junction with the Bavarians at Wurtzburg, and, in this way surrounding the Austrians, contributed to the victory at Ulm. In the battle of Austerlitz, Bernadotte's corps constituted the centre, which withstood all the attacks of the Russian army. June 5, 1806, Napoleon created him prince of Ponte-Corvo. In the war against Prussia, he led the first *corps d'armée*, advanced from Bayreuth, through Hoff, to the Saxon Vogtland, and cut off the corps of count Tauenzien from the Prussian main army. Oct. 14, he advanced from Dornburg, in the rear of the Prussian army, pursued general Blücher to Lübeck, and compelled him to capitulate. He was the only French leader who seriously endeavored to alleviate the melancholy fate of this unhappy city on the 6th Nov., 1806. Towards the Swedes, also, taken prisoners on the Trave, 1500 in number.

he manifested so much kindness, that his name was mentioned with respect in Sweden. He next marched through Poland and Prussia Proper, and fought, Jan. 25, 1807, the bloody engagement of Mohrungen, by which the Russians were prevented from surprising the grand army, and driving it over the Vistula. He was prevented from participating in the battle of Friedland by a wound received at Spangen, June 5. From the close of 1807 to the spring of 1809, he commanded the French army which remained in the north of Germany. War having broken out anew, in 1809, between Austria and France, he led the Saxon allies to the battle of Wagram, where, with the guard and corps of the viceroy of Italy, they formed the second line and the reserves, and, animated by his courage, fought with the greatest distinction. The Saxons took Wagram, and maintained possession of the burning village for two hours; but, as they had lost many of their number, the prince commanded general Dupas, whose division belonged to the ninth corps, to support them. But Dupas refused, because he was ordered, from a higher quarter, to remain in his position. Astonished at this, the prince immediately made preparations to save the remainder of the Saxon troops, and then hastened to headquarters, to complain to the emperor of this violation of military rules. "If his death," he said, "were desired, there were less odious means than one by which so many brave men must perish with him." The emperor tried to appease the prince by saying that such errors were unavoidable in so extensive movements. But Bernadotte took his dismission, and went to Paris. Information being received of the landing of the English on Walcheren, the council of ministers intrusted to him the charge of repelling the invasion. He immediately called out the national guards, deceived the enemy by marches and countermarches, and compelled them to evacuate the island. From that time the prince lived in the bosom of his family, sometimes in the country, sometimes at Paris; and here the deputies of Sweden brought him, in September, 1810, information of his appointment as successor to the throne, and crown-prince of this kingdom. King Charles XIII had proposed him for his successor, on the 18th of August, to the estates, and the committee of the estates, selected for the purpose, chose him, August 21, almost unanimously, on condition that he should embrace the evangelical Lutheran religion. Bernadotte's acceptance of his election Charles XIII announced to the diet at Œrebro, Sept. 26, 1810, having previously, at a chapter of the order holden on the 24th, created the new crown-prince knight of the order of seraphim: he was likewise appointed generalissimo of the realm. Napoleon had no influence on this choice; for, when he learned, in July, 1810, that the Swedish diet was assembling at Œrebro, to choose a successor to the throne, he expressed a wish that the king of Denmark might be elected; and the semi-official *Journal de l'Empire* contains an article to this effect, which Désaugiers, the French *chargé d'affaires* in Stockholm, communicated by a note to the Swedish ministry. Meanwhile three Swedish deputies had already arrived in Paris to ascertain the sentiments of the prince in case of his election. The prince referred them to the emperor, who assured the deputies that he should not oppose the free choice of the diet, though it should fall on the prince of Ponte-Corvo. At the same time, he recalled his *chargé d'affaires* from Stockholm. After the prince was elected, Napoleon made him several promises in favor of Sweden, but their mutual personal relations were not, on that account, more friendly than they had been before. Oct. 18, at noon, Ponte-Corvo reached the royal Danish castle of Fredericsborg, where he remained in the midst of the royal family till the next day, when he departed for Elsinore. Here doctor Lindblom, archbishop of Upsal, in the presence of several witnesses, Oct. 19, 1810, in the house of the Swedish consul, received his profession of belief in the creed of the evangelical Lutheran church. Amid the thunder of cannon, a Swedish galley conveyed him to Helsingborg, where he landed Oct. 20, and had his first meeting with king Charles XIII. On the 31st, he was presented to the diet. By an act of Nov. 5, 1810, the king adopted him; he assumed the name of *Charles John*, and took the oath as crown-prince and heir of the throne; after which ceremony, he received the homage of the estates. To his son Oscar was granted the title of *duke of Südermannland*. His wife came to Stockholm, Jan. 7, 1811, but returned to Paris, where she lived, till some years since, under the title of *countess of Gothland*. The king being attacked with sickness in the following year, he committed to the crown-prince, March 17, 1811, though with some restrictions, the government of the Swedish monarchy, which he conducted till Jan. 7, 1812, with wisdom and energy.

He did much to promote the agriculture (an agricultural society was erected under his superintendence), commerce and military power of Sweden. Meanwhile, the crown-prince so far yielded to the demands of the emperor Napoleon, that Sweden declared war against Great Britain Nov. 17, 1810. But, after Napoleon had demanded, in vain, 2000 Swedish sailors for his fleet at Brest, and Sweden refused to enforce the continental system in all its rigor, he occupied Swedish Pomerania, without giving any explanation on the subject; and the French ambassador, Alquier, at Stockholm, used language which implied that the crown-prince was to have in view solely the interest of France. When Charles XIII resumed the government, the crown-prince made a remarkable report respecting his administration and the situation of the kingdom. In conformity with his views, the decree of July 29, 1812, was issued, by which the Swedish ports were opened to all nations. This resolution, a consequence of the increasing differences between Sweden and France, was justified by the crown-prince in a letter to Napoleon. In the war between France and Russia, in 1812, Sweden refused the alliance of France, and, in consequence of the provocations which she had received from that country, concluded a secret league with Russia, at St. Petersburg, March 24, O. S. (April 8), 1812, by the terms of which she promised to send an army of 25—30,000 men to Germany; but Russia previously pledged itself to unite Norway with Sweden, either by negotiations or by force of arms. (See Schöll's *Traités de Paix*, x. 101, &c.) This treaty, however, was set aside at the meeting of Alexander and the crown-prince at Abo, Aug. 27, 1812, in order that Russia might employ, for its own defence, its army in Finland, which had been designed to act against Norway, but was now needed on the Dwina. That treaty is the foundation of the political system subsequently observed by Sweden, and proposed at that time by the crown-prince. Peace between Sweden and Great Britain was also effected at Œrebro, July 12, 1812. Napoleon's head-quarters were then between Smolensk and Moscow. Sweden's policy required the greatest possible precaution: its formal declaration of war against France was not therefore made till Charles John had reached the head-quarters of Alexander and Frederic William, at Trachenberg, in Silesia, July 9—12, 1813. The crown-prince evidently showed that he did not wish to attack France, but only to guard the interests of Sweden, while he promised to coöperate against Napoleon's plans of conquest: several times, therefore, he urged the emperor to make peace. For the same purpose, he wrote to Ney, after the battle of Dennewitz, Sept. 6, 1813. Certain it is, that he endeavored to prevent the passage of the Rhine by the allies, for the purpose of penetrating into the interior of France. May 18, 1813, the crown-prince arrived at Stralsund, to place himself at the head of the Swedish army in Germany. His letter to the French emperor, March 20, 1813, had been without effect. Sweden had now become more firmly allied with England and Russia. After the conference at Trachenberg, Charles John proceeded to Berlin. He visited, during the truce, the quarters of the troops committed to him, repaired again to Stralsund, where he received general Moreau, and, Aug. 11, reached the corps besieging Stettin. He had the command of the "*united army of North Germany*," consisting of the Russian corps of Winzingerode, Woronzow, Czernitschew, of the English under Walmoden, the Prussian under Bülow, and the Swedish under the field-marshal Stedingk. By the victory at Grossbeeren, Aug. 23, over the French marshal Oudinot, he saved Berlin. By the still greater victory at Dennewitz, the issue of which was decided by the Prussian general Bülow, count of Dennewitz, over marshal Ney, Sept. 6, the capital of Prussia was a second time saved. Oct. 4, the crown-prince crossed the Elbe at Rosslau. His march, on the 17th, to Taucha, contributed much to the result of the glorious 18th of October, at Leipsic, on which day Charles John acquired new reputation. On the following day, he formed a junction with his allies at Leipsic. While they pursued the enemy in a direct line to his frontiers, Charles John marched along the Elbe to Mecklenburg, against marshal Davoust and the Danes. Lübeck was soon conquered, and the Danish army separated from the French, which threw itself into Hamburg. A corps was left to prosecute the siege of the city, while the crown-prince, with the main army, turned towards Holstein. At the end of three months, his outposts extended to Rissen and Fredericia, and Frederic VI, king of Denmark, in the treaty of peace which the crown-prince concluded with him, Jan. 14, 1814, at Kiel, ceded Norway to Sweden. Hereupon Charles John, with the greater part of his army, proceeded through Hanover to the frontiers of France. This march, how-

ever, was executed so slowly, that, before he arrived at the theatre of war, Alexander and the king of Prussia had already entered Paris. The crown-prince of Sweden now came to Paris, and had an interview with the king of France in Compiegne, but soon left France, to undertake the conquest of Norway, which had elected its former governor hereditary king. After a campaign of 14 days, he compelled the prince Christian Frederic to make a treaty at Moss, Aug. 14, 1814, by which Norway recognised the conqueror as crown-prince of Norway, Nov. 4, 1814. (See *Christian Frederic*, and *Norway*.)

Since his accession to the throne, Charles XIV has done every thing possible in his situation to merit the confidence of the nation, which called him to the throne by a free choice. When, on occasion of a conspiracy against him, the citizens of Stockholm, in March, 1817, solemnly assured him of their fidelity, he thanked them with the following remarkable words: —"I came among you with no other credentials and pledge than my sword and my actions. Could I have brought with me a series of ancestors, extending back to the times of Charles Martel, I should have desired it only on your account. For my part, I am proud of the services which I have rendered, and of the fame which has occasioned my elevation. These claims have been augmented by the adoption of the king, and the unanimous choice of a free people. On this I found my rights; and, as long as honor and justice are not banished from the earth, these rights will be more legitimate and sacred than if I were descended from Odin. History teaches that no prince has acquired a throne, but by the choice of a nation, or by conquest. I have not opened a way by arms to the Swedish throne: I have been called by the free choice of the nation, and on this right I rely," &c. In the same spirit has he reigned, and nothing has shaken the confidence of the nation in him. He has manifested the greatest care for the promotion of justice and the prosperity of his subjects, and has founded several useful institutions from his own funds. He combines a prudent firmness in the removal of abuses, and a wise regard for the general relations of European policy. Commerce he has endeavored to encourage, by treaties with the American republics and the Barbary states. The management of the public debt is improved, and the public credit established at home. The attention which he has paid to the education of his son, the heir-apparent, prince Oscar (Joseph Francis), born July 4, 1799, is particularly worthy of notice. This was seen at the confirmation of the prince, which took place April 15, 1815, according to the usage of the Lutheran church. July 4, 1817, the prince was declared of age. He has subsequently had a seat in the council of state, and, June 20, 1818, the Swedish diet and the Norwegian *storthing* empowered him to exercise plenary regal powers, in case of the absence or sickness of the king. June 19, 1823, prince Oscar married Joséphine, daughter of the late duke Eugene, of Leuchtenberg, viceroy of Italy, step-son of Napoleon, who bore him a son in 1826, who received the title of *duke of Schonen*. Thus the new dynasty seems to be firmly established. Its principal support is the love of the people, which Charles XIV has won by his conduct, equally prudent and noble. His motto, "The people's love is my reward" (*Folkets karlek min belo-ning*), expresses the character of his government. (See the *Mém. pour servir à l'Histoire de Charles XIV, par Coupé de St. Donat et B. de Roquefort*; Paris, 1820, 2 vols.). The principal dissatisfaction has arisen from the way in which he has sought to regulate the foreign debts of Sweden (for example, the loans of Mr. Frege), and it seems that, in this case, he has acted on very untenable grounds; for the credit of the crown of Sweden has been almost annihilated in foreign countries, and loud complaints have been made respecting the violation of acknowledged obligations. He has done much for institutions of instruction and improvement; in particular, he has placed the army and fleet on a respectable footing, has established a large fortified camp for the protection of the country, &c. The memory of Charles XIII he has perpetuated by the erection of a statue. As the only sovereign who has retained a throne acquired during the late wars in Europe, he has a difficult part to play among the *legitimates* of that continent. It is said that the king of Prussia was negotiating, before the French were driven from his territory, to give one of his daughters to prince Oscar, but that, when his situation improved, he broke off the negotiations.

Charles Emanuel I, duke of Savoy, surnamed the *Great*; born at the castle of Rivoli, in 1562. He proved his courage in the battles of Montbrun, Vigo, Asti, Chatillon, Ostage, at the siege of Berue, and on the walls of Suza. He formed, 1590, the plan of uniting Provence to his dominions. Philip II of Spain, his father-

in-law, obliged the parliament of Aix to acknowledge him as the protector of this province, in order, by this example, to induce France to acknowledge the king of Spain as protector of the whole realm. The duke of Savoy, not less ambitious, likewise aimed at this crown; and, after the death of Matthias, desired also to be chosen emperor of Germany. He likewise intended to conquer the kingdom of Cyprus, and to take possession of Macedonia, the inhabitants of which, oppressed by the Turks, offered him the sovereignty over their country. The citizens of Geneva were obliged to defend their city, in 1602, against this ambitious prince, who fell upon them by night, in time of peace. (See *Geneva*.) Henry IV, who had reason to complain of the duke, and whose general, the duke of Lesdiguière, had beaten Charles Emanuel several times, entered, at last, into a treaty of peace with him, not disadvantageous to the duke of Savoy; but he could not remain quiet, and began again a war with France, Spain and Germany. He died of chagrin, at Savillon, 1630. He is one of those princes who render the surname of *Great* suspicious. His heart was as hard as his native rocks. He built palaces and churches, loved and patronised the sciences, but thought little of making them sources of happiness.

Charles I, king of Spain. (See *Charles V.*)

Charles IV, king of Spain, born at Naples, 12th Nov., 1740, came to Madrid in 1759, when his father, Charles III, after the death of his brother, Ferdinand VI, ascended the Spanish throne, and succeeded him Dec. 13, 1788. He was married to the princess of Parma, Louisa Maria. Too imbecile to govern, he was always ruled by his wife and his ministers, among whom the prince of peace, Godoy (q. v.), duke of Alcudia, from the year 1792, had unbounded influence over him. The hatred which this favorite drew on himself from the prince of Asturias, and other grandees, brought on a revolution in 1808, which enabled Napoleon to dethrone the Bourbons. (See *Spain*.) Charles abdicated at Aranjuez, March 19, revoked this abdication, and finally ceded, at Bayonne, his right to the throne to Napoleon, who settled on him for life the palace of Compiegne and a pension of 30 millions of rials, of which 2 millions were destined for the queen's jointure. Charles after this lived at Compiegne with the queen and the prince of peace, but subsequently exchanged this residence for Rome, where the climate was more congenial to him. From 1815, he occupied the palace Barberini, in this city. Hunting he always made his principal employment. He died at Naples, Jan. 19, 1819, of a relapse of the gout, while on a visit to his brother, the king of the Two Sicilies. His wife died a short time previous, in Dec., 1818. Charles was an immense eater.

Charles Louis; archduke of Austria; son of the emperor Leopold II, and brother of the present emperor Francis; field-marshal-general; born Sept. 5, 1771. He commenced his military career in Brabant, in the year 1793, commanded the vanguard of the prince of Cobourg, and distinguished himself by his military talent and bravery. Shortly after, he was made governor of the Netherlands, and grand-cross of the order of Maria Theresa. In 1796, he was made field-marshal of the German empire, and took the chief command of the Austrian army on the Rhine. He fought several successful battles against the French general Moreau, near Rastadt, routed general Jourdan, in Franconia, near Amberg, Wurtzburg, &c., threw the French army into confusion, forced Jourdan and Moreau to retreat over the Rhine, and crowned this victorious campaign by getting possession of Kehl, after a hard struggle, in the middle of the winter of 1797. During these successes in Germany, fortune favored general Bonaparte in Italy. In the month of February of the same year, the archduke Charles repaired thither, and, in the month of April, articles of peace were signed at Leoben. After the unsuccessful congress at Rastadt, the archduke again took the command of the army in the year 1799, defeated general Jourdan in Suabia, as he had formerly done in Franconia, and distinguished himself particularly at the battle of Stockach. Soon after this, he gave proofs of his great military talent against general Masséna, in a most difficult situation, in Switzerland. The impaired state of his health forced him to quit the field in 1800, when he was elected governor-general of Bohemia; but he had hardly left the army, which had placed its whole confidence in him, ere the greatest consternation became evident. After the unfortunate battle of Hohenlinden, the French entered Austria. At this crisis, the archduke was again placed at the head of the troops, into whom he instilled fresh courage. At last, he acceded to the preliminaries of peace, which were confirmed by the peace of Lunéville. After this, he was appointed minister of war, in which capacity he displayed his talents in a new sphere. In 1802, he refused the

monument, proposed by the king of Sweden, at the diet of Ratisbon, to be erected to him as the liberator of Germany. In the campaign of 1805, Charles commanded an Austrian army, in Italy, against Masséna. Whilst affairs in Germany were taking a most unfortunate turn, and Napoleon had entered the very heart of the Austrian provinces, the archduke gained a victory over marshal Masséna, at Caldiero, and led his army back to protect the yet unconquered provinces. After the peace of Presburg was concluded, he was elected first chief of the council of war, and generalissimo of the whole Austrian army. In the war of 1809, in the month of April, he advanced into Bavaria, with the chief part of the Austrian forces. Here he was opposed by the whole French army, commanded by Napoleon himself, and a hard-fought and bloody battle, which lasted five days, ensued; after which, in spite of every exertion, the Austrians were compelled to yield to a superior force. On the 21st and 22d of May of the same year, the archduke gained a victory at Aspern, opposite to Vienna, and compelled the French to retreat across the Danube with great loss. The battle of Wagram, one of the greatest in history, had an unfortunate result, but no censure can be cast, either on the Austrian army, which distinguished itself by its bravery, or on the archduke, who was wounded on this occasion, for being compelled to give way to a much superior force, after a battle of two days, during which they several times had the advantage. Their retreat was effected with the greatest order, and amidst constant fighting, till they reached Znaym, where an armistice put an end to the battle. Soon after this, the archduke resigned the command, and has not since appeared at the head of the army. He has enriched military literature with two valuable works—*Grundsätze der Strategie erläutert durch die Darstellung des Feldzugs von* 1796, *in Deutschland* (Principles of Strategy, illustrated by the Campaign of 1796, in Germany), Vienna, 1813, 5 vols., with a map of the theatre of war and 11 plans, 2d ed.; and, as a continuation of the same, *Die Geschichte des Feldzugs von* 1799, *in Deutschland und in der Schweitz* (History of the Campaign of 1799, in Germany and Switzerland), Vienna, 1819, 2 vols., with an atlas in folio. Both works have been translated into French. After the return of Napoleon, he was made governor of Mentz, and afterwards governor and captain-general of Bohemia. In 1815, he married the princess Henrietta of Nassau-Weilburg, by whom he has had three sons and one daughter. The archduke lives, generally, quite retired in the country.

Charles Augustus of Weimar. (See *Weimar.*)

Charles River; a river in Massachusetts, which flows into Boston harbor, dividing Boston from Charlestown. The source of the principal branch is a pond bordering on Hopkinton. It is navigable for lighters and large boats to Watertown, 7 miles.

Charleston; a city and seaport of South Carolina, in a district of the same name; 120 miles S. S. E. Columbia, 118 N. E. Savannah, 590 S. S. W. Baltimore; lon. 79° 54′ W.; lat. 32° 47′ N.: population in 1790, 16,359; in 1800, 18,712; in 1810, 24,711; 11,668 whites, and 13,043 blacks: in 1820, 24,780; 5323 free white males, 5330 free white females; 12,552 slaves, 1475 free people of color. It is situated on a tongue of land formed by the confluence of the rivers Cooper and Ashley, which unite just below the city, and form a spacious and convenient harbor, communicating with the ocean below Sullivan's island, 7 miles from Charleston. At the mouth of the harbor, there extends, from shore to shore, a sand-bank, dangerous to vessels, but having two channels, the deepest of which has 16 feet of water at low tide. The harbor is defended by fort Pinkney and fort Johnson, which are on islands, the former 2 and the latter 4 miles below the city; and by fort Moultrie on Sullivan's island. Charleston contains a city-hall, an exchange, a custom-house, a guard-house, a theatre, an orphan-house, an hospital, an alms-house, 2 arsenals, 2 markets, a college, and 19 houses of public worship, 4 for Episcopalians, 3 for Presbyterians, 3 for Methodists, 2 for Congregationalists, 1 for Lutherans, 2 for Roman Catholics, 1 for French Protestants, 1 for Baptists, 1 for Friends, and a Jews' synagogue. The Charleston library contains about 13,000 volumes. The orphan asylum is a noble and well endowed institution, which supports and educates nearly 200 orphan children. There are several other charitable societies richly endowed, particularly the South Carolina society, the St. Andrew's society, and the Fellowship society, instituted for the relief of widows and orphans. The city is regularly laid out in parallel streets, which are intersected by others nearly at right angles. The tongue of land, on which it is built, was originally indented with creeks and narrow marshes,

which have been filled up; and it is drier and more elevated than most parts of the low country of South Carolina. Many of the houses are elegant, and furnished with piazzas. It is much the largest town in the state, and was formerly the seat of government. It has an extensive commerce. The shipping owned here, in 1816, amounted to 36,473 tons; in 1820, to 28,403 tons. That dreadful distemper, the yellow fever, has made frequent ravages in Charleston; but its effects have been chiefly confined to persons from more northern situations; and the climate of the city is accounted healthy to the native inhabitants, more so than that of most other Atlantic towns in the Southern States. Its superior salubrity attracts the planters from the surrounding country, and it is the favorite resort of the wealthy from the West Indies. It affords much agreeable society, and is reckoned one of the gayest towns in the U. States. (See *Carolina, South.*)

Charlestown; a post-town in Middlesex county, Massachusetts, one mile north of the centre of Boston; population, in 1820, 6591. The principal part of the town is finely situated on a peninsula, formed by Charles and Mystic rivers, which here flow into Boston harbor. Charlestown is connected with Boston by two bridges across Charles river; with Chelsea and Malden by two others across Mystic river, and with Cambridge by a bridge across a bay of Charles river. It is a pleasant and flourishing town, the largest in the county of Middlesex, and advantageously situated for trade and manufactures. The principal public buildings are the state prison, the Massachusetts hospital for the insane, a market-house, almshouse, and five houses of public worship. One of the principal navy-yards in the U. States occupies about 60 acres of land, in the south-east part of this town. It is enclosed, on the land side, by a wall of solid masonry, and contains, besides other buildings, several arsenals, magazines of public stores, and three immense edifices, each sufficiently capacious to receive a ship of 100 guns, with all the apparatus for its construction. Bunker hill, on which was fought one of the most celebrated battles of the American revolution, is in this town. (For an account of the events which brought on the battle, see *Massachusetts*, and *United States.*) The British army in Boston had been increased to about 10,000 men, by the arrival of reinforcements, towards the end of May, 1775, and was under the command of general Gage, governor of Massachusetts bay, generals Howe, Clinton, Burgoyne, &c. The American army of citizen-soldiers amounted to about 15,000 men, enlisted for a few months, without organization or discipline. They were armed with fowling-pieces, but few of them provided with bayonets. The whole was under the command of general Ward, of Massachusetts, whose headquarters were at Cambridge. The right wing, under brigadier-general Thomas, occupied the heights of Roxbury; the left, under colonel Stark, was stationed at Medford. The city of Boston is built on a small peninsula, having the town of Charlestown, also built on a peninsula, and separated from it by a narrow arm of the sea, about 1500 feet wide, on the north. The heights of Charlestown, Breed's hill (62 feet high) and Bunker hill (110 feet high, about 130 rods N. W. of the former), command the city. The Americans having received information of the intention of the British to occupy these heights, and advance into the country, orders were issued to colonel Prescott (June 16) to take possession of Bunker hill in the evening, and erect the fortifications requisite to defend it. General Putnam (q. v.) had the superintendence of the expedition. Finding, on their arrival, that, though Bunker hill was the most commanding position, it was too far from the enemy to annoy his shipping and army, the provincials determined to fortify Breed's hill, and began their labor soon after midnight. Every thing had been conducted with so much silence, that the British were not aware of their presence till day-break, when the ships of war and floating batteries, which lay in the harbor of Charlestown, together with a battery on Copp's hill, opened a heavy fire on the redoubt which had been completed during the night. The Americans, meanwhile, continued their labor, until they had thrown up a small breastwork, extending north, from the east side of the redoubt, to the bottom of the hill. About one o'clock, the British, under general Howe, landed at Morton's point, in Charlestown, without opposition. Here they waited for reinforcements, which arrived soon after. The whole number amounted to about 5000 men, with 6 field-pieces and howitzers. The original detachment of provincials amounted to 1000 men, with 2 field-pieces. They had been reinforced by about the same number, among whom were the New Hampshire troops, under colonel Stark. General Pomeroy, and general Warren, president of the provincial congress, joined the ranks

as volunteers. The troops on the open ground formed a cover from the musketry of the enemy, by pulling up the rail fences, placing them at small distances apart in parallel lines, and filling up the intervening space with new-mown grass. The British columns now moved forward, under general Howe, to the attack of the rail fence, and, under general Pigot, to attack the breastwork and redoubt. The Americans impatiently withheld their fire until, according to the words of Putnam, "they saw the white of their enemies' eyes." The British were repulsed with great loss. Had they charged, they would probably have been more successful, as the American troops were almost entirely destitute of bayonets. A second attack, during which the village of Charlestown was burned to the ground, was attended with the same result. But the Americans had nearly expended their ammunition, and their communication with the main army was interrupted by the fire of the floating batteries, which enfiladed Charlestown neck. The English now rallied for a third attack, determined to concentrate their forces on the redoubt and breastwork, and to charge; at the same time, their artillery turned the left of the breastwork, enfiladed the line, and sent their balls directly into the redoubt. The Americans, after resisting with stones and the butts of their guns, retreated under a heavy fire. They were, however, not pursued very warmly, and drew off with an inconsiderable loss. They had 115 killed, among whom was general Warren (q. v.), 305 wounded, and 30 made prisoners. The British loss was 1054 killed and wounded. June 17th, 1825, the 50th anniversary of this battle was commemorated by a public celebration, and the corner-stone of the *Bunker hill monument* was laid.

Charlevoix, Peter Francis Xavier de, a French Jesuit, was born at St. Quentin, in 1682, and taught languages and philosophy with some reputation. He was, for some years, a missionary in America, and, on his return, had a chief share in the *Journal de Trévoux* for 22 years. He died in 1761, greatly esteemed for his high moral character and extensive learning. Of his works, the *Histoire Générale de la Nouvelle France* is the most valuable. This describes his own experience, and the manners and customs of the native Americans, for which he is often quoted, as a writer of good authority. His style is simple and unaffected, but not perfectly correct.

Charlotte Augusta, daughter of queen Caroline (q. v.) and George IV, and the wife of prince Leopold of Coburg, was born at Carlton house, Jan. 7, 1796, and passed the first years of her life under the eyes of her mother, who watched over her with the fondest affection. She was afterwards placed under the care of lady Clifford, and the bishop of Exeter superintended her studies. These were calculated to prepare her to become, one day, the queen of a great nation, and she was obliged to attend to them from morning to evening. She is said to have been well acquainted with the principal ancient writers, and with the history and statistics of the European states, especially with the constitution and laws of her native country. She spoke, with ease, French, German, Italian and Spanish, sung well, played on the harp, piano and guitar, and sketched landscapes from nature with much taste. Her style of writing was pleasing, and she was fond of poetry. In the unfortunate dissensions between her father and mother, she inclined to the side of the latter. The prince of Orange was fixed upon as her future husband, and the nation desired their union, because the prince had been educated in England, and was acquainted with the customs and interests of the people. After having completed his studies at the university of Oxford, he had served in the British army in Spain, and distinguished himself. The union, however, was prevented by the disinclination of the princess. In the mean time, she was introduced at court, in 1815, on her 19th birth-day. The princess, who, in any situation, would have been an ornament to her sex, displayed an ardent but generous disposition, and independence and loftiness of sentiment. She often said that queen Elizabeth must be the model of an English queen; and some persons even thought there was a resemblance between them. In 1814, prince Leopold of Coburg visited England, in the suite of the allied sovereigns, who went to London after the peace of Paris. His cultivated mind and amiable manners having made an impression on the heart of the princess, he was permitted to sue for her hand. Their marriage, the result of personal inclination, was solemnized May 2, 1816. The prince (whom Napoleon declared, at St. Helena, one of the finest men he had ever seen) loved her with tenderness. They were always together, rode out in company, visited the cottages of the country people, and exhibited a pleasing picture of conjugal love. They seldom left Claremont, and only went to London when their presence at court was necessary. Their domestic life resembled that of a

private family: after dinner, they painted together, and the evenings were devoted to music or reading. Meanwhile, the nation anxiously expected the moment when the princess, who was highly beloved, should become a mother. The expectations which had been entertained, however, were disappointed by a premature delivery. England soon conceived new hopes; but, Nov. 5, 1817, after three days of suffering, the princess was delivered of a dead child. A few hours after her delivery, she was seized with convulsions, and breathed her last. The physician who had attended her shot himself.

CHARLOTTENBURG; a residence of the king of Prussia, built by Sophia Charlotte, the first queen of Prussia, on the banks of the Spree, about three miles from Berlin, with a beautiful garden. The town, which has lately grown up, contains 430 houses, of which a large number are public houses, and 4700 inhabitants. A beautiful walk leads through the park of Berlin to Charlottenburg, which is a favorite resort of the citizens of Berlin. In the garden adjoining the castle is the tomb of the late queen Louisa, by the statuary Rauch. Charlottenburg contains one of the best academies of Germany, that of Messieurs Cauer, who formerly taught at Berlin.

CHARLOTTESVILLE; a post-town, and capital of Albemarle county, Virginia; 40 miles E. S. E. Staunton, 86 W. N. W. Richmond; lat. 38° 2′ N.; lon. 78° 52′ W. It is very pleasantly situated, one mile from the Rivanna, and is laid out in squares of three or four acres. The university of Virginia was established here, by the legislature, in 1817. The buildings comprise 10 pavilions, for the accommodation of professors; 109 dormitories and 6 hotels, for the lodging and dieting of the students. The site is a little distance out of the village, and occupies 200 acres. The institution is to receive annually, from the Virginia literary fund, the sum of $15,000.

CHARON, in mythology; the son of Erebus and Nox. It was his office to ferry the dead, in his crazy boat, over the dark floods of Acheron, over Cocytus, resounding with the doleful lamentations of the dead, and, finally, over the Styx, dreaded even by the immortals. The shades were each obliged to pay him an obolus, which was put, at the time of burial, into the mouth of the deceased. Those who could not pay the fare, or had been so unfortunate as to find no grave in the upper world, were compelled to wander on the desolate banks of the Acheron, till Charon was pleased to carry them over to their final resting-place. He was represented as an old man, with a gloomy aspect, matted beard, and tattered garments. (Respecting the Egyptian origin of this fable, see *Cemetery*, and *Egyptian Mythology*.)

CHAROST (Armand Joseph de Béthune), duke of, born at Versailles, in 1728, a worthy descendant of his great ancestor Sully, distinguished himself, on many occasions, in the military service of his country. He was the friend and father of his soldiers, and rewarded the brave from his own resources. In 1758, he sent all his plate to the mint, to supply the necessities of the state. The peace concluded in 1763 restored him to a more quiet sphere of usefulness; yet he did not discontinue his favors towards the soldiers whom he had commanded. He was particularly active in the promotion of agriculture and public instruction. Long before the revolution, he abolished the feudal services on his estates, and wrote against feudal institutions. He established charitable institutions in sundry parishes, provided for the support and instruction of orphans, employed physicians and midwives, founded and liberally endowed an hospital. In a year of dearth, he imported grain into Calais at his own expense. In the provincial assemblies, he spoke against the *corvées*. In the assembly of the notables, he declared himself for an equal distribution of the public burdens. The revolution broke out. Before the decree relative to a patriotic contribution appeared, he made a voluntary present of 100,000 francs to the state. During the reign of terror, he retired to Meillant, where he was arrested, and did not obtain his liberty until after the 9th Thermidor. In the testimonies given in his behalf by the revolutionary committees, he was called the father and benefactor of suffering humanity. He returned to Meillant, where he established an agricultural society. No sacrifice was too great for him, and his vast fortune was scarcely sufficient for his enterprises. He died Oct. 27, 1800, of the small-pox, lamented by the people, whose benefactor he had been.

CHARPENTIER, I. F. G.; a man who did much to improve the art of mining. He was born in 1738, and died in 1805. He was one of the professors in the mining academy at Freyburg, in Saxony.

CHART. (See *Map*.)

CHARTA MAGNA. (See *Magna Charta*.)

CHARTE CONSTITUTIONNELLE (*constitutional charter*) is the fundamental law of the French realm, given by king Louis XVIII (q. v.) June 4, 1814, when he returned from England. It is one of those

instruments, which are called, in French, *octroyés;* that is, such as are granted by the sovereign power of the king, and are not a compact between the people and the ruler, nor a constitution framed by the people themselves. The charter uses the words *Nous avons accordé et accordons, fait concession et octroi à nos sujets*, &c. The word *charte* was chosen as calling to mind the old charters granted in France, for instance, *la charte aux Normands.*

The French charter consists of 76 articles, and some preliminary remarks, in which the king acknowledges the necessity of a constitutional charter, as demanded by the spirit of the age and the state of France, and *cédant au vœu des sujets*, adds this instrument to the grants of the ancient kings of France, and declares that he gives it *voluntarily*, and by the free exercise of his royal authority, for himself and his successors. Articles 1 to 12 inclusive contain the public right of the French (*droit public des Français*). This portion of the *Charte* is something of the nature of a bill of rights. Those from 13 to 23 inclusive contain the *formes du gouvernement du roi*, which determine the prerogatives of the king, and his relation to the other branches of government. Those from 24 to 34 inclusive relate to the constitution of the chamber of peers; 35—53 relate to the chamber of deputies of the departments; 54—56, to the ministry; 57—68, to the judiciary; 69—74, contain particular rights guarantied by the state; 75 and 76 contain transitory articles (*articles transitoires*). The first article declares all Frenchmen equal in the eye of the law (*les Français sont égaux devant la loi, quels que soient d'ailleurs leurs titres et leurs rangs*). All citizens are taxed in proportion to their property (art. 2), and are admissible to all civil and military offices (art. 3). All forms of religion are tolerated and protected; but the Catholic is declared the religion of the state. Art. 8 recognises the liberty of the press, but reserves the right of making laws against the abuse of this privilege. Twelve such additional laws are referred to in an edition of the *Charte* printed 1828. (See *Villèle.*) Art. 9 declares all property inviolable, not excepting the *national estates*, so called, that is, such as belonged to the king, clergy and nobility before the revolution, and were sold during its continuance. Art. 11 declares a general amnesty, as regards votes and opinions previous to the restoration. (See *Amnesty.*) A law of amnesty was also passed Jan. 11, 1816. The conscription is abolished (art. 12). The person of the king is declared inviolable and sacred. His ministers are responsible. To the king alone belongs the executive power (art. 13). The king is supreme chief of the state and commander of the sea and land forces; he declares war, makes all appointments, and establishes regulations and ordinances necessary for the execution of the laws and the safety of the state (art. 14). The legislative power rests jointly in the king, the chamber of peers, and the chamber of deputies (art. 15). The king proposes the laws (art. 16).* The chambers may petition him to propose a law (art. 19). If the petition is rejected, it cannot be taken up during the same session (art. 21). The civil list is fixed during the first session of the chambers, after the accession of a king, for the whole duration of his reign (art. 23). The peers of France are nominated by the king. Their dignity is either granted for life, or made hereditary, according to his pleasure. Their number is unlimited (art. 27). The peers cannot meet without the chamber of deputies is also in session (art. 26). Peers enter the chamber at the age of 25 years, but have not the right to vote or speak until the age of 30 (art. 28). The chancellor of France presides over the peers; in his absence, a peer nominated by the king (art. 29). Members of the king's family, and princes of the blood, are peers by birth, but have no right to vote before the age of 25 years, and the king must permit them to take their seats for each session by a particular message; otherwise every thing done by the chamber in their presence is void (art. 30, 31). The debates of the peers are secret (art. 32). The chamber of peers takes cognizance of high treason and attempts against the safety of the state (art. 33). Peers can be arrested and tried only by the chamber to which they belong (art. 34). The chamber of deputies is composed of the deputies elected by the electoral colleges in the departments (art. 35). By the terms of the charter, the deputies were to be elected for five years, but the period has since been extended to seven years. (See *Septennial Elections.*) To become acquainted with the rules relating to elections, it is necessary to consult not merely the *Charte*, but also the laws of Feb. 5, 1817, March 25, 1816, June 19, 1820. In 1824, the ministry obtained the repeal of

* Therefore the French laws begin thus:—Louis or Charles, &c., *par la grâce de Dieu, Roi de* FRANCE ET DE NAVARRE, *à tous présens et à venir*, SALUT. *Nous avons proposé, les Chambres ont adopté*, NOUS AVONS ORDONNÉ ET ORDONNONS, *ce qui suit.*

art. 37, which requires a fifth part of the chamber to be annually elected—a change which much diminishes the independence of the body. This is a subject of great complaint in the nation. The liberal part of the nation are looking with great anxiety for a return to the provisions of the charter, and the security of one of the fundamental rights of the citizens. (See *Election.*) The president of the chamber of deputies is appointed by the king from among five deputies, presented by the chamber (art. 43). The sessions of the chamber of deputies are public, but, on the request of five members, it must form itself into a secret committee (art. 44). The chamber divides itself into *bureaux*, which discuss the propositions made by the king. No amendment (q. v.) to a law can be made, if it has not been proposed or sanctioned by the king, and discussed by the *bureaux*, i. e., committees (art. 45, 46). The deputies receive, first, all the propositions of the king respecting taxes, and not till after discussion in this body are these bills sent to the peers (art. 47). No tax can be imposed without the consent of both chambers and the king's sanction (art. 48). Land taxes can be imposed only for one year. Indirect taxes may be laid for several years (art. 49). The king convokes both the chambers each year. He can dissolve that of the deputies, but must, in this case, convoke another within three months (art. 50). No bodily constraint can be imposed upon a deputy during the session, or for six weeks before or after, in consequence of any civil process (art. 51). During the session, no member can be prosecuted or arrested on a criminal charge, except with the permission of the chamber, in consequence of his being guilty of a flagrant offence (art. 52). No petition to either of the chambers is permitted to be made verbally at their bar. It must be delivered in writing (art. 53). (See *Bar.*) The ministers of state may be members of either chamber, and must be heard, if they demand it, by the peers as well as by the deputies (art. 54). The chamber of deputies alone has the right to impeach the ministers; the peers, to try them (art. 55). Ministers can only be impeached for treason and extortion (*concussion*, art. 56). All justice emanates from the king (art. 57). The judges appointed by the king are not removable (art. 58). The justices of the peace, though appointed by the king, are removable (art. 61). No one can be tried except before the ordinary judges; therefore no extraordinary tribunals, nor *commissions*, so called, can be created (art. 62, 63). The debates in the courts are public in criminal cases, unless publicity, in a given case, would be injurious to the morals of the community (art. 64). The jury is preserved (art. 65). Confiscation is for ever abolished (art. 66). The king has the right of pardoning and of mitigating sentences (art. 67). The civil code, and the laws existing at the time when the charter was granted, which are not contrary to the same, remain in force until they are legally changed (art. 68). The public debt is guarantied. Every kind of engagement entered into by government with its creditors is inviolable (art. 70). The old nobility resume their titles; the new preserve theirs. The king creates nobles according to his pleasure; but he does not thus exempt from any duty or burthen (art. 71). The legion of honor is maintained (art. 72). The colonies are governed by particular laws and regulations (art. 73). The king and his successors shall swear to observe the present constitutional charter (art. 74).

However unsatisfied a great portion of the people may have been, in the beginning, with this constitution, granted by the king's sovereign authority, it has now become dear to the nation; for it is evident, that the party of the old nobility does not intend to preserve even these imperfect foundations of a constitutional monarchy, but considers them merely as the means of quieting public opinion for the present, and as, in reality, the first step in the return to the old state of things. *Vive la charte!* is the watch-word of one party, while *Vive le Roi!* is that of the other; and the wish of the former is, perhaps, more sincere than that of the latter; for, the more attentively we consider the measures of the *ultra-royalists*, as they are called, the more clearly we perceive that their ultimate object is not the establishment of the royal power, but that their present policy is to extend it merely as a necessary preliminary to the recovery of those privileges, the abuse of which was the principal cause, and their annihilation the first consequence, of the revolution. The restoration of the confiscated estates of the emigrants, the re-establishment of the seigneurial rights, feudal taxes, tithes, and, above all, the exclusive right to the higher offices in state and church, are so openly demanded, that the term *seigneur* has already been heard in the chamber of deputies. The contest on the following question is, therefore, of vital importance:—whether the king granted the *Charte* of his own authority, as an edict resting solely on the royal will, and

binding neither the monarch himself nor his successors (which is the assertion of the royalists); or whether, by it, the king concluded an irreversible compact with the nation, declaring the common will, as the chief representative of the French people. Many *desiderata* still exist, which are either expressly promised by the *Charte* to be supplied (as, for instance, more definite provisions with respect to the responsibility of public officers), or tacitly, as necessary to complete it (among which must be reckoned, particularly, a better form of administration in the separate municipalities). Those abuses with which Napoleon's government has been principally reproached, the arbitrary administration under constitutional forms, the prefectures, and the *bureaucracy* (see *Bureau*), from the minister to the *maire*, are still the same. The communities and departments have not regained the free and independent administration of their domestic concerns, which had been secured to them by the first laws of the revolution, and which, indeed, constitutes one of the principal conditions on which the welfare of the nation depends. But the determination of this point by law is one of the most difficult questions that can arise, and deserves the most mature consideration, because it operates directly upon the people, and concerns interests which are dear alike to the rich and the poor. The law proposed to the deputies in the session of 1821 bore the stamp of the ministry of that time, at the head of which was Pasquier, who, thinking that the aristocrats might be made the instruments of the government, offered them those half concessions which imbittered one party without reconciling the other. The richest members of every municipality were to be permitted to choose their magistrates, and were themselves to form a part of them without the necessity of being chosen; yet the powers of these magistrates, as well as those of the deputations of the cantons and departments, were very limited. (For further information respecting the French government, see *Louis XVIII*, *Charles X*, &c.)

CHARTER. Every written document in the middle ages was called *carta*, *charta* or *chartula*. There were several kinds, distinguished by different names, according to the nature of the subjects, or the materials on which they were written, or their internal or external form. Thus a kind of documents, common in England, are called *indentures* (*chartæ indentatæ* or *partitæ*), because originally written on one piece of parchment, which was afterwards cut asunder in an indented form, so that the fitting of the several parts to each other was considered necessary to prove their genuineness. (It was also customary to write a word, commonly the word *chirographum*, lengthwise between the two instruments, and cut it in two, whence such an instrument was called *chirographum*.) This method has also been resorted to as a means of securing certificates of stock from being counterfeited: they are bound up, and then cut out, so that each number must fit the part belonging to it remaining in the book. *Chartæ per crucem* or *per punctum* signified, in the middle ages, charters signed only by a cross or point, for want of the knowledge of writing in the signer. The signification which is now usually affixed to the word *charter*, meaning a document relating to public law, the constitution of a state, or some parts of it, likewise originated in England, where the royal grants of certain privileges to towns or other corporations are styled *chartæ libertatum*, or *charters*. No European nation has set so high a value on documents of this nature, none has maintained its ancient rights and liberties with so much care and jealousy, as the English; for which reason the literature of this department is richer among them than in any other nation. Since 1783, when the *Domesday-Book*, that celebrated account of landed property, or register and description of all feudal estates, in the time of William I (commenced in 1080, and finished in 1085), was printed at the expense of parliament, and particularly since 1800, when a committee of parliament was appointed for the purpose of making search after the ancient documents that might be still extant, and causing them to be printed, much has been done by the English for promoting the publication of these monuments of their history and constitution. Rymer's collection (*Fœdera, Conventiones, Literæ et cujuscunque Generis Acta publica inter Reges Angliæ*, &c., 1704—35, 20 vols., fol.; Hague, 1745, 10 vols., folio) was, even in the first edition, very complete for a private collection, and a model in its kind: the 2d and part of the 3d edition have appeared under the direction and at the expense of parliament, and are far superior to the former. The first volume of this work appeared in 1816. According to the report of the committee, in 1821, 45 vols., fol., of ancient documents, had then been printed since 1801, comprising a period of more than 700 years, which shed

great light on history and politics. The city of London is still in possession of two original charters, granted by William I in the year 1066, one of which confirms the privileges which the city had received from Edward the Confessor, and the other bestows on it the fief of Gyddersdaur. They are handsomely written, in the Anglo-Saxon language, on two pieces of parchment, each six inches in length, by one in breadth, the former consisting of nine lines, the latter of three. The seals, though broken in pieces, are still attached to them, enclosed in silk bags. In France, the fundamental law of constitutional liberty, given by Louis XVIII, is called *Charte constitutionnelle* (q. v.). In 1822, there was established in France a school of charters (*école des chartes*), to instruct young men in deciphering and explaining the charters of the middle ages, which are to be found in the French archives. There is, even since the revolution has destroyed so many documents, an immense mass of grants, charters, &c., written on parchment, many of great antiquity, in France. Mr. Isambert has collected, in the preface to vol. 1 of his useful *Recueil des Anciennes Lois du Royaume*, accurate and extensive information respecting the catalogues, descriptions, places of deposit, &c. of charters.

Charter-party is a contract under hand and seal, executed by the freighter and the master or owner of a ship, containing the terms upon which the ship is hired to freight. The masters and owners usually bind themselves, the ship, tackle and furniture, that the goods freighted shall be delivered (dangers of the sea excepted) well-conditioned at the place of the discharge; and they also covenant to provide mariners, tackle, &c., and to equip the ship complete and adequate to the voyage. The freighter stipulates to pay the consideration money for the freight; and penalties are annexed to enforce the reciprocal covenants.

Chartres (anciently *Autricum* and *Carnutum*); a city of France, in the Eure-and-Loire, 11 posts S. W. Paris, 18½ N. N. E. Tours; lon. 1° 13′ E.; lat. 48° 27′ N. The population amounts to 15,000. It is the see of a bishop. It is one of the most ancient towns of the country, and contains a cathedral, 8 churches, an hospital, a public library of 25,000 volumes, and a cabinet of natural history. The streets are narrow, but some of the houses are uncommonly neat, and the cathedral is esteemed one of the most beautiful churches in the kingdom. It is situated on the Eure, over which is a bridge, the work of the celebrated Vauban. The principal trade is in corn, wine and manufactured goods. Regnier, the poet, Nicole, Brissot and Desportes were natives of this place.

Chartreuse, or Great Chartreuse; a famous Carthusian monastery in France, a little N. E. of Grenoble, situated at the foot of high mountains. It was founded in 1086. (See *Carthusians*.)

Charybdis; a daughter of Neptune and Terra, whom Jupiter, on account of her insatiable rapacity, hurled into the sea, where she became a whirlpool, and swallowed up every ship that approached her. This mythological fiction was occasioned by the whirlpool in the Sicilian sea, which was the more dangerous to inexperienced navigators, because, in endeavoring to escape it, they ran the risk of being wrecked upon Scylla, a rock opposite to it. Charybdis is no longer dreadful to navigators, who, in a quiet sea, and particularly if the south wind is not blowing, cross it without danger. Its present names are *Calofaro* and *La Rema*. The earthquake of 1783 is said to have much diminished its violence.

Chase, Samuel, a celebrated judge, and one of the signers of the declaration of independence, was born April 17, 1741, in Somerset county, Maryland. His father, a learned clergyman, instructed him in the ancient classics, and subsequently placed him at Annapolis as a student of law. He was admitted to the bar at the age of 20. His talents, industry, intrepidity, imposing stature, sonorous voice, fluent and energetic elocution, raised him to eminence in a very few years. Having become a member of the colonial legislature, he distinguished himself by his bold opposition to the royal governor and the court party. He took the lead in denouncing and resisting the famous stamp act. His revolutionary spirit, his oratory and reputation, placed him at the head of the active adversaries of the British government in his state. The Maryland convention of the 22d of June, 1774, appointed him to attend the meeting of the general congress, at Philadelphia, in September of that year. He was also present and conspicuous at the session of December following, and in the subsequent congresses, during the most critical periods of the revolution. That of 1776 deputed him on a mission to Canada, along with doctor Franklin, Charles Carroll of Carrollton, and the reverend John Carroll, afterwards Catholic archbishop of Baltimore. It was Mr. Chase who de-

nounced to congress the reverend doctor Zubly, a delegate from Georgia, as a traitor to the American cause, and forced him to a precipitate and ignominious flight. He signed the declaration of independence with promptitude, and was an active and able member of congress almost throughout the war; at the end of which he returned to the practice of his profession. In June, 1783, the legislature of Maryland sent him to London, as a commissioner, to recover stock of the bank of England, and large sums of money which belonged to the state. He remained in England nearly a year, during which time he put the claim in a train of adjustment. There he passed much of his time in the society of the most eminent statesmen and lawyers. In the year 1791, he accepted the appointment of chief justice of the general court of Maryland. Five years afterwards, president Washington made him an associate judge of the supreme court of the U. States. Political cases of deep interest having been tried when he presided in the circuit courts, and his conduct having given much displeasure to the democratic party, he was impeached by the house of representatives at Washington. The trial of the judge before the senate is memorable on account of the excitement which it produced, the ability with which he was defended, and the nature of his acquittal. A full report of it has been published. He continued to exercise his judicial functions, with the highest reputation, until the year 1811, in which his health failed. He expired June 19 of that year. Mr. Chase led an eventful and important life, and established the character of a sagacious, erudite and fearless judge, and a patriot little inferior in merit to any of his contemporaries.

Chasing, in sculpture; the art of embossing on metals. This is the art of representing figures, &c. in a kind of *basso relievo*, punched out from behind, and sculptured on the front with small chisels and gravers.

Chasseki; the first sultana, or that wife of the Turkish emperor who presents him with the first prince. (See *Turkey*, near the close of the article.)

Chasteler (John Gabriel) marquis of, grandee of Spain of the first rank, Austrian master of ordnance or general of artillery, military governor in Venice, descended in a collateral line from the dukes of Lorraine, was born in 1763, and received his first education at Metz, in the college de Fort. In 1776, he entered the Austrian service. After having served against the Turks (when he was severely wounded), he displayed his zeal for the house of Austria in the disturbances in the Netherlands. In 1796—97, he was employed in the negotiations of his court in Poland and Russia; was afterwards with Suwaroff in Italy, where he distinguished himself in several engagements with the French armies. In 1808, with Hormayr, he was the soul of the famous insurrection in the Tyrol, and all the political as well as military events which were connected with it. Meanwhile, the disaster at Ratisbon (q. v.) had taken place. Chasteler was obliged to retreat into the northern part of Tyrol. Napoleon, enraged at the surrender of 8000 French and Bavarians at Innspruck, issued a proclamation at Enns, in which "a certain Chasteler, who calls himself a general in the Austrian service, but who is the leader of a band of robbers, and the author of the murders committed upon the French and Bavarian prisoners, as well as the instigator of the Tyrolese insurrection," is declared an outlaw, and ordered to be brought before a court-martial, and shot within 24 hours. The emperor Francis commanded, that an order which violated all international laws, and which was the more censurable as Chasteler had taken particular care of the prisoners and the wounded, should be met by retaliation. The Bavarian army, under the command of the marshal duke of Dantzick, entered Tyrol: Chasteler fearlessly encountered it; but his army was routed on the 13th of May. After the close of the war, he received several appointments, and, in December, 1814, was made governor of Venice, where he died, May 7, 1825. This general was of a chivalrous character and a cultivated mind; he spoke 12 languages, was as brave as he was generous, and was one of the noblest Walloons in the armies of Austria.

Chastelet (Gabrielle Emilie de Breteuil) marquise du; of an ancient family in Picardy; born in 1706. She was taught Latin by her father, baron Breteuil, and was as well acquainted with that language as madame Dacier (q. v.); but her favorite study was mathematics. She had a sound judgment and much taste; loved society and the amusements of her age and sex; but abandoned all these pleasures, and, in 1733, retired to the dilapidated castle of Cirey, situated in a dreary region on the borders of Champagne and Lorraine. She embellished this residence, formed a library, collected instruments, &c. Cirey was often visited by the learned; for in-

stance, by Maupertuis, John Bernouilli, &c. Here the marchioness learned English of Voltaire in the space of three months, and read with him Newton, Locke and Pope. She learned Italian with equal rapidity. She also wrote an analysis of the system of Leibnitz, and translated Newton's *Principia*, with an algebraic commentary. Voltaire lived six years with her at Cirey. She then went to Brussels, to prosecute a lawsuit, which was terminated by an advantageous compromise, brought about by Voltaire. She also carried on a correspondence with the German philosopher Wolf until her death. Her *Traité de la Nature du Feu* obtained the prize of the Parisian academy of sciences, and is published in their collections. Her husband, the marquis du Chastelet Lomont, was high steward of king Stanislaus Leczinsky, at Luneville. The marchioness died at Luneville, in 1749.

CHÂTEAUBRIAND, François Auguste, vicomte de; peer of France, nephew of the generous Malesherbes; one of the most distinguished living French writers. He was born at Combourg, in Brittany, in 1769, and, in 1786, joined the regiment of infantry called the *regiment of Navarre*. During the bloody proscriptions of the revolution, he repaired to North America. A residence of two years among the savage tribes of Kentucky, whence, in 1790 and the following year, he penetrated as far as cape Mendocino, on the Pacific, had a decisive influence upon his character as a politico-religious poet. While in America, he wrote a work of a poetical character, although not in verse, called *The Natches*, in which he describes the manners of the Indian tribes. This appeared, for the first time, in 1826, in the collection of his works. In 1792, he returned to Europe, to fight under the banners of the emigrants, and was wounded at the siege of Thionville. This circumstance, together with some others, induced him to go to England. There his narrow circumstances obliged him to turn author, and he formed an intimacy with count de Fontanes. At that time, he wrote his *Essai historique, politique et moral sur les Révolutions anciennes et modernes, considérées dans leur Rapport avec la Révolution Française* (Historical, political and moral Essay on ancient and modern Revolutions, considered in Relation to the French Revolution), London, 1797, and Leipsic. There are sundry opinions in this work, which the most enlightened men would not disavow, excepting, indeed, M. de Châteaubriand himself. He has since publicly acknowledged his former errors (*ses erreurs*), and written "a new work, with an old faith." ("*J'écris*," says he, "*un ouvrage neuf avec une foi antique.*")* For so it happened, that when Napoleon placed himself at the head of affairs, the author of the *Essai historique* immediately announced his abjuration of liberal ideas. "Under a government which proscribes no peaceable opinions," says he, in the preface to the third edition of his *Atala*, 1801, "it may be permitted to undertake the defence of Christianity as a literary subject." At that time, he called Bonaparte "one of those men whom Providence, when weary of punishing, sends into the world as a pledge of reconciliation." The first edition of Châteaubriand's *Génie du Christianisme* (Genius of Christianity) appeared in England in 1802. It was afterwards published in France also. The tale of *Atala* composed the 18th book of it. This work made a great impression; and, indeed, every thing in it is calculated merely for effect. The time in which it appeared was happily chosen, as Bonaparte entertained the wish of restoring the authority of the church. Twenty-five years earlier, it would have found as little favor in the eyes of the Sorbonne as with the adversaries of that society; but the prelates did not think proper to express their discontent at the somewhat worldly views of the author, since they appeared to be best adapted to excite religious feelings among such a people as the French of that time. After the 18th Brumaire, Châteaubriand returned to France, entered into a connexion with Fontanes, La Harpe, and other distinguished scholars, and became joint editor of the *Mercure*. In 1803, he was, for a short time, secretary to the legation in Rome, under cardinal Fesch. This residence inspired his imagination with the idea of the *Martyrs*, which is a religious poem, though not in metre. In the same year, he was appointed French minister in the Valais, but sent in his resignation immediately after the death of the duke d'Enghien (March, 1804). In 1806, he travelled through Greece and Rhodes to Jerusalem, from whence he went to Alexandria, Cairo and Carthage, and returned by way of

* Châteaubriand, in 1814, published a new edition of his *Essai*, in which all those passages which a certain class of people are displeased with are changed. But in 1824, a reprint of the old edition of the *Essai*, of the year 1797, which had become very rare, appeared at Paris, with notes, and all the metamorphoses of the edition of 1814.

Spain to France, in May, 1807. According to his own words, he brought back, as testimonials of his pilgrimage and his faith, a dozen pebbles from Sparta, Argos and Corinth, a phial of water from the Jordan, together with a rosary, a flask filled with water of the Dead sea, and a bunch of sedge from the banks of the Nile. Soon after, he lost his property in the *Mercure de France*, on account of some remarks on M. de la Borde's Travels in Spain, in which the emperor thought he discovered some offensive allusions. About this time, Châteaubriand's *Martyrs* appeared. It was to be expected that it would not be universally approved. When Châteaubriand succeeded Joseph Chénier as a member of the institute, in 1811, instead of pronouncing a eulogy on his predecessor, as is customary in the inaugural discourse of a member, he treated him with very little forbearance. His conduct on this occasion can only be attributed to his personal resentments, or to a design of fomenting party dissensions. In this oration, however, and still more frequently in the *Itinéraire de Paris à Jérusalem*, are passages devoted to the praise of Napoleon; partly, indeed, because the author was an admirer of his military glory, and partly because (according to his own confession) he could not neglect the interests of his publisher by disregarding a hint received from the minister of police. At length, the disasters of 1812 encouraged his hope of the restoration of the Bourbons, and, in April, 1814, he published his famous pamphlet *De Bonaparte et des Bourbons*, which has been translated into almost all the European languages. It is impossible to write more boldly against a power which has ceased to exist. The man sent by Providence (*envoyé par la Providence*) is painted as strongly as before, but with entirely new features. In this publication, the vicomte declared himself decidedly for the ultra-royalists, to whom he has been, for a long time, a faithful adherent. He endeavored, at the same time, to exercise some influence on public opinion, and, by his *Réflexions politiques sur quelques Brochures du Jour* (Political Reflections on some Pamphlets of the Day), he recommended himself to the ministry of that period. On Napoleon's return from Elba, he followed Louis XVIII to Ghent, and thence back to Paris. While at Ghent, in May, 1815, he presented a report to the king on the condition of France, in which certain interests were so imprudently menaced that Napoleon caused it to be printed and distributed in Paris. August 19, 1815, he was made minister of state and peer. As such, he voted for the rigorous measures against political intrigues (*intrigues politiques*), declared himself in favor of the restitution of the old judicial forms, and against the partial renovation of the chamber of deputies, &c. March 21, 1816, he became a member of the academy. Six months afterwards appeared his work, *La Monarchie selon la Charte* (The Monarchy according to the Charter), in which some good ideas are artfully blended with doctrines, which, if carried into practice, would be equally prejudicial to the royal authority and the rights of the people. Having permitted himself, in this work, to express some doubts of the sincerity of the king's purposes, as expressed in the ordinance of Sept. 5, his name was struck from the list of the ministers of state—a step which was very unfavorably viewed by the faubourg of St. Germain. From that time Châteaubriand often assailed the measures of Decazes, declaring that France would be ruined if the character of the administration were not changed. The *Moniteur* of Aug. 21, 1818, attacked, in strong terms, his *Remarques sur les Affaires du Moment* (Remarks on the present State of Affairs). At a later period (1820), Châteaubriand voted for the *lois d'exception*. (See *Exception, Laws of*.) When the duke of Bordeaux was baptized, he presented the duchess of Berri with a phial of water from the Jordan; and, on this occasion, the question was started, why he did not, in 1811, sprinkle with this romantic water "*the cradle which contained the destinies of the future*." In 1820, Châteaubriand went as minister plenipotentiary and envoy extraordinary to Berlin, but, in the following year, returned to Paris, where, April 30, 1821, he was appointed minister of state and member of the privy council. In August of the same year, he resigned the post of minister of state. In 1822, he was appointed extraordinary ambassador to London, in the place of Decazes—a post with which an income of 300,000 francs, and an outfit of 150,000 francs, are connected. But he soon returned to Paris, accompanied the duke of Montmorenci to the congress of Verona, and, after his return, became the duke's successor in the department of foreign affairs (Dec. 28, 1822), because his opinions coincided with the views of Villèle on the Spanish affairs, being more moderate than those of many of the royalists. The instructions to the count de la Garde, French

ambassador at Madrid, were drawn up in the same spirit, on the breaking out of the war. But a coldness soon arose between Villèle and Châteaubriand, the former not approving the latter's romantic notions in the cause of the Spanish royalists. Châteaubriand was consoled on this occasion by receiving the Russian order of St. Andrew, and the Prussian order of the black eagle. As, however, he did not support Villèle's project relative to the reduction of the 'five per cents.,' when discussed in the chamber of peers, expecting, perhaps, that, if Villèle's proposal did not pass, the fall of this minister would be the consequence, he himself received his dismission, June 5, 1824. He then declared himself against Villèle. After the death of Louis XVIII, Châteaubriand published, Sept. 17, a pamphlet, under the title *Le Roi est mort: vive le Roi!* (The King is dead: long live the King!)* which obtained him the favor of the court and the king. He did not, however, receive a place in the ministry. He therefore joined the opposition, taking advantage of the liberty of the press to make severe attacks on the measures of the ministry, in ably written articles, which appeared in the *Journal des Débats;* and there is no doubt that he contributed much to Villèle's final overthrow. A very well written account of this overthrow is contained in the North American Review, July, 1828, article *Politics of Europe.* His pamphlet *De l'Abolition de la Censure* (On the Abolition of the Censorship), in which he advanced the proposition that a representative government, without the liberty of the press, is worthless, met with great approbation. In 1825 appeared his eloquent *Note sur la Grèce* (Note on Greece), advocating the cause of the Greeks, in favor of whom he also spoke with great energy in the chamber of peers. He has been lately engaged in the publication of his *Œuvres complètes* (Complete Collection of his Works), in 25 vols., for which the bookseller Ladvocat has paid him 550,000 francs. Among his works are *Mémoires, Lettres et Pièces authentiques touchant la Vie et la Mort du Duc de Berri.* M. Châteaubriand was, for a time, the chief editor of the *Conservateur.* This journal was continued by Fiévée, but ceased when the law establishing the censorship appeared. Châteaubriand's writings breathe a poetic spirit. They are composed with warmth, replete with images, spirited, and not without power: many of his descriptions, in particular, may be called excellent: yet his ideas are destitute of solidity and connexion. However distinguished, therefore, may be the rank which his talents for description have procured him among popular writers, yet none of his works can be called classic, if we reserve this name for the works of a lofty and independent mind, which combine richness of ideas with profoundness and solidity, which never distort the truth by sophisms, the illusions of the imagination, or inflated expression. Many of his works are translated into English; but they are less valued in England than in France, and still less in America than in England. Lady Morgan calls him the solitary and inimitable successor of the Coucys, Nesles, Chatillons and Montforts, the last of the crusaders and noble palmers of Europe.

* The ancient cry by which the death of the king of France is always announced.

CHÂTEAUROUX, Marie Anne, duchess of, of the illustrious house of Nesle, was married to the marquis de la Tournelle in 1734. Being left a widow at the age of 23, she was received by her aunt, the duchess Mazarin, but soon lost this support. Her two sisters (mesdames de Vintimille and Mailly) had successively been in the possession of the heart of Louis XV, when the king conceived an ardent passion for her. She was made lady of honor to the queen, and afterwards duchess of Châteauroux, with a pension of 80,000 livres. By her persuasion, Louis XV put himself at the head of the armies in Flanders and Alsace. He fell sick at Metz, his life was despaired of, and he was obliged to consent to the dismission of the duchess. She was received in Paris by Richelieu, who, after the king's recovery, effected her recall. Her triumph was complete, and she was promised the important post of superintendent of the dauphiness, when she died, in 1744. A collection of her letters appeared in Paris, 1806, in two small volumes.

CHATELET was anciently a small chateau or fortress, and the officer who commanded it was called *châtelain.* The word is a diminutive of *château,* formed from *castellum,* a diminutive of *castrum;* or from *castellatum,* a diminutive of *castellum,* castle. The term, in later times, has been applied to certain courts of justice, established in several cities in France. The *grand châtelet,* in Paris, was the place where the presidial or ordinary court of justice of the *prévôt* of Paris was kept, consisting of a presidial, a civil chamber, a criminal chamber, and a chamber of police. The term signified the same at

Montpellier, Orleans, &c. When Paris was confined to the limits of the old city (*cité*), it could be entered only by two bridges (*le petit pont* and *le pont au change*), each of which was fortified with two towers,—a smaller one in the wall, facing the city, and a larger one before the bridge, towards the country. These two exterior turrets are the *grand* and *petit châtelet*. The tradition that the *grand châtelet* was built by Julius Cæsar, though adopted by some literati (e. g. La Marre, in his *Traité de Police*, vol. i, p. 87), is not well supported; but it is certain that the great tower was standing as early as the siege of the city by the Normans (885). The *grand châtelet* was the castle of the counts of Paris, and, therefore, the seat of all the royal courts of justice within the city and county, and also of the feudal court. The city had no proper jurisdiction whatever; its bailiff or provost (*prévôt*) was appointed by the king, and was president of the court (though only nominally, because he had no voice in the judgments), and, by virtue of his office, leader of the nobility. The office of provost of the merchants (*prévôt des marchands*; in other cities, *maire*), established before the former, and afterwards united with it for a time, was finally separated from it in 1388. The business of the *châtelet* was transacted by the deputies of the bailiff (*lieutenants*), of whom there were five, three for civil causes, one chief judge of criminal cases, and a lieutenant-general of police (*lieutenant-général de la police*). The latter, indeed, was minister of police for the whole kingdom, and the extent of his functions and power, particularly after the new arrangement, made by the celebrated d'Argenson, under Louis XIV, rendered him one of the most important officers of the state. In the *châtelet*, however, he held only the fourth place. The whole court of justice was composed of 56 counsellors, with 13 state attorneys, and a multitude of subalterns, as 63 secretaries or *greffiers*, 113 notaries, 236 attorneys, &c. All these offices were sold. The place of the first officer of the civil chamber was rated at 500,000 livres; that of a notary at 40,000 livres. The *châtelet* was first in rank after the supreme courts (*cours souveraines*).

CHATELET, the marchioness of. (See *Chastelet*.)

CHATHAM; a town in Kent, England, on the Medway, united to the city of Rochester, of which it is considered a suburb; 30 miles E. London; population, 15,268. It is celebrated for its dock. An immense quantity of naval stores of all kinds are kept ready, in magazines and warehouses, arranged in such regular order that whatever is wanted may be procured without the least confusion. Above 20 forges are constantly at work. Anchors are made, some of which weigh five tons. In the rope-house, which is 700 feet in length, cables have been made 120 fathoms long, and 22 inches round. The dock-yard is about a mile long, the sail-loft 209 feet in length, and there are large store-rooms, one of which is 658 feet long. Here is an hospital for decayed seamen and their widows. The town is defended by fort Pitt, and very extensive fortifications called the *lines*; and, with the exception of Portsmouth, Chatham is considered the most regular and complete fortress in Great Britain.

Many towns and counties in America are called *Chatham*, after the great minister (q. v.); also straits, islands, &c.; for instance, *Chatham bay*, or Punjo bay, on the S. W. coast of East Florida, lon. 81° 30′ W., lat. 25° 30′ N.—*Chatham island*, in the South Pacific ocean; lon. 183° 10′ E., lat. 44° S.—*Chatham sound*, between the islands of Dundas and Stephens, on the W. coast of North America.—*Chatham strait*, a channel of the North Pacific ocean, on the coast of North America, between King George the Third's archipelago and Admiralty island, rather more than 100 miles in length from N. to S.

CHATHAM (William Pitt), earl of; one of the illustrious statesmen of England, who ruled his native country solely by the superiority of his genius. Integrity, disinterestedness and patriotism were united in him with indefatigable industry, promptitude and sagacity. In eloquence he was never surpassed by any of his countrymen. His speeches were bold and sublime, and his influence over the minds of his audience was irresistible. His ease and dignity, fine voice and masterly gesticulation (in which even Garrick allowed him to be his superior), prepossessed his hearers in his favor, while the perspicuity and power of his arguments carried conviction. He was the son of Robert Pitt of Boconnoc, in Cornwall, born in 1708, and educated at Eton and Oxford. On quitting the university, he became a cornet in the blues, and, in 1735, represented the borough of Old Sarum in the house of commons, where he attracted universal notice. He was a powerful opponent of sir Robert Walpole, who revenged himself by taking away his commission. In

1744, he received, on account of his patriotism, a legacy of £10,000 from the duchess of Marlborough, and, at a later period, a considerable estate was bequeathed him by sir W. Pynsent. He had been appointed gentleman of the bed-chamber to the prince of Wales, but resigned this place in 1745; became, in 1746, vice-treasurer of Ireland, paymaster-general of the army, and member of the privy-council. In 1755 Mr. Pitt was turned out of office. In 1756, he was appointed secretary of state, but was dismissed in the same year, on account of his opposition to the Hanoverian policy of George II. The nation, however, was enthusiastically attached to him, and the public discontent was so loudly manifested, that he was appointed secretary of state again in 1757. His great mind now revealed its full force. His ascendency was complete over the parliament no less than in the ministry; he aroused the English nation to new activity, and, in the space of a few years, recovered the superiority over France, annihilating her navy, and stripping her of her colonies. France was beaten in the four quarters of the world. In 1760, he advised the declaration of war against Spain, while she was unprepared for resistance, as he foresaw that she would assist France. The elevation of England on the ruins of the house of Bourbon was the great object of his policy. But his plans were suddenly interrupted by the death of George II. George III was prejudiced against Pitt by his adversary, the earl of Bute, a statesman of limited views. Pitt, therefore, resigned his post in 1761, only retaining his seat in the house of commons. On his retirement, his wife was created baroness Chatham. The thanks of the city of London were presented to him in a public address, an inscription in his honor was ordered to be placed on Blackfriar's bridge, and he was declared the palladium of England's liberty. In 1762, when Spain formally allied herself with France, Pitt urged the continuance of the war, by which both states would, perhaps, have been totally exhausted; but peace was concluded by the opposite party in 1763. Pitt uniformly supported the cause of the people. Foreseeing the separation of the American colonies from the mother country, if the arbitrary measures then adopted should be continued, he advocated, especially in 1766, a conciliatory policy, and the repeal of the stamp act. In the same year, he was invited to assist in forming a new ministry, in which he took the office of privy seal, and was created viscount Burton, baron Pynsent and earl of Chatham. In 1768, he resigned, as he found himself inadequately seconded by his colleagues. In the house of lords, he continued to recommend the abandonment of the coercive measures employed against America, particularly in 1774; but his warning was rejected, and, in 1776, the colonies declared themselves independent. In vain did he renew his motion for reconciliation in 1777; in vain did he declare the conquest of America impossible. April 7, 1778, though laboring under a severe illness, he repaired to the house, to attack the unjust and impolitic proceedings of the ministers towards the colonies. At the close of his speech, he fainted and fell backwards; he was conveyed out of the house, and afterwards removed to his country-seat at Hayes, in Kent, where he died, May 11. The parliament annexed an annuity of £4000 to the earldom of Chatham; his debts were paid, and he was honored with a public funeral, and a magnificent monument in Westminster abbey. Another was erected, in 1782, in Guildhall. The sentiments of lord Chatham were liberal and elevated, but he was haughty, and impatient of contradiction, and perhaps exhibited too marked a consciousness of his own superiority. His private was as estimable as his public character. To use the language of lord Chesterfield, "it was stained by no vice, nor sullied by any meanness." No literary production of lord Chatham, except one or two short poems, had appeared, until the publication by lord Grenville, in 1804, of his "Letters" to his nephew, afterwards the first lord Camelford, which contain much excellent advice to a young man, clothed in easy and familiar language, and reflect equal honor on the author's head and heart.—In the U. States, where lord Chatham was very popular, several places are called after his title. *Pittsburg* was so called from his family name.

CHÂTILLON, CONGRESS OF, *from the 5th of Feb. to the 19th of March*, 1814, WITH THE CONTEMPORARY MILITARY EVENTS. The negotiations of the allied powers with Napoleon, begun at Frankfort, Oct. 10 and Nov. 27, 1813, but broken off, when, in consequence of their declaration of Dec. 1, the theatre of war was transferred to the heart of France, Jan. 8, 1814, were renewed in the small town of Châtillon-sur-Seine (chief place of an *arrondissement*, in the department *Côte d'Or*, with 3967 inhabitants), which had been declared neutral. Caulaincourt (duke of Vicenza), who

had succeeded Maret (duke of Bassano) as minister of foreign affairs, was waiting, in that place, the answer of prince Metternich to his last letter. Lord Castlereagh conducted the negotiations in the name of Great Britain: besides him, there were three other British ministers present—lords Cathcart, Aberdeen and Stewart. Count Razumoffsky was the minister of Russia, count Stadion of Austria, and baron William von Humboldt of Prussia. The history of this congress is closely connected with the course of the war, and the transactions of this period had so great an influence upon the whole war, as well as upon the subsequent policy of Europe, that we shall treat them somewhat at length. After the battle of Brienne, or La Rothière (see *Brienne*), Napoleon retreated through Troyes, Feb. 8, to Nogent on the Seine, about 20 leagues from Paris. The allies, on the other hand, had resolved, in a council of war held at Brienne, Feb. 2, not to pursue the French army with united forces, because the country would not afford sufficient supplies for the two armies on one road. Schwarzenberg and Blücher separated, therefore, for the purpose of taking different routes to Paris: the former went through Troyes, and, after driving back the corps of Napoleon, occupied both banks of the Seine, Feb. 7; the latter passed through Arcis and Chalons, for the purpose of uniting with the corps of Yorck, Kleist and Langeron, along the banks of the Aube and Marne, towards Meaux. But Blücher, instead of awaiting the northern army, which was advancing from Belgium, pushed forward in pursuit of Macdonald, and advanced too hastily into Champagne. Between him and the main army there was a distance of three or four days' march, of which Napoleon took advantage, in spite of the badness of the roads, and, by the rapidity and boldness of his movements, was enabled to do much injury to the allies. Meanwhile the congress had been opened, Feb. 5, Napoleon having offered to surrender immediately all the fortresses in those countries which were to be ceded by France, if the allies would grant him an armistice. But the latter were desirous of signing the preliminaries of a peace, by which her former limits should be guarantied to France, on condition that Napoleon would deliver up six of the most important frontier fortresses. Such was the state of the negotiations, when Napoleon—threatened on his right, east of Troyes, by Schwarzenberg, and on his left out-flanked and surrounded by Blücher, whose advanced corps, under Yorck, had pushed forward, Feb. 9, as far as La-Ferté-sous-Jouarre, three days' march from Paris—by a sudden movement, traversed the centre of the line formed by the divisions of the Silesian army, which were separated from each other by considerable intervals, and thus pressed forward on the rear and left flank of the enemy. Leaving 36,000 men under Victor, Oudinot and Milhaud, to prevent the passage of the Seine and Yonne by Schwarzenberg, he advanced, Feb. 9, with the divisions of Ney and Marmont, and the guards under Mortier, composing a body of 30,000 men, from Nogent-sur-Seine over the Seine to Sezanne, and, on the 10th, at Champ-Aubert, attacked, with 6000 horse, the Russian division of Alsusieff, which consisted of 5000 men with 24 cannon. The Russian general, after a gallant resistance, was obliged to surrender with 2000 men; 2000 escaped through the woods, and 15 cannon fell into the hands of the enemy. Napoleon was now in the rear of the advanced guard under Sacken and the division of Yorck. The former, therefore, with 20,000 men, hastily fell back from La-Ferté to Montmirail, where he was received, Feb. 11, by Napoleon, who had already occupied Montmirail, was defeated in a bloody action at the villages of L'Epine and Marchais, and, after a loss of 2400 men killed, and 1000 men and 9 cannon taken, was compelled to retreat by night. Covered by the arrival of a part of Yorck's division, he continued his retreat to Château-Thierry, which he reached in full flight, but not before his rear had suffered a second defeat on the heights of Nesle, Feb. 12, with a loss of 2000 men. At Château-Thierry, the passage to the right bank of the Marne being covered by prince William of Prussia, with 2000 men, Sacken and Yorck, the latter of whom had, in the mean time, retreated from Meaux, pursued by Macdonald, fell back toward Rheims. Meanwhile Blücher, on the 12th, upon the first notice of Napoleon's diversion, had concentrated the division under lieutenant-general von Kleist, and that commanded by general Kapzewitsch, at Bergeres, and, supposing that Napoleon had been repulsed by generals Yorck and Sacken, advanced, with 20,000 men, to Etoges, where, on the 13th, he attacked Marmont, who had been sent, by Napoleon, to meet him, and forced him back towards Montmirail, as far as Vauchamp, in order to effect a union with Yorck and Sacken. But, on the 14th, Napoleon overtook the Prussian vanguard at that place and Join-

villiers. Blücher soon found himself attacked on every side, and, having at length become aware of his situation, determined to retreat. He formed the infantry into solid bodies, and placed the cannon between them, and the cavalry upon the wings. On this day, at Vauchamp and Etoges, the *army of Silesia* (so called) was saved by the gallantry of the Prussian soldiers, and by the heroism of their leaders—Blücher, Gneisenau, Kleist, and prince Augustus of Prussia. The French, notwithstanding their superiority in cavalry, were not able to break through the Prussian squares. Grouchy occupied Champ-Aubert and the road to Etoges with 6000 horse, for the purpose of cutting off Blücher's retreat; but it was in vain. Though encircled by the enemy, the Prussians and Russians repelled repeated attacks on their flanks, and retired in solid columns, fighting at every step, till they reached the wood of Etoges. Here, also, they were obliged to force their way through masses of the enemy's infantry, which had arrived before them; and their rear, being attacked at the same time by Grouchy's cavalry on the flank and by the infantry of Marmont in front, was principally dispersed and made prisoners. Blücher did not reach the position at Bergeres until night, after a loss of 4000 men and 9 cannon. On the 16th, he retired, though not pursued, to Chalons on the Marne, where he joined the divisions of Yorck and Sacken, and the columns of Langeron, that were hastening to his relief. The Silesian army had lost a fourth of its number—nearly 15,000 men—during the last six days, but now again amounted to 60,000 men. Meanwhile Witgenstein and Wrede had crossed the Seine, and were now in Napoleon's rear, while prince Schwarzenberg had forced back the French corps posted along the Seine, on the 11th from Sens, on the 12th from Nogent, on the 15th from Montereau, Provins and other places, so that, on the 16th, the head-quarters of the allied monarchs were advanced to Bray. This induced Napoleon to give up the pursuit of Blücher, at Etoges, on the 15th, and to advance, on the 16th, with his army, now increased to 100,000 men, by forced marches, from Montmirail to Meaux, in order to fall upon the separate divisions of the enemy's main army. Schwarzenberg, however, recommended the three divisions that were advancing *en echelon* on the right bank of the Seine, to cease from offensive movements. Witgenstein, nevertheless, proceeded on his march, and his vanguard, under Pahlen, was attacked by general Gérard, on the 17th, at Mormant and Nangis, and suffered a loss of several thousand men and 10 cannon. An action also took place on the 18th, at Montereau, on the left bank of the Seine, at the confluence of the Yonne, in which the allies were defeated, and would have suffered still more injury than they did, if it had not been for the gallantry of the crown-prince of Würtemberg. At the head of the fourth division, consisting of about 10,000 men and 38 field-pieces, he disputed the passage over the Seine against general Gérard, who had succeeded Victor, and against the emperor himself, who attacked him with a force of 30,000 men and 60 cannon, until the evening of the 18th. The prince then passed the bridge at Montereau, under the fire of the enemy, and retreated unmolested to the main body, with a loss of 2800 men, beside prisoners, and cannon which had become useless. Schwarzenberg was thus enabled to concentrate all his forces at Troyes on the 19th. Napoleon now flattered himself with the hope of being able to force him to a general battle at that place, where every thing promised the most decisive results. He also received the news of the victory of the viceroy of Italy over Bellegarde, on the Mincio, between the 8th and 10th of February,* and his confidence was so much increased, that he resumed the full powers which he had given to Caulaincourt to conclude a peace, and assumed a prouder tone at Châtillon, on the 18th, than he had hitherto done. Schwarzenberg, however, crossed the Seine at Troyes the same night, and, on the 21st, being again united with Blücher, took his position along the right bank of that river as far as Mory. This much-censured retreat, on the 19th, which was succeeded, on the 25th, by that over the Aube to Colombé, in the direction of Chaumont, because Augereau, from his position at Lyons, threatened the communication between the main army and Switzerland, saved the two armies of the allies, who, at that moment, saw almost every thing that had been gained since the battle at Brienne again lost. Schwarzenberg ordered Bianchi, with 30,000 men, to advance along the Saône against Augereau; at the same time, an armistice was offered to Napoleon

* The aide-de-camp of the viceroy arrived with the report of that victory at the moment of Napoleon's success at Montereau. Napoleon immediately sent him back with the words, "*Retournez auprès d'Eugène; racontez-lui comment j'ai arrangé ces gens-là!*" (Return to Eugene; tell him in what manner I have settled these people here!)

on the 19th, while his head-quarters were yet at Montereau; and a courier from Châtillon delivered to him the draught of preliminaries of peace, signed by all the plenipotentiaries of the allied powers at Châtillon, Feb. 17, 1814. From the circumstance that this convention was to be concluded between the powers of Austria, England, Russia and Prussia, and "his majesty the emperor of France, his heirs and successors," it appears that the English ministers at the congress did not think a particular article necessary, relative to the acknowledgment of Napoleon's title as emperor, but that they considered it as already acknowledged. The council of regency that had been established in Paris, to whom the draught was communicated by the emperor, thought the conditions proposed therein admissible; but a clause, demanding the occupation of Paris by the allies until the final conclusion of the peace, offended Napoleon, who rejected the offer, exclaiming, "I am nearer Vienna than the allies are to Paris;" yet, at the same time, he endeavored to enter into separate negotiations with Austria. Neither would he accept the renewed offer of an armistice, Feb. 23d, but, after the propositions delivered on the 25th by the prince of Liechtenstein, consented that the negotiations which had been opened in the village of Lusigny, between Flahaut and the Austrian general Duca, count Schuwaloff and the Prussian general Rauch, should be continued.* But his attempt to separate Austria from the allies proved abortive. The emperor Francis, indeed, seemed not averse to a reconciliation with Napoleon; but the baron Langenau, who was commissioned to carry his propositions, was accidentally detained on the way, and thus the favorable moment for Napoleon was lost. The four powers, by the convention of Chaumont (q. v.), concluded March 1, for the term of 20 years, soon after entered into an alliance against France, for the purpose of restoring and maintaining peace. According to this convention, they were determined to continue the war, if Napoleon would not accept the conditions offered him, and, if he accepted them, to enforce the terms with united forces. Thus the offensive and defensive alliance concluded at Chaumont became the diplomatic foundation of the present European policy.—Meanwhile, Napoleon followed the main army, constantly fighting, and, Feb. 25, occupied Troyes. Blücher, who had again separated himself from Schwarzenberg, crossed the Aube at Vaudemont, on the 24th, in order to pass the left flank of the enemy, where Marmont and Mortier retired before him, direct his course towards the Lower Marne, and thus approach the northern army, which was rapidly advancing from Flanders. The main army under Schwarzenberg, however, fell back upon the corps stationed at Langres, so that the Austrian army of 50,000 men, in the south of France, under the command of the prince of Hesse-Homburg, and the Silesian in the north, united with the divisions of Winzingerode and Woronzoff, that composed the advanced guard of the northern army under Bülow, formed the two wings of the main army. Napoleon could now throw himself, with his whole force, either upon Schwarzenberg, and oblige him to give battle, or upon Blücher. But how was the cautious, circumspect Schwarzenberg to be forced to fight? He therefore hastened after Blücher. But Tettenborn, whose light troops, belonging to the army that was advancing from Flanders, traversed the country on the left side of the Marne, discovered, Feb. 27, Napoleon's march from Arcis-sur-Aube through Fère-Champenoise and Sézanne, towards Jouarre. He communicated this news to Schwarzenberg and Blücher; the former of whom immediately stopped his retreat, repelled the divisions of the enemy under Macdonald, Oudinot and Gérard, forced his passage over the Aube, Feb. 27, while he assaulted Bar, but did not occupy Troyes, which is only 30 miles distant from Bar-sur-Aube, until March 4, the day after the engagement at Laubressel, when he resumed his former position on the Seine. Meanwhile Blücher, after having forced marshal Marmont back to within a few miles from Paris, endeavored to approach the northern army by passing over the Aisne, for the purpose of giving the main army more liberty of action. His movements, and his union with the northern army under Winzingerode and Bülow, were favored by the surrender of Soissons,* March 3. Bülow had entered France from Flanders, by Avesnes, caused La Fère, where there were large quantities

* At Soissons, which has a bridge of stone, and is the key to Paris, for an army entering France from the Netherlands, and is consequently a place of military importance, though fortified only by a wall and ditch, six causeys meet. Winzingerode had taken this city by assault, Feb. 14; but, after the action at Montmirail, it had been occupied again by Mortier, Feb. 19. General Moreau (not the marshal), who surrendered Soissons, March 3, was brought before a court-martial; but his life was saved by the events of the 31st of March.

of military stores and 100 cannon, to be taken by general Thümen, Feb. 26, then joined the division of Winzingerode, and advanced, March 2, from Laon towards Soissons. Blücher, with his army, now nearly 100,000 strong, took a position at Craonne, March 4th, and occupied Soissons, where general Rudczewitz, with 5000 Russians, repelled Mortier, who attempted to carry it by assault, March 5. Napoleon, therefore, was obliged to pass the Aisne above Soissons, which he did March 6, after having taken Rheims on the 5th, and made himself master of the bridge over the Aisne at Bery-au-Bac. On the 7th, he attacked generals Sacken and Woronzoff, on the heights of Craonne, and compelled the Russians, although not vanquished, to retreat into the position of Laon, with a loss of 4800 killed and wounded. The garrison of Soissons was also obliged to retire thither. The loss of the French amounted to 8000 killed and wounded. The battle at Laon, on the 9th of March, was more decisive. That city, which contains a population of 7000, was occupied by the allies, on account of its advantageous situation, as a depôt. Bülow had taken possession of the heights before Laon, Kleist and Yorck were posted on the left, and Winzingerode on the right wing. The left wing, which was most exposed, could be assisted by the corps of Sacken and Langeron. The approach being rendered difficult by morasses and defiles, Napoleon could not make a vigorous attack upon the left wing (a task which was assigned to Marmont) until afternoon, while his left wing was engaged with the enemy's right, from 8 o'clock in the morning, in a constant, yet indecisive action. The position of Blücher's centre defied every attack. Marmont, after a bloody struggle, succeeded, at length, in forcing the Prussian left wing back towards Laon, and, at the approach of night, made himself master of the village of Athies, where he remained, expecting the battle to be decided on the following day. But at seven o'clock in the evening, general Yorck, with Kleist, prince William of Prussia, and the cavalry under general Ziethen, surprised the village of Athies. While Ziethen, with the cavalry, fell upon the enemy's flank, he was so vigorously seconded by an attack with the bayonet in front, that the French, assaulted at the same time in the rear and on both wings, were driven out of the village after a short resistance, and totally routed. They lost 46 cannon and more than 2500 prisoners. The corps of Marmont, and the cavalry under Arrighi, were almost entirely dispersed or annihilated. In spite of this misfortune, Napoleon, instead of immediately making his retreat, with inconceivable obstinacy fell upon Blücher's right wing and centre, early on the morning of the 10th, but, in the evening, after having suffered a great loss, was compelled to meditate a retreat, which he effected on the 11th, through Chavignon and Soissons. Had Blücher taken immediate advantage of the victory obtained in the night of the 9th, Napoleon would have been totally defeated. But he followed him slowly, and remained upon the right bank of the Aisne until the 18th of March. Meanwhile, Rheims, which had but a feeble garrison, was taken by assault, on the 12th of March, by a Russian corps of 15,000 men under general count St. Priest, united with the division of the Prussian general Jagow, who had advanced from the Ardennes through Vitry. Napoleon, however, immediately retook that city, and thus secured his route toward the Aube, for an intended attack upon Schwarzenberg, who, as soon as he had received the news of Blücher's victory at Laon, had set his columns in motion on the 14th, along the right banks of the Seine and Aube, in the direction of Arcis. (See the third section of the *History of the Campaign of* 1814, under the article *Paris, Occupation of, in the year* 1814.)—While Napoleon indulged the hope of being able to annihilate the Silesian army on the Aisne, the negotiations at Lusigny were broken off, March 5, without having produced any result; and those at Châtillon were entirely at a stand, because Napoleon thought the demands of the allies too great. The allies finally fixed upon the 10th of March as the ultimate term, within which Napoleon should either accept of their propositions, or should submit to them his own. He presented, however, through Caulaincourt, only some detached articles, which could have had no effect but to prolong the negotiations. A further term of five days was therefore granted, at the expiration of which, on the 15th of March, and, consequently, after the battle at Laon, Caulaincourt offered his preliminaries, in which Napoleon demanded, 1. Italy, with Venice, as a kingdom for prince Eugène Beauharnais and his heirs; 2. the Netherlands, with the Scheldt and the city of Nimeguen. Holland he would resign. The left bank of the Rhine should continue in the hands of France. Joseph should receive a proper indemnification

for Spain, as well as Jerome for Westphalia, Eugene for Frankfort, and Napoleon's nephew Louis for the grand-duchy of Berg. Even Elisa, Talleyrand and Berthier were to receive proper indemnifications. But even these demands were not sincerely proposed by the emperor. He still entertained the hope that success would enable him to retract. The duke of Bassano wrote to Caulaincourt, March 19, immediately before the action at Arcis-sur-Aube (see *Paris, Occupation of*), stating that the emperor intended, even after the ratification of the treaty, to be guided by the military situation of affairs, even to the last moment. (See Schöll's *Traités de Paix*, &c.—Treaties of Peace—vol. 10, p. 413.)—Bassano's letter had not fallen into the hands of the allies, when, in compliance with the treaty of Chaumont, they broke off the negotiations at Châtillon, with the eighth conference, held March 18 and 19, and, in a declaration, issued at Vitry, March 25, consequently while they were marching upon Paris, proclaimed the reasons for that measure, and for the continuation of the war.* The subsequent course of the war is related in the article *Paris, Occupation of, in the year* 1814. See, also, *Memoirs of the Operations of the Allied Armies in* 1813 *and* 1814, London, Murray, 1822, an excellent and scientific work; Prokesch's *Denkwürdigkeiten aus dem Leben des Feldmarschalls Schwarzenberg* (Memoirs of the Life of the Field-Marshal Schwarzenberg), Vienna, 1823; Koch's *Mémoires pour servir à l'Histoire de la Campagne de* 1814 (Memoirs intended to contribute to the History of the Campaign of 1814), Paris, 1819, 2 vols.; and the *Beiträge zur Geschichte des Feldzugs in Frankreich in den Jahren* 1814 *und* 1815, *unter dem Commando des Kronprinzen v. Würtemberg*, &c. (Contributions to the History of the Campaign in France, in the Years 1814 and 1815, under the Command of the Crown-Prince of Würtemberg, published by the Würtemberg officers of the quarter-master-general's staff) Stuttgard; and the many memoirs of the Frenchmen at that time in the emperor's service. A valuable article, showing the anxious wish for peace entertained by all the French, particularly those who knew the disposition of the people, and surrounded the regent-empress and king Joseph, appeared in the *Courier des Etats-Unis* of Jan. 31, 1829 (published in New York), consisting of a number of letters written by king Joseph to Napoleon, and the answers of the latter. There is no doubt of the authenticity of these letters.

* Pons de l'Hérault, in his pamphlet *Congrès de Châtillon* (Paris, 1825), asserts, that Napoleon had been desirous, from the beginning of the congress, to obtain peace at any price, but that Caulaincourt, from too great anxiety, had protracted the negotiations contrary to his instructions; while the allies, on the other hand, had done the same, because they were secretly informed of a conspiracy existing in Paris against Napoleon. According to this writer, Napoleon had authorized Caulaincourt, on the 17th and 19th of March, to grant every thing necessary for a peace; but the bearer of these instructions, having been detained by the Austrian and Russian troops, did not reach Caulaincourt till the 21st, 10 miles from Châtillon. Caulaincourt, by the command of Napoleon, wrote to prince Metternich, as late as the 25th of March, that he was authorized, by the emperor, to conclude the peace; but the emperor of Austria had gone to Dijon, and the march upon Paris was already begun.

CHATTERTON, Thomas, a youth whose genius, eccentricity and melancholy fate have gained him much celebrity, was born at Bristol, in 1752, of poor parents. He had not yet learned to read, when an old French musical work happened to fall into his hands, the characters of which excited his curiosity. His mother now taught him to read from an old black-letter Bible. When 8 years old, he entered a charity school at Colston, where the workings of his genius lay concealed under the appearance of melancholy and incapacity. At about 10 years of age, he acquired a taste for reading, which became, from that period, a kind of ruling passion. His first work, a satire on a Methodist, who had abandoned his sect from interested motives, was written at the age of 11½ years. From this time his taste was decided. His melancholy gave way to vivacity and vanity, and dreams of glory, fortune and immortality. He became particularly fond of antiquities and antique expressions. At the age of 14, he left school, and was articled as apprentice to a scrivener, at Bristol. His father, who died before his birth, had accidentally obtained possession of a number of old parchments of the 15th century. Many of these were consumed in the family; but several fell into the hands of Chatterton, who, after a few days, declared that he had discovered a treasure. He then procured glossaries of the old dialects of the country, and, in 1768, when the new bridge at Bristol was completed, he inserted a paper in the Bristol Journal, entitled *A Description of the Friars' first Passing over the Old Bridge, taken from an ancient Manuscript.* He was then but 16 years old. Upon being questioned as to the manner in which he had obtained it, he finally asserted, that he was in the

possession of several valuable old manuscripts, taken (as those above-mentioned really were) from an old chest in the church. He had been engaged for a year in the composition of several poems, which he attributed to different ancient writers, particularly to one Rowley. In 1769, he ventured to write to Horace Walpole, giving him an account of his literary discoveries, and enclosing a specimen. Having received a polite answer, he wrote a second letter, informing Walpole of his situation, and requesting assistance to enable him to follow his inclination for poetry. Walpole, however, who in the meantime had discovered the poems to be spurious, returned them to Chatterton without taking any further notice of him. Discontented with his situation, he obtained a release from his apprenticeship by threatening to put an end to his life, and went to London. The favorable reception, with which he there met from the booksellers, inspired him with new hopes. He wrote for several journals, on the side of the opposition. He indulged the hope of effecting a revolution, and used to boast that he was destined to restore the rights of the nation. Failing to procure the rewards which he had expected for his exertions in favor of this party, he observed, that "he must be a poor author who could not write on both sides." On this principle he acted; but prosperity did not attend his dereliction from principle. His situation daily became worse. Although extremely temperate, and often voluntarily confining himself to bread and water, he was frequently destitute even of these necessaries. What he gained by his labors he spent, partly in presents for his mother and sisters, to whom he always held out the most splendid expectations, partly in public places of amusement, which he continued to visit under the appearance of easy circumstances. At last, after having been several days without food, he poisoned himself, in 1770, when not yet 18 years old. His works were more extensively read as the public became acquainted with the history of his misfortunes. The most remarkable are the poems published under the name of *Rowley*, which he composed at the age of 15 years. They display a vigorous and brilliant imagination, fertility of invention, and often a deep sensibility. Among the poems which he published under his own name, his satires deserve the preference. His prose writings are spirited. His works have been several times published. The best edition is that of 1803, in three volumes.

Chaucer, Geoffrey, born in London, in 1328, was the son of a merchant, or, according to some writers, of noble extraction. He studied at Cambridge and Oxford. At the former place, he distinguished himself, at the age of 18, by his Court of Love, the oldest poem in English now extant. Having improved himself by travelling, he studied law for some time; but, becoming disgusted with this study, he repaired to court, where he became yeoman to Edward III. He was in high favor with the king, and particularly with his son, John of Gaunt, the celebrated duke of Lancaster. He was the confidant of the prince's love to his cousin, the duchess Blanche, and made their love, their marriage, the charms and virtues of the duchess, the themes of his songs. The duchess, however, soon found a rival in lady Catharine Swynford, whose sister Chaucer married. This alliance established him more firmly in the favor of the duke, by whose influence he was appointed to the most honorable offices. He was sent ambassador to Genoa; on which occasion he visited Petrarch. He was also sent as envoy to Charles V of France, to negotiate the renewal of the truce, and a marriage between Richard, prince of Wales, and the king's daughter, in which mission, however, he was unsuccessful. As an adherent of the duke of Lancaster, he embraced the opinions of Wickliffe, and formed a close connexion with him; but neither business, nor the intrigues of the court, nor the theological controversies of the time, interrupted his poetical labors. His first poem was soon followed by Troilus and Cressida, the House of Fame, and other works, which were imitations of Boccaccio and other less celebrated authors. He seems particularly to have borrowed from the works of the Troubadours. These works bear the stamp of the corrupt taste, which, at that time, prevailed throughout Europe; but they are remarkable for correct delineation of character. He is considered as the inventor of English heroic verse. In 1382, the Wickliffites attempted, in spite of the opposition of the clergy, to elect a lord mayor of London of their own party. The disturbances, to which this dispute gave rise, occasioned a severe persecution of that sect on the part of the court, and Chaucer, who was hated by the people as the personal friend of Wickliffe, fled to Hainault, where he continued to receive his salary. The faithlessness of his

agents, who discontinued their remittances, having obliged him to make a secret journey to England, he was discovered, arrested, and deprived of his post of comptroller of the customs, the duties of which had been discharged, in his name, by his deputy. He finally obtained his liberty by disclosing the designs of the party with which he had been connected. This conduct drew upon him a load of obloquy, while, at the same time, he was suffering from poverty. During his distresses, he wrote his Testament of Love, a sort of imitation of Boëthius's *De Consolatione*, which he had translated in his youth. Chaucer's situation was once more changed with that of the duke of Lancaster, who, in the hope of ascending the Spanish throne, had entered into a second marriage with the daughter of Peter the Cruel; and though he had returned from Spain, in 1389, without having gained this object, yet he brought back considerable sums, which he employed in reviving his party at court. Four years later, on the death of his second wife, the duke married Catharine Swynford. Chaucer, now nearly connected with the royal family, regained the favor of the court, and was restored to his office. After the duke's death, he seems to have lived in retirement at Donnington castle, where the oak, in the shade of which it was said he loved to muse, long bore his name. There he wrote his most celebrated work, the Canterbury Tales, in verse. They are distinguished for variety of character and liveliness of description. Chaucer is the first writer who introduced the spirit and fictions of chivalry into poetry. His Sir Topaz, however, is written in ridicule of these fictions. He died in the year 1400. His works have been often printed.

Chauci; an ancient Teutonic tribe, dwelling east of the Frisians, between the Ems and Elbe, on the shore of the German ocean. They are also called, by different authors, *Cauchi*, *Cauci*, *Cayci*, *Chaci*. They are first mentioned in the wars of Drusus, who subjected them (*Dio Cass.* iv). Tacitus mentions them often.

Chaudet, Antoine Denis, deserves, perhaps, the first place among the French statuaries of modern times. Born at Paris, March 31, 1763, when the most corrupt taste in sculpture prevailed, he finished his career by works which display a degree of Grecian simplicity and truth which few modern artists have attained. In the 21st year of his age, he obtained the first prize of the academy. He then went to Rome, where he met the celebrated Drouais. (q. v.) They were soon united by the ties of the most intimate friendship, and an equal enthusiasm for art. After his return to Paris, he became a member of the academy. His first work was a bass-relief under the peristyle of the Pantheon, representing the love of glory. The bad taste of the period could not justly estimate the grand and simple character of this work: it was reserved for later times to appreciate the masterly and sublime performance. Travellers may find in the museums of Luxembourg and Trianon several of Chaudet's finest works; among them, *La Sensibilité*, a young girl, astonished at the motion of the sensitive plant, which shrinks from her touch; the beautiful statue of Cyparissa, &c. Chaudet died at Paris, April 19, 1810.

Chaudiere; a river of Lower Canada, which rises on the borders of Maine, near the sources of the Kennebec, and, after a northerly course of about 120 miles, flows into the St. Lawrence, 6 miles above Quebec. The banks of the river are generally high, steep and rocky, and clothed with wood of indifferent growth. Three or four miles above its entrance into the St. Lawrence, the river has a remarkable cataract, of about 120 feet perpendicular. These falls are considered not inferior to those of Montmorenci; the perpendicular height is only about half as great, but the quantity of water is vastly greater, the width of the river at the cataract being 360 feet. In some parts, sheets of water roll over the precipice, and fall, scarcely broken, to the bottom; while, in other places, the falling water dashes from one fragment of rock to another, with the wildest impetuosity, and forms a great mass of foam of a snowy whiteness.

Chaudon, Louis Maïeul, a learned Benedictine of the monastery of Cluny, which was secularized in 1787, born at Valensolles, May 10th, 1737, wrote several works in defence of the Catholics, for which he received the thanks of the popes Clement XIII and Pius VI, in two briefs directed to him. Among his works must be mentioned the *Nouveau Dictionnaire historique* (Avignon, 1766, in 4 vols.), of which 10 editions have appeared, the 9th of which, in 1820, is less correct than the former ones. The 10th appeared at Paris in 1822, in 25 vols. Besides this, he wrote several other valuable works. He must not be confounded with his brother Maïeul Chaudon, like himself a member of the academy of Arcadians in Rome, but belonging to the order of the Capuchins. The latter is the author of *La Vie du*

bienheureux Laurent des Brindes (last edition, Paris, 1787).

CHAUFFEPIÉ, Jacques George de, a Calvinistic preacher, born at Lewarden, in Friesland, in 1702, preached at Flushing, Delft, and, in 1743, at Amsterdam, where he died in 1786. Besides several theological works, and translations from the English, he wrote a *Nouveau Dictionnaire historique et critique, pour servir de Supplément ou de Continuation au Dictionnaire historique et critique de Bayle* (Amsterdam and Hague, 1750—56, 4 vols. fol.). This work is founded on an English translation of Bayle, in 10 vols., in which many additions had been made to the original. Of 1400 articles, which it contains, 600 are translated from the English without additions, about 280 are corrected and augmented, and the rest added by Chauffepié. He displays much learning, but, in genius and style, falls far below Bayle. Chauffepié also wrote the life of Pope.

CHAULIEU, Guillaume Amfrye de, the French Anacreon, born at Fontenai in 1639, early distinguished himself by his genius, and gained the esteem of the dukes of Vendôme, through whose influence he was appointed abbot of Aumale, and received, besides, several other benefices, so that his yearly income amounted to 30,000 livres. Pleasure was now the sole occupation of Chaulieu. He lived in the Temple, where many persons were assembled, who, like himself, united the love of pleasure with a taste for letters. In this society of Epicureans, though it was frequently visited by the grand prior of Vendôme himself, decorum and morality were not very rigorously observed; but the pleasures of the table were heightened by poetical sallies. Chaulieu, a disciple of Chapelle and Bachaumont, distinguished himself among the rest by the charms of his wit and the gayety of his disposition, and received the surname of the *Anacreon of the Temple*. Like Anacreon, he devoted himself to love and poetry to the last. In a letter to the marquis de Lafare, he describes himself as vain, impatient and impetuous, by turns active and indolent, fond of projects, and not less fond of repose. He died in his house in the Temple, in 1720, aged 81. La Harpe justly remarks, that his verses display the negligence of an indolent mind, but, at the same time, good taste, and are free from all affectation.

CHAUMONT (department of the Oise), TREATY OF, concluded March 1, 1814. The former coalitions of Russia, Prussia, Great Britain, Sweden, Austria, and most of the German princes, against Napoleon, in 1813, were principally directed to the deliverance of Germany, and the dissolution of the confederation of the Rhine. The principal object of the quadruple alliance concluded at Chaumont between Austria, Russia, Great Britain and Prussia, was declared to be to destroy the preponderance of France, and to restore permanent peace to Europe, founded on the balance of power, and national independence. In case this end should not be attained by the negotiations already opened with Napoleon at Châtillon (q. v.), the mutual obligations already existing between the allies to prosecute the war were to be confirmed. The four parties to the treaty of Chaumont agreed on their respective contributions for the accomplishment of their object, which, being punctually fulfilled, led to the peace of Paris, in 1814. This treaty was signed by prince Metternich, count Nesselrode, lord Castlereagh, and the Prussian chancellor of state von Hardenberg. The treaty of Chaumont forms an epoch in the history of Europe. It contains the diplomatic key to all the events which occupied the eyes of Europe in 1815. As it was, however, directed personally against Napoleon, and as France joined the allies at the congress of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1818, for the purpose of maintaining the peace of Europe, it has not been renewed.

CHAUNCY, Charles, D. D., minister in Boston, was the descendant of president Chauncy of Harvard university, a distinguished scholar and divine, who came to America on account of his religious opinions, in 1638. Doctor Chauncy was born in Boston, January 1, 1705, and, after being graduated at Harvard, in 1721, studied divinity, and was ordained pastor of the first church in Boston, in 1727. Doctor Chauncy was eminent for learning, independence, and attachment to the civil and religious liberty of his country. He was easily excited, and was plain and pointed in his invectives, but was greatly esteemed for his honesty, sincerity and piety. He died February 10, 1787, in the 83d year of his age. His productions are numerous, consisting of an extensive collection of sermons, a work entitled *A Complete View of Episcopacy*, of which he was a decided enemy, and several polemical publications.

CHAUSSÉE, Pierre Claude Nivelle de la; a dramatic writer, born at Paris in 1692. His first work was a critique on the fables of La Motte. When La Motte advanced

the paradox that verse is useless in the tragedy and ode, he was answered by Chaussée, in his *Epître à Clio*, which is still esteemed. His first dramatical work, *La Fausse Antipathie*, written after he had passed the age of 40, was received with approbation. The following circumstance gave rise to the new species of drama which he introduced. The actress Quinault, perceiving a good subject for an affecting drama in a farce, proposed it to Voltaire, who declined the attempt. She then applied to Chaussée, who, at her suggestion, wrote *Le Préjugé à la Mode*. Thus the sentimental comedy (*comédie larmoyante*) originated from the farce. Chaussée then attempted tragedy, and wrote the unsuccessful piece *Maximien*, a subject which had already been treated of by Th. Corneille. His *École des Mères*, and his *Gouvernante*, which followed, are still acted. He died in 1754. Voltaire says he is one of the first writers, after those of genius.

Chauveau-Lagarde; one of the most celebrated orators of the French bar, at the time of the revolution; born at Chartres in 1767. He defended, at the peril of his life, and with a rare eloquence, the victims of the revolutionary tribunal. With Deseze, the bold and eloquent defender of Louis XVI, and Tronçon-Ducoudray, who, with him, conducted the defence of Marie Antoinette, he will be remembered as one of those who continue faithful to honor and their duty, under all circumstances. Among the most celebrated of his unfortunate clients, besides the queen, were Charlotte Corday and Brissot. His defence of Miranda saved the latter from the scaffold. In 1814, he received letters of nobility from the king, and the cross of the legion of honor. In 1816, he published an account of the trial of the queen, and of that of the princess Elizabeth.

Chauvelin, François, marquis de; a distinguished member of the constitutional or left side in the chamber of deputies; descended from a celebrated French family, son of the marquis de Chauvelin, who was lieutenant-general, minister to Genoa and Parma, French ambassador to Turin, and equally distinguished among his contemporaries for his amiable character, and his highly-cultivated mind. His uncle, also, the abbé Chauvelin, was equally eminent for his patriotism, his courage and intelligence, which were rewarded by *lettres de cachet*, and several years of arbitrary imprisonment. The abbé took an important part in the expulsion of the Jesuits from France. François Chauvelin, born about 1770, and educated in the military academy at Paris, had been in the service but two years at the commencement of the revolution. He embraced its principles with all the ardor of early youth, and, in 1791, became first aide-de-camp of general, afterwards marshal, Rochambeau, who was sent to organize the army of the north. Chauvelin displayed such extraordinary talents, that he was appointed, in 1792, on the proposal of Dumouriez, ambassador to England, at that time a post of the very highest importance. After the execution of Louis XVI, England broke off all diplomatic intercourse with France, and Chauvelin was sent to Florence, but was compelled to leave this city by the threat of lord Hervey, the English ambassador, who declared to the duke, that, if Chauvelin did not depart within 24 hours, he would forthwith have Leghorn bombarded. During the reign of terror, Chauvelin was thrown into prison, from which he was released by the 9th of Thermidor. Under the directory, he devoted himself entirely to the sciences. After the 18th of Brumaire, he was appointed, by the senate, a member of the tribunate. With Benjamin Constant and several others, he distinguished himself by a firm but circumspect resistance to the encroachments of the consular power. Thus he opposed the establishment of the legion of honor. He was, therefore, removed from the tribunate. His character and patriotism were, however, appreciated by Napoleon, who appointed him prefect of the department of the Lys. This post he held with honor during a space of eight years, after the lapse of which, in 1811, he was called into the council of state, and afterwards sent into Catalonia as intendant-general. After the restoration, he was elected a member of the chamber of deputies by the department of the *Côte-d'Or*. From that period, he has continued to rise in the esteem of the nation, and has been repeatedly reëlected. Chauvelin is not surpassed by any orator in the chamber in brilliancy, ingenuity, rapidity of conception, presence of mind and liveliness of wit. In the *salon* he speaks like a Beaumarchais; from the tribune, like a Barnave or a Vergniaud. In examining the transactions of the chamber of deputies, we find him, in every debate, in the first ranks; and even his feeble state of health could not prevent his attendance during the important session of 1820.

Chaux de Fonds, la; the name of a

village in the district of Vallengen, in the Swiss canton of Neufchatel. The valley that bears this name is unfit for agriculture, but rich in cattle, and carries on much trade in cheese. It is remarkable, as is also the neighboring village of Locle, for its manufactures of watches and lace. La Chaux de Fonds has about 5800 inhabitants, among whom are upwards of 400 watch-makers, and 600 females that gain their living by making lace. About 40,000 gold and silver watches are annually made here, beside clocks. The village of Locle has about 5000 inhabitants. The village of Fleurier is the chief place for the trade in lace.

CHECK; a draft or bill on a banking house, to be paid, at sight, to the bearer. (See *Bill of Exchange*, vol. 2, page 104.)

CHEKE, sir John; an eminent English statesman and cultivator of classical literature in the 16th century. He was born at Cambridge in 1514, and received his education at St. John's college, in the university of that place. After having travelled on the continent, he returned to Cambridge, and was made regius professor of Greek, in which office he distinguished himself by introducing improvements in the pronunciation of that language. Bishop Gardiner, chancellor of the university, opposed these innovations, and a literary correspondence took place between the professor and the chancellor, which was, some time after, published at Basil, 8vo. In 1544, Cheke was appointed tutor to the prince of Wales, afterwards Edward VI, and he appears, likewise, to have assisted in the education of the princess Elizabeth. On the accession of Edward, he received a pension of 100 marks, was made provost of King's college, Cambridge, and obtained grants of considerable landed property. He soon after married, and, in 1547, retired from court to the university, in consequence of some disappointment, but was soon recalled, and remained a great favorite with the king to the end of his reign. In 1550, he was made gentleman of the king's bedchamber, the next year he was knighted, and, in 1553, he obtained the post of secretary of state. He was also a privy counsellor. The death of his royal patron occasioned a revolution in his fortunes. Cheke was a sincere Protestant, and was deeply involved in the measures adopted for the reformation of the church of England; and, having had the imprudence to engage in the scheme for raising lady Jane Grey to the crown, he was, on its failure, committed to the Tower. After a few months, however, he was set at liberty, and, having obtained from queen Mary permission to travel, he went into Italy, and thence to Strasburg, in Germany. His conduct while abroad gave offence to the Catholic zealots in England, who procured the confiscation of his estates, on the pretext of his having exceeded the leave of absence which had been granted him. He was then obliged to support himself by giving lectures on the Greek language. In 1556, having been induced to visit Brussels (probably through the contrivance of his enemies), he was there arrested, by order of Philip II, then sovereign of the Netherlands, and sent prisoner to England. Powerful means were adopted to convert him to popery. The fear of death prevailed over his constancy, and he was induced to make a public abjuration of his former faith. His estates were not restored, but he received an equivalent for them from the queen, and he was much caressed by the heads of the Catholic party, who, however, with cruel policy, obliged him to sit on the bench at the trials of the unfortunate Protestants. It is a circumstance honorable to his character, that he appears to have keenly felt his degraded situation. He died of grief not long after, in September, 1557. Sir John Cheke published several small treatises, original and translated, chiefly relating to theology. He was also the author of many works preserved in manuscript. Among these is an English translation of the gospel of St. Matthew, intended to exemplify his plan for the reformation of the English language, by banishing from it all words but such as are of Saxon origin.

CHELSEA HOSPITAL. (See *Hospital.*)

CHELTENHAM; a town of England, in Gloucester, on the Chelt; 94 miles N. W. London; lon. 2° 4′ W.; lat. 51° 54′ N.; population, 13,396. It is celebrated for its medicinal waters, and, within a few years, has become a place of public resort, and was honored with the residence of the royal family in the year 1788. About 4000 persons, during the summer, visit the waters, which are used as a laxative and restorative to invalids. It has a weekly market on Thursday. The water of these springs has no briskness or pungency, but is brackish, rather bitter, and chalybeate. Its temperature is uniformly from 52° to 53° Fahr. The first effects of drinking these waters are some drowsiness, and sometimes headache, which ceases, however, even previously to the bowels being opened. A moderate dose acts

promptly and decisively on the *primæ viæ*, without, however, producing any griping, or leaving languor or faintness after its operation.

CHEMICAL AFFINITY. (See *Chemistry*.)

CHEMISTRY. By this name, the etymology of which is uncertain, we understand the science which teaches the nature of bodies, or rather the mutual agencies of the elements of which they are composed, with a view to determine the nature, proportions and mode of combination of these elements in all bodies. *Natural philosophy*, or *physics*, examines the reciprocal influence of matter in masses. *Chemistry* treats of the mutual action of the integrant parts. In the former, the phenomena are produced by the general attraction or repulsion of bodies; in the latter, by minute combination or decomposition. With our present knowledge of matter and its laws, we cannot separate physics entirely from chemistry: one science cannot be studied without the other. Those artisans who first discovered the means of melting, combining and moulding the metals; those physicians who first extracted vegetable substances from plants, and observed their properties, were the first chemists. Instead, however, of observing a philosophical method in their examinations; instead of passing from what was known to what was unknown, early inquirers suffered themselves to be led astray by astrological dreams, the fables of the philosopher's stone, and a hundred other absurdities. (See *Alchemy*.) Until the year 1650, we find little worthy of notice in the history of chemistry. Rhazis, Roger Bacon, Arnaud de Villeneuve, Basilius Valentin, Paracelsus, Agricola, &c., observed some of the properties of iron, quicksilver, antimony, ammoniac, saltpetre. They discovered sulphuric, nitric and other acids; the mode of rectifying spirits, preparing opium, jalap, &c., and of purifying the alkalies. Glauber was distinguished for the accuracy of his observations. He endeavored to improve certain instruments; advised operators not to throw away any residuum, in performing experiments, as useless; discovered the salt which is called, from him, *Glauber's salt*, &c. Such isolated discoveries, however, could not form a complete science. Stahl appeared, and, although his theory was unsatisfactory and entirely gratuitous, and, as later observations have proved, erroneous, yet he laid the foundations of a regular science. He was himself much indebted to the celebrated Becher, whose views he corrected and extended. He was sensible that the greater part of chemical phenomena might depend on a general cause, or, at least, on a few general principles, to which all combinations must necessarily be referred. He supposed that bodies contained a combustible element, which inflammable bodies lost by being burned, and which they could regain from other more inflammable bodies. This element he called *phlogiston*. The establishing of a hypothesis, which connected almost all phenomena with each other, was an important step. Boerhaave adopted Stahl's system, and contributed much to its general diffusion. He is the founder of philosophical chemistry, which he enriched with numerous experiments, in regard to fire, the caloric of light, &c. Although the principles on which those philosophers proceeded were false, yet the science was much advanced by their labors. It was reserved for Black, Priestley, Cavendish and Lavoisier to overturn Stahl's system, and substitute the pneumatic or antiphlogistic chemistry, the best history of which is to be found in Fourcroy's *Philosophie Chimique*, and his *Système des Connaissances Chimiques*. As soon as the composition of the atmospheric air was known, it was observed that combustible bodies, burning in contact with it, instead of losing one of their elements, absorbed one of the component parts of the air, and were thus increased in weight. This component part has received the name of *oxygen*, because many of the combustible bodies are changed by its absorption into acids. Oxygen now took the place of phlogiston, and explained the difficulties which beset the phlogistic theory. Light and unity were introduced into chemistry by the new technical nomenclature adopted in 1787, by the aid of which all the individual facts are easily retained in the memory, since the name of each body is expressive either of its composition or of its characteristic property. 12 or 15 terms have been found sufficient for creating a methodical language, in which there is no inexpressive term, and which, by changing the final syllables of certain names, indicates the change which takes place in the composition of the bodies. Lavoisier, Fourcroy, Guyton de Morveau and Berthollet were the authors of this felicitous innovation. The chemical terminology admits of nothing arbitrary, and is adapted not only to express known phenomena, but also any which may be hereafter discovered. It is the first example of a systematic and analytic language.

The commencement of the 19th cen-

tury forms a brilliant era in the progress of chemistry. The galvanic apparatus of Volta presented to the experimenter an agent unequalled in the variety, extent and energy of its action upon common matter. With this apparatus, sir Humphrey Davy commenced a series of researches, which resulted in a greater modification of the science than it had ever before experienced. He proved that the fixed alkalies were compounds of oxygen with metallic bases, and thus led the way to the discovery of an analogous constitution in the alkaline earths. To the same individual the science is principally indebted for the establishment of the simple nature of chlorine, and for the investigation of iodine. His researches concerning the nature of flame, resulting as they did in the invention of the miner's safety-lamp, afforded to mankind a new demonstration of the utility of philosophy in contributing to the improvement of the arts of life.—But that department of chemistry, which has of late been most successfully investigated, relates to the definite proportions in which bodies unite to form the various chemical compounds. To establish the conclusions which have been arrived at, a multitude of exact analyses were requisite. These were accomplished principally through the labors of Vauquelin, Gay-Lussac, Thénard, Berzelius and Thompson; and have terminated in the establishment of the general truth, that, when bodies combine chemically and intimately with each other, they combine in determinate quantities; and that, when one body unites with another in more than one proportion, the ratio of the increase may be expressed by some simple multiple of the first proportion. Upon this general fact, doctor Wollaston constructed the logametric scale of chemical equivalents—an invention which has contributed, in an eminent degree, to render our knowledge of the constitution of compounds precise, by introducing the sure basis of arithmetical relations, which, when fixed with accuracy, are not susceptible of change. The doctrine of definite proportions may, therefore, be regarded as having communicated to the principles of chemistry that certainty which has long been considered as peculiar to the mathematical sciences; and it is in the developement of these important relations that the advancement of the science has been most conspicuous.—Among the still more recent improvements in chemistry may be cited the discovery of Döbereiner, relating to the power of platinum in effecting the combination of oxygen and hydrogen; the researches of Faraday, in which many of the gases have been reduced to the liquid form; the discovery of new compounds of carbon and hydrogen, and the singular fact, which they exhibit, of different combinations being established in the same proportions; the elucidation of the new compounds of chlorine with carbon; of the peroxide of chlorine; the hydriodide of carbon; the perchloric, iodous, fulminic, and other acids; the discovery of the real bases of silex and zircon, and that of the new principle, brome: add to these, that our knowledge of light and electricity has been greatly enlarged, and that the phenomena of electro-magnetism are altogether new, and it becomes strikingly obvious that chemistry is still a progressive science. "Nor can any limits be placed to the extent of its investigations. Its analysis is indefinite; its termination will have been attained only when the real elements of bodies shall have been detected, and all their modifications traced: but how remote this may be from its present state we cannot judge. Nor can we, from our present knowledge, form any just conception of the stages of discovery through which it has yet to pass."

Chemistry has two ways of becoming acquainted with the internal structure of bodies, *analysis* and *synthesis* (decomposition and combination). By the former, it separates the component parts of a compound body; by the latter, it combines the separated elements, so as to form anew the decomposed body, and to prove the correctness of the former process. These methods depend on a complete knowledge of the two powers, by which all bodies in nature are set in motion, viz., *attraction* and *repulsion*. Attempts have been made to distinguish the attraction of elementary particles from planetary attraction; the former being designated as *chemical affinity:* but nature has only one kind of attraction. The alternate play of attraction and repulsion produces a great number of sensible phenomena, and a multitude of combinations, which change the nature and the properties of bodies. The study of these phenomena, and the knowledge of these combinations, appertain to the department of chemistry. The history of a body must always precede its analysis. The mere examination of its form, its color, its weight, and the place where it was found, &c., is often sufficient, by a comparison, to lead to a knowledge of its chemical properties. There is no science more extensive than chemistry, nor is it possible for one person to embrace it in its

whole extent. To facilitate the study, it is considered in different points of view, and thrown into divisions and subdivisions, so that a person may devote himself to one department of it, although the method of observing, analyzing and combining is the same in all, and although all the phenomena must be explained by the general theory, and refer to certain laws, of which a previous knowledge is requisite. These laws constitute what is called *philosophical* chemistry, which explains what is meant by the affinity of aggregation or cohesion, and by the affinity of composition, or chemical affinity. It treats of the phenomena of solution, saturation, crystallization, ebullition, fusion, neutralization. Chemical processes, by changing or modifying the properties of bodies, suggest to the observer important considerations on the changes of form, density and temperature. Philosophical chemistry weighs these considerations. It shows, further, that affinity may be exerted, 1. between two simple bodies; 2. between a simple and a compound one; 3. between compound bodies; and, establishing the principle, that the same body has not the same affinity for all others, but attracts them unequally; it shows us the laws which determine this preference, and the circumstances which modify it; such as cohesion, mass, insolubility, elasticity and temperature. It measures the degree of affinity, whether of simple or compound bodies. It observes the circumstances which aid or obstruct the play of attraction, and shows that two bodies will not act upon each other, unless one of them, at least, is in a fluid state; that bodies, even in a state of solution, act upon each other only at imperceptible distances; that two bodies, which have no perceptible affinity, may be made to combine by the interposition of a third; and, finally, that the peculiar properties of bodies are destroyed by their combination, and the compound possesses entirely new properties. Proceeding from these principles to the examination of bodies themselves, philosophical chemistry considers the effects of light, heat and electricity; the nature of the simple and compound inflammable bodies; of air and water; the composition and decomposition of acids; the nature and properties of the salts; their relations to the acids; the calcination, solution and alloying of metals; the composition and nature of plants; the characteristics of the immediate elements of vegetable substances; the phenomena of animalization; the properties of animal compounds, and the decay of organic substances. This is the sphere of philosophical chemistry, while it confines itself to general views.—According to the application of these general views, chemistry is divided into seven or eight branches, which we have yet briefly to survey. The study of the great phenomena which are observed in the atmosphere, and which are called *meteors*, constitutes *meteorological* chemistry. This explains the formation of the clouds, rain, mist, snow, waterspouts; the state of the atmosphere in relation to the hygrometer, barometer and thermometer; the nature of the aurora borealis, meteoric stones; in short, all the chemical processes going on above the surface of the earth. *Geological* chemistry treats principally of the great combinations of nature, which produce volcanoes, veins of metals, beds of mineral coal, basalt, mineral waters, the enormous masses of salt and lime, the saltpetre in the bed of the Indus, the natron of the lakes of Egypt, the borax of the lakes of Thibet. The geological chemist endeavors to discover and explain the causes of deluges, earthquakes, the decrease of the waters on the globe, the influence of climate on the color of animals and plants, on the smell of flowers, and the taste of fruits. In these general views, he needs the aid of natural philosophy and physics. Chemistry, in its application to natural history, is divided in the same manner. There is a chemistry of the mineral kingdom, which comprises metallurgy and assaying, and the examination of all inorganic substances, as stones, salts, metals, bitumen, waters; a chemistry of the vegetable kingdom, which analyzes plants and their immediate products; and a chemistry of the animal kingdom, which studies all substances derived from living or dead animals. This last is subdivided into *physiological* chemistry, which considers the changes produced in animal substances by the operation of life; *pathological* chemistry, which traces the changes produced by disease or organic defects; *therapeutic* or *pharmaceutic* chemistry, which teaches the nature and preparation of medicines, shows the means of preserving them, and exposes the pretensions of empirics; *hygietic* chemistry, which acquaints us with the means of constructing and arranging our habitations, so as to render them healthy, of examining the air which we must breathe in them, guarding against contagious diseases, choosing wholesome food, discovering the influence of occupation, fashion and custom on the health. *Agricultural* chemistry

treats of the nature of plants and soils, and the laws of production. Sir Humphrey Davy first gave it the character of a science. It treats, 1. of the general powers of matter which have any influence on vegetation, of gravity, cohesion, chemical affinity, heat, light, electricity, the elements of matter, especially such as are found in vegetables, and the laws of their composition and arrangement; 2. of the organization of plants, their structure, the chemical composition of their organs, and the substances found in them, &c.; 3. of soils; 4. of the nature of manure.—Chemistry, finally, exerts an influence on the routine of domestic life, and on the arts. It simplifies and regulates the daily offices of the housekeeper; renders our dwellings healthy, warm, light; assists us in preparing clothing, food, drink, &c.: it teaches the best way of making bread; preparing and purifying oils; of constructing bakehouses, ovens and hearths; of bleaching and washing all kinds of stuff; of producing artificial cold, &c. The application of chemistry to the arts and manufactures is, however, still more important and extensive. Here its aim is to discover, improve, extend, perfect and simplify the processes by which the objects to be prepared may be adapted to our wants. We close our remarks with the observation, that a knowledge of chemistry may frequently be useful in judicial proceedings, in exposing crime; e. g., in cases of poisoning, counterfeiting coins and written documents, &c.

Chemical Classification and Nomenclature. The chemist finds a small number of bodies, from which only one kind of matter can be obtained, in the present state of his knowledge, and by the instruments and agents which he now has at his disposal. On the other hand, there is a large number of bodies, from which he obtains several kinds of matter. The former he calls *elements*, or *simple bodies;* the latter, *compound bodies*.. The number of simple bodies now known is 53: that of the compounds is much greater, and might, at first, appear to be infinite, since not only a difference of elements, but even a difference of the proportions in which they are combined, makes an essential difference in the properties of the compound. It is, however, much less than would be supposed, and even less than the number of possible combinations of simple bodies. Twelve of the simple bodies are oxygen, iodine, chlorine, bromine, fluorine, hydrogen, boron, carbon, phosphorus, sulphur, azote and selenium; and 41 are metals. (q. v.) The five first are called *supporters of combustion*, because they combine with the others, producing a disengagement of heat and light, and *acidifying principles*, because they are also capable of producing acids by a similar combination. The 48 others are called *simple combustibles*, because their union with the supporters of combustion, abovementioned, is a real combustion. Compound bodies, as has been observed, are not so numerous as might be supposed. They result, 1. from the combination of oxygen, or one of the other simple supporters of combustion, with one of the simple combustibles; such are the acids: 2. from that of a simple body combined with oxygen, with another similar compound; such are the salts: 3. from that of two, three, rarely four, simple combustibles with one another: 4. from that of oxygen with hydrogen and carbon, forming vegetable matter: 5. from that of oxygen with hydrogen, carbon and azote, forming animal matter. Combustibles combined with the simple supporters of combustion are sometimes called *burned bodies;* from the number of their elements, they are also called *binary compounds.* When their taste is acid, and they have the property of reddening vegetable blues, they are termed *acids.* If they are not acid to the taste, and have the property of turning blue what has been reddened by acids, they are distinguished by the termination *ide*, as *oxide*, *chloride*, &c. If only one of the latter class is formed, that is, if the supporter of combustion will unite with the combustible in only one proportion, we call this compound simply the *oxide*, *chloride*, &c., of the combustibles; as, *oxide of carbon.* If they unite in several proportions, we call the first, or that which contains the smallest proportion of oxygen, &c., *protoxide*, &c.; the second, *deutoxide;* the third, *tritoxide.* The highest is also called *peroxide.* So, if only one acid is formed, we designate it by the name of the combustible, with the termination *ic.* Thus carbon with oxygen forms *carbonic* acid. If several are formed, that which contains the larger proportion of the acidifying principle is designated by the termination *ic*, and that which contains less, by the termination *ous.* Thus sulphur forms *sulphuric* acid and *sulphurous* acid. If there are still intermediate compounds, we annex *hypo* (signifying *less*), to designate a lower degree of acidity. Thus we should have *sulphuric*, *hyposulphuric; sulphurous*, *hyposulphurous.* In the acids and oxides, chlorides, &c., the combustible is called the *base.* When

the base is the same, the peroxide, &c., always contains less oxygen, &c., than the lowest acid. For the names of compounds of two binary burnt bodies, no rules have been adopted to express the union of two oxides, two acids, or an acid with a non-metallic oxide. But those formed of acids and metallic oxides are called *salts*, and their individual names are formed by changing the termination of the acid and placing it before the name of the metal; the termination *ous* is changed into *ite*, and *ic* into *ate;* sulphurous acid with the oxide of tin would form *sulphite of tin;* sulphuric acid and tin, *sulphate of tin.* If the same acid combines with more than one oxide of the same metal, then we prefix the characteristic of the oxide to the name of the acid; thus sulphuric acid, combined with the protoxide of iron, forms the *protosulphate*, with the peroxide, the *persulphate*, of iron. Other substances have also the property of uniting with acids, neutralizing them, and forming compounds analogous to salts. There are no general rules for the names of these compounds; but the substances themselves are called *salifiable bases.* The rules of nomenclature, in regard to the combination of the combustibles, vary:—1. If the constituents are metals, they form *alloys.* 2. If the compounds are solid or liquid, and formed of a metallic and a non-metallic combustible, we give to the latter the termination *uret;* as, carbon with iron forms *carburet of iron.* If both are non-metallic, the termination *uret* may be attached to either; as, *phosphuret of sulphur*, or *sulphuret of phosphorus.* 3. If the compound is gaseous, we name the gas, or one of the gases, if it is composed of two, and join the other component as an adjective; as, *phosphureted hydrogen.*

Chemnitz, the principal manufacturing town in the kingdom of Saxony, in the department of the Erzgebirge, on the river Chemnitz, is well built, and contains 1000 houses, with 16,000 inhabitants, amongst whom are 1197 master-weavers, and 860 journeymen and apprentices. The principal manufactures are white and printed calicoes, ginghams, handkerchiefs, and various articles used for bed-quilts. Of 12 cotton factories, founded about the middle of the last century, several employ from 300 to 500 workmen. 40 spinning-mills, in the town and its environs, manufacture upwards of 1,000,000 pounds of yarn annually. The manufacture of cotton hose has been brought to very great perfection, and they are exported in large quantities to the U. States and South America, besides furnishing most of the European markets, through the fairs of Leipsic, Frankfort and Brunswick. Within a few years, they have even been sent to England, strange as this may sound. They are manufactured in the neighboring villages.

Chemnitz, Martin, a distinguished Protestant theologian of the 16th century, rose, by his extraordinary talents and profound knowledge, from low circumstances to a high degree of celebrity. He was born at Treuenbrietzen, in the Mark of Brandenburg, Nov. 9, 1522, of poor parents; received his education at Magdeburg and Frankfort on the Oder, and, in 1544, became a schoolmaster in Writzen on the Oder, to obtain the means of continuing his studies at Wittenberg. By the advice of Melancthon, he applied himself to mathematics and astrology. In 1550, he became librarian of duke Albert of Prussia. He then wrote his *Loci theologici* (edit. Polycarp. Leyser, Frankfort on the Maine, 1591, fol.), a valuable commentary on Melancthon's system of dogmatics. Being invited to Brunswick, as minister, he attacked the Jesuits in his *Theologiæ Jesuitarum præcipua Capita* (Leipsic, 1562), and, when the council of Trent thought itself assailed in this work, he wrote his *Examen Concilii Tridentini* (best edit. 1707, fol., Frankfort on the Maine), a work of great historical value. He adhered to Luther's doctrine concerning the eucharist, wrote on this subject, composed the *Corpus Doctrinæ prutenicæ* for the Lutherans, and gradually became so implicitly attached to the Lutheran doctrine, that his efforts in support of it contributed to check the progress of theological science. He died, April 8, 1586, at Brunswick. He was the author of a great number of works besides those already mentioned.—His grandson, Philip Bogislav von Chemnitz, born in 1605, a soldier in the Swedish service, wrote the celebrated work, *De Ratione Status in Imperio nostro Romano-Germanico*, &c. *auct. Hippolito a Lapide* (1640, 4to., and 1647, 12mo.), which did more injury to the interests of the emperor than the loss of many battles. He then became Swedish historiographer, and wrote a history of the Swedish and German war (1648 and 1653). He died at his estate near Hallstadt, in Sweden, in 1678.

Chénier, Marie Joseph de, born, Aug. 28, 1764, in Constantinople (where his father, Louis Chénier, known as the author of valuable works on the Moors,

Morocco and the Ottoman empire, was consul-general), went, when very young, to Paris, served as an officer of dragoons, left the service, and devoted himself to literary pursuits in Paris. After an interval of three years, he published his Charles IX, which may be considered as a monument of the taste prevailing in France at the beginning of the revolution, and is not without poetical merit. Chénier, by flattering the passions of the people, soon gained great popularity. His *Henri VIII*, *La Mort de Calas*, and *Caius Gracchus*, were received with great applause. He was chosen a member of the convention, where, for a considerable time, he belonged to the party of the most violent democrats. This spirit appears even in his *Fenelon* and *Timoleon*, published in 1793 and 1794. In the last years of his life, he was engaged in preparing a history of French literature. His discourses at the Athenæum, in Paris, in 1806 and 1807, contain the history of the French language, and of the different departments of poetry and prose, down to the times of Francis I. In an introduction, published in 1806, he explained the plan of the work, together with the principal results of his researches. (See his *Fragmens du Cours de Littérature, fait à l'Athénée en* 1806 *et* 1807, &c., Paris, 1808.) Chénier also treated of the characteristic features of the principal works in French literature, from 1788 to 1808, in his *Tableau historique de l'État et des Progrès de la Littérature Française depuis* 1789. In his last piece on the decennial prizes, he maintained that the prize promised for the best didactic work was due to one of his former enemies. His criticism on La Harpe's *Lycée* is the most correct and impartial view which has been given of that work. He died Jan. 11, 1811.

CHEQUERS. (See *Draughts.*)

CHERBURG, or CHERBOURG; a seaport of France, on the Channel, in the department of *La Manche* (the Channel); 16 leagues N. St. Lo, 34 W. N. W. Paris; lon. 1° 37′ 3″ W.; lat. 49° 38′ 30″ N; population, 15,600. It has a commercial court, an exchange, a school of navigation and a learned society. It is situated at the bottom of a large bay, between cape Barfleur and cape La Hogue. The building of small vessels and the manufacture of woollen stuffs form the principal employment of the inhabitants. This port has always been considered, by the French, as an object of great importance in the navigation of the English channel, and immense sums have been expended in the erection of piers, deepening and enlarging the harbor, and erecting fortifications. After the peace of 1783, the French government determined to make Cherburg a great naval depôt, and in different attempts, before 1808, expended more than £2,000,000 in constructing a vast bulwark to break the water, rendering the road a safe anchorage. Afterwards, under Napoleon, a basin was formed, 1000 feet long and 770 wide, occupying 18 acres, having a depth of 50 feet, and capable of containing 50 sail of the line. In addition to this, a wet dock has been constructed of equal dimensions. The cost of the basin and dock was nearly £5,000,000, without the expense of improving the roads. The mud, however, already begins to accumulate in the basin. The current, if the tide sets in, is so strong, that sometimes 10 or 12 cables are necessary to hold a vessel. Napoleon's views respecting Cherburg, as given in count Las Cases' Journal, are very interesting.

CHERIBON; a principality of Java, on the N. coast; lat. 6° 46′ S.; lon. 108° 35′ E. It is divided into 9 districts, and contains about 90,000 inhabitants, besides strangers. This country is divided between two princes, both of whom are feudatories of the Dutch East India company. The productions are coffee, timber, cotton yarn, areca, indigo, sugar, and also a little pepper: this last article formerly grew here in such abundance, that, in the year 1680, the bhar, of 375 pounds, was paid for at the rate of no more than 10 Spanish dollars. The rhinoceros is seen on the hills and in the forests in this district. The horses are small and well made, but vicious.

Cheribon, Sheribon, or *Tcheribon;* a town in Java, capital of the principality of the same name, 170 miles E. Batavia. It is situated at the bottom of a deep bay, and was formerly a station of some importance. 25,000 inhabitants.

Cheribon Reef; a reef in the East Indian sea, near the north coast of Java; lat. 6° 9′ S.; lon. 108° 34′ E.

CHEROKEES, or TSULLAKEES, the more proper name. (See *Indians.*) The name *Cherokee* is now perfectly settled (it is used, in fact, by the Indians themselves); but the condition of this tribe is of so interesting a character, that we have thought proper to defer our account of them to a place where we may be able to give the reader something more satisfactory than would now be in our power, particularly in respect to the subject of their political relations to the U. States and the state of Georgia,

which have already occasioned much discussion, and are likely to remain some time longer in controversy.

CHERONEA. (See *Chæronea.*)

CHERRY. The cherry is a fruit of the prune or plum tribe, the original stock of which is the wild cherry. (*prunus cerasus*). The gradual effect of cultivation on the cherry has been the production of several kinds, which, both in size and flavor, greatly exceed the fruit of the parent stock. The kinds that are best known are the May-duke, white-heart and black-heart cherries.—The trees are propagated by grafting them usually upon the stocks of wild black and red cherry-trees, which are reared for that purpose. This agreeable fruit is eaten fresh or dried. It is sometimes preserved with sugar as a sweet-meat, made into jam, used in the preparation of the liquor called *cherry-brandy*, and made into wine. From wild black cherries the Swiss distil an ardent spirit, by the sale of which to the French and Germans, they derive considerable profit.—The wood of the cherry-tree, which is hard and tough, is much used, particularly by turners and cabinet-makers, in many places, for the manufacture of chairs and other furniture. The gum that exudes from the bark is, in many respects, equal to gum arabic, and is considered very nutritive. Hasselquist informs us that, during a siege, more than 100 men were kept alive for nearly two months, without any other sustenance than a little of this gum, which they occasionally took into their mouths, and suffered gradually to dissolve.

CHERRY-LAUREL. The cherry-laurel (*prunus lauro-cerasus*) is remarkable only as producing the celebrated laurel-water. This is a most powerful poison, the strength of which (like that of peach-kernels, bitter almonds, cherry-leaves, &c.) depends upon the presence of prussic acid, now so well known. Laurel-water is obtained from the leaves and flowers, or the leaves only, of this plant, by distillation, and was formerly much used, and much dreaded, as a poison. Of late years, it has gone out of use. The German *kirschwasser* is a strong spirit, possessing the same properties, in a less degree, as do *noyau*, and other similar cordials, which should all be used with great caution.

CHERSON, capital of the Russian government of Cherson, on the Dnieper, about 60 miles from its mouth, formerly the chief naval station on the Black sea, founded in 1778, is well fortified, and contains about 2000 houses, partly of stone, with 20,000 inhabitants. The city consists of four parts:—1. the fortress, with a church, a mint, an arsenal and a cannon-foundery; 2. the naval office, with extensive naval magazines and dock-yards; 3. the Grecian suburb, with a large warehouse; and, 4. the suburb for soldiers. The naval office has been transferred to Nikolajev (at the confluence of the Ingul with the Bug), founded in 1789, the situation of which is more convenient and healthy. The harbor is annually entered by 400 Greek boats, besides several Austrian and French vessels. Wherever large rivers have but a slight descent towards their mouths, a great quantity of mud accumulates, which renders the bed gradually shallower, and, finally, rises above the surface of the water, forming morasses and islands, which leave a narrower bed for the stream. Such an accumulation takes place more rapidly, if two rivers of considerable size, like the Dnieper and Bug, empty into the same bay. A deep bed should, therefore, be dug and embanked for the united rivers, which will be kept free by the action of the current, at least for some time. This was overlooked by Potemkin, when he formed the plan of this city; and large vessels are, therefore, obliged to discharge part of their cargoes in the harbor of Oczakow, which has 17 feet of water; and those which are outward bound complete their cargoes there. In 1823, however, the bed of the Ingul, which discharges its waters into the Black sea, was deepened to 18½ feet, so that, in 1826, a ship of 110 guns could be launched at Nikolajev. The province of Cherson or Nikolajev (containing 25,500 square miles, and 371,000 inhabitants) is a dry heath, rising gradually towards the south, containing rich meadows here and there, and, along the rivers, about 18 limens, or marshy lakes. The soil along the shores is every where impregnated with iron, and produces salt plants in abundance. It is, therefore, suitable for raising sheep. The climate, in summer, is hot; in winter, cold. The mulberry-tree, which loves a soil impregnated with salt, thrives here luxuriantly; but the inhabitants do not turn it to advantage by the cultivation of silk-worms: agriculture is yet in its infancy here. In 1787, the emperor Joseph and the empress Catharine II met at Cherson, and, amid the splendid festivities of that occasion, formed an alliance against the Porte. The tomb of Potemkin is in the city, and that of Howard a few miles from it. The cities of Odessa and Oczakow,

and the ruins of Olbia, at the mouth of the Bug, are in the government of Cherson.

CHERSONESUS (*Greek;* a peninsula). This name has been given to several peninsulas; as, 1. the Cimbrian chersonesus (*chersonesus Cimbrica*), now *Jutland*, &c. (see *Cimbri*); 2. the Taurian chersonesus (*ch. Taurica*, also called *Magna*), the peninsula formed by the Black sea and the sea of Azof—the Crimea; 3. the Thracian chersonesus (*ch. Thracica*, or merely *Chersonesus*), the great peninsula in Thrace, now the peninsula of the Dardanelles.

CHERUB, in the Scriptures; an angel of the second choir of the first hierarchy. *Cherubim* is the Hebrew plural of *cherub*, as *seraphim* is of *seraph*. The former signifies, *as children;* the latter, *as flames of fire*. The church has assigned to them their rank in the heavenly hosts. Painters and sculptors commonly represent the cherubim by a child's head, between wings. Raphael's paintings are beautifully adorned with these lovely creations of fancy.

CHERUBINI, Luigi, born at Florence, in 1760, a disciple of Sarti, at the age of 18 composed an opera, *Adriano in Siria*, at Leghorn, which was, however, too learned for the connoisseurs of that city. He was better understood at Mantua and Turin. At the former place, in 1784, his second opera, *Alessandro nell' Indie*, and, at the latter, in 1788, his *Ifigenia in Aulide*, were received with universal applause. He was then invited to Paris, where he attracted attention by his operas *Demophoon*, *Lodoiska*, *Medea*, &c. But the triumph of his genius was the celebrated opera *Les deux Journées*, which is a masterpiece of musical composition. The merits of Cherubini are enhanced by his singular modesty, in which he resembles the great Mozart, whose sublime genius he reveres. He is one of the five superintendents of the *conservatoire* in Paris. In 1805, he was invited to Vienna, to compose an opera for the imperial theatre. There he produced his *Faniska*, which was represented with the greatest applause in 1806, and displays great depth of feeling and power of awakening emotion. He has composed much since his return to Paris. In 1821 appeared his *Blanche de Provence ou la Cour des Fées*, in three acts, in which he was assisted by Berton, Boïeldieu, Kreutzer and Paër.

CHERUSCI; the most celebrated German tribe among the Istævones. They inhabited both sides of the Hartz mountains, between the south-western part of the Thuringian forest, where the Catti were their neighbors, and the Saale. Drusus, on his retreat from the Saale to the Rhine, passed through the southern part of their country. But, in advancing from the territory of Paderborn, over the Weser, towards the Elbe, he took his course through the northern part. Here the Aller seems to have been their northern and eastern boundary. They also possessed some territory on the west bank of the Weser. Their national league comprised all the tribes between the Weser, the Rhine and the Lippe—the Cattuarii, Ansibarii, Dulgumnii, Marsi, Chamaveri, &c. The Romans first became acquainted with the Cherusci in the year 10 B. C., when Drusus forced his way as far as the Weser, but, for want of provisions, was obliged to return. In the following year, he advanced from the Weser towards the Elbe, on the north side of the Hercynian forest, through the midst of the Cherusci. At that time, they were not very formidable. In the year 7 B. C., they even entered into an alliance with the Romans, and served in their armies. But when Varus attempted to make them tributary to Rome, and subject them to the Roman laws, they revolted. Varus, being decoyed by them into the forest of Teutoburg, in the year 9 A. D., was destroyed, with his whole army, in a battle which lasted three days. (See *Arminius* and *Germania*.)—Upon this, the Cherusci became the chief object of the attacks of the Romans. Germanicus (q. v.), victorious over the Marsi and Catti, marched against the Cherusci, whose leaders, Segestus and Arminius (the latter of whom had carried off the daughter of the former), were at war with each other. Segestus, pressed by Arminius, called Germanicus to his aid, who delivered him, indeed, from his danger, but was obliged to return, after several campaigns, without having obtained any permanent advantages. By their last successes, the Cherusci had become very powerful. Their alliance with the Lombards and Semnones, who had renounced the Marcomannic confederacy, and the victory of Arminius over the Marcomanni under Maroboduus, raised the Cherusci to the first rank among the German nations. But, after the assassination of Arminius (21 A. D.), new disturbances broke out among them. They committed the supreme command to Italicus, the last survivor of the family of Arminius, but soon after expelled him. The Lombards restored him to his rights and dignity, after a long and destructive war with the Cherusci, who,

abandoned by their allies, were now confined to the territory between the Saale and the south side of the Hercynian forest. In the third century, they, with their former allies, were swallowed up in the great Frankish confederacy, and no longer appear as a distinct people.

Chesapeake Bay; a spacious bay of North America, in the states of Virginia and Maryland. Its entrance is between cape Charles and cape Henry, 16 miles wide; and it extends 190 miles to the northward, through the states of Virginia and Maryland, dividing them into two parts, called the *eastern* and *western shores*. It is from 7 to 20 miles broad, and generally as much as 9 fathoms deep; affording many commodious harbors, and a safe and easy navigation. It receives the waters of the Susquehanna, Potomac, Rappahannoc, York and James rivers, which are all large and navigable.

Cheselden, William; a celebrated English surgeon and anatomist. He was born in Leicestershire, in 1688, and, after a common school education and some medical instruction in the country, he went to London to prosecute his studies. At the age of 22, he began to give lectures on anatomy, and, in 1711, he was chosen F. R. S. In 1713, he published a treatise on the Anatomy of the Human Body, 8vo., long esteemed a favorite manual of the science. He continued to read his lectures for more than 20 years, during which he gradually rose to the head of his profession. In 1723, he published a Treatise on the High Operation for the Stone. Cheselden, who was a very dexterous and successful operator, afterwards added to his reputation by practising what is termed the *lateral* method of operating for the stone, since generally adopted. A peculiar operation, which he performed on a youth of 14, who had been blind from his birth, and who obtained his sight by means of it, attracted much notice; and, in 1728, he published an account of it in the Philosophical Transactions. In 1733 was published his Osteography, or Anatomy of the Bones, folio, consisting of plates and short explanations, a splendid and accurate work. Cheselden obtained, in 1737, the appointment of chief surgeon to Chelsea hospital. This situation he held till his death, which took place at Bath, April 10, 1752, in consequence of a fit of apoplexy. Besides the productions already mentioned, he published a translation from the French of Le Dran's Surgery, and several anatomical and surgical papers in the Philosophical Transactions. The private character of Cheselden was generally respectable; but he was not exempt from faults and foibles. Among these was a predilection for pugilism, and a degree of vanity which rendered him more ambitious of being thought a skilful architect or coachmaker than a good anatomist. He was, however, humane and liberal, and was much esteemed by Pope and other literary men with whom he was acquainted.

Chess; the most celebrated and general of all sedentary games. One of the greatest charms of chess lies, no doubt, in the circumstance, that, whilst man is everywhere surrounded by chance; in this game, as generally played, he has entirely excluded it, except that it must be decided by chance which of the two players shall begin. The game affords so much variety, so much scope for calculation, so many opportunities to exhibit foresight and penetration, that it has been held in great esteem by all nations acquainted with it, and all persons who have conquered the difficulties of learning it. The Mohammedans except chess from the law against gambling. Whilst this game affords enjoyment worthy of mature minds, it is an excellent exercise for the young, as it teaches patience and circumspection, strengthens the judgment, and encourages perseverance in a plan affording a prospect of eventual success, though, at the moment, the situation of things may appear very critical. The Chinese pretend to have known it 200 years previous to our era. It was brought, in the sixth century, from India to Persia, whence it was spread by the Arabians and the crusaders all over the civilized world. It is most commonly played in Asia. In fact, its whole composition and its name prove its Asiatic origin. In Sanscrit, it is called *schthrantsh*, a word which is believed to indicate the most important component parts of an ancient Eastern army—elephants, infantry, sithed wagons, and horses. But this name was supplanted by the Persian term *shah* (king), which the game has retained, more or less corrupted, in all languages. Generally, chess is played by two persons upon a board, the same as that used in draughts or chequers, containing 64 squares. The board must be so placed, that each player has a white square at his right hand. The squares are named from the pieces, viz.; that on which the king is placed is called the *king's square;* that on which the king's pawn is placed, the *king's second square;* that before the pawn, the *king's*

third square; the next, the *king's fourth;* and so on with all the pieces of each side. Each player has eight pieces and eight pawns. In placing the pieces, the ancient rule is to be followed—*servat regina colorem* (the queen maintains the color)—that is, the black queen is to be placed on the black square, in the middle of the line next to the player; in a similar way, the white queen on the white field. On the side of the king and the queen stand the bishops; then follow the two knights; and last, the rooks or castles. The object of the game is, to bring the adversary's king into such a situation that he cannot move, which is called *checkmating*. The king can never be taken. The play ends with a checkmate. (It is related of doctor Franklin, that once, playing chess in Paris, and being checkmated, he said, "Take the king; I am a republican, and don't care for him.") It is not uninteresting to consider the different names which the pieces have received in various countries. In the East, the queen is called by the more proper name of *vizier*, or *general*. The bishops are called, in Germany, *runners;* and in France, *fools* (*fous*). These were, originally, elephants, with giants on them. The knights are called, in German, *leapers*. The castles were, originally, *war-chariots*, which is also indicated by the word *rook*, from the Indian *roch*, or *roth*. With the old Germans, the pawns, now called *peasants*, were styled *Wenden* (Vandals), a tribe despised by the Germans. Don John of Austria had a room, the floor of which was made like a chess board. On this he played with living persons. The peasants of a German village, Ströpke, or Ströbeck, near Halberstadt, for about 300 years, have been distinguished as chess-players. The reason for this is doubtful. The most probable opinion is, that a certain bishop, who lived among them, made them acquainted with this game, and freed them from several taxes, on condition that they would continue to practise it. Numerous anecdotes show how much the game of chess can absorb the mind. The elector of Saxony, John Frederic, was taken prisoner in the battle at Mühlberg, by the emperor Charles V, and was playing at chess with his fellow-prisoner, Ernest of Brunswick, when it was intimated to him that the emperor had sentenced him to death. He paused for a moment, to remark on the irregularity of the proceeding, and immediately resumed the game, which he won, and expressed, in a lively manner, the pleasure which he derived from his victory. Charles XII of Sweden played at chess when he was so closely besieged in the house near Bender, by the Turks. Al Amin, caliph of Bagdad, would not be disturbed in chess-playing when his city was carried by assault. Frederic the Great loved chess much. Napoleon did not play it particularly well. Among the most famous players and writers on the game are, a duke of Brunswick, named *Augustus*, who, in the 17th century, published, under the name of *Selenus*, an Introduction to the game (1616, 4to.), now very rare; Philidor, a Frenchman, who was particularly distinguished in London, in 1780—90; Gioacchino Greco, celebrated in the beginning of the 17th century; and the Arabian Philip Stamma in Paris, 1737. Caxton's "Game and Playe of the Chesse," printed in 1474, is generally admitted to be the first typographical work executed in England. *Anastasia*, a German novel by Heynse, contains many ingenious ideas on chess-playing, and several fine games. Some very curious manuscripts, relating to this game, in the Chinese, Sanscrit, Persian and Arabic languages, have been partially translated; and the presses of Europe have teemed with similar productions, the most noted of which are enumerated by Mr. Lewis, in the preface to his edition of Saratt on Chess, 1822.—*Laws of the game.* 1. If the board, or pieces, be improperly placed, the mistake cannot be rectified after four moves on each side are played. 2. When a player has touched a piece, he must move it, unless it was only to replace it; when he must say, *J'adoube*, or *I replace.* 3. When a player has quitted a piece, he cannot recall the move. 4. If a player touch one of his adversary's pieces without saying *J'adoube*, he may be compelled to take it, or, if it cannot be taken, to move his king. 5. When a pawn is moved two steps, it may be taken by any adversary's pawn, which it passes, and the capturing pawn must be placed in that square over which the other leaps. 6. The king cannot castle if he has before moved, if he is in *check*, if in castling he passes a check, or if the rook has moved. 7. Whenever a player *checks* his adversary's king, he must say *Check*, otherwise the adversary need not notice the check. If the player should, on the next move, attack the queen, or any other piece, and then say *Check*, his adversary may replace his last move, and defend his king. 8. When a pawn reaches the first row of the adversary's side, it may be made a queen, or any other piece the player chooses. 9. If a

false move is made, and is not discovered until the next move is completed, it cannot be recalled. 10. The king cannot be moved into check, nor within one square of the adverse king, nor can any player move a piece or pawn that leaves his king in check.

Chess Clubs; societies for the purpose of playing chess, and assembling the best players of a place. They flourish most in France and England, but there are many in Germany. They often challenge each other, and the game is carried on by letter.

Chest (called, in anatomical language, the *thorax*) is the cavity of the body between the neck and the belly. The external parts of the thorax are the skin, the breasts, various muscles, and the bones which form the frame of the cavity. These are the sternum, running from the neck down the middle of the breast, and the ribs, which are inserted in the spine, and arched towards the sternum, with which they are firmly connected by means of a cartilage. The parts within the cavity of the thorax are the pleura and its productions, the lungs, heart, thymus gland, œsophagus, thoracic duct, arch of the aorta, part of the vena cava, the vena azygos, the eighth pair of nerves, and part of the great intercostal nerve.

Chester (anciently *Deva*); a city of England, capital of Cheshire, on the Dee, about 20 miles from the Irish sea, 145 N. Bristol, 181 N. W. London; lon. 2° 53′ W.; lat. 53° 11′ N.; population, 19,949. It is a bishop's see. The city is square, and surrounded by a wall nearly two miles in circumference. It contains a cathedral, nine parish churches, a Roman Catholic chapel, and eight places of worship for dissenters of different persuasions. The streets are hollowed out of a rock to the depth of one story beneath the level of the ground on each side; and the houses have a sort of covered portico running on from house to house, and from street to street, level with the ground behind, but one story above the street in front. The castle is a noble structure; the walls are evidently Norman. It has two yearly fairs, the most considerable in the north of England, held on the 5th of July and 10th of Oct., each lasting 14 days. The manufactures are not extensive; they consist chiefly of tobacco, snuff, shot, white lead, iron, tobacco pipes and leather. It sends two members to parliament.

Chesterfield (Philip Dormer Stanhope), earl of, a statesman, orator and author, born in London, in 1694, studied with great success at Cambridge. In 1714, he made a tour through Europe, and acquired, particularly at Paris, that polished grace of manners for which he was distinguished. On the accession of George I, general Stanhope, his great uncle, procured him the place of gentleman of the bed-chamber to the prince of Wales; and the borough of St. Germain's, in Cornwall, elected him to parliament, though he had not yet attained the legal age. At the close of the first month of his membership, he delivered a speech, in which he astonished the audience by the vigor of his thoughts no less than by the elegance of his style, and the facility and grace of his delivery. He distinguished himself equally in the house of lords, in which he took his seat after his father's death. In 1728, he was appointed ambassador to Holland, and succeeded in delivering Hanover from the calamities of a war, by which it was threatened. On his return, he was made knight of the garter and lord steward of the household to George II. He was afterwards appointed lord-lieutenant of Ireland, and, on his return, in 1746, received the place of secretary of state; but he soon retired from public affairs, and devoted the remainder of his life to study and the society of his friends. His talents as an author are displayed in several moral, critical and humorous essays, in his parliamentary speeches, which were printed at a later period, and particularly in a collection of letters to his son, which are celebrated throughout Europe. To the charms of wit and grace he united good sense, a thorough knowledge of the manners, customs and the political condition of Europe, extensive information, a noble and unaffected elegance, and a style that would do honor to the most experienced writer. All this, however, cannot excuse the corrupt moral tone of his letters. One is shocked to hear a father recommending to his son grace of manners as the most essential quality for a man of the world, and even instigating him to licentious irregularities. It must be mentioned, however, in his excuse, that the young man to whom these letters were addressed (a natural son, whom he had adopted under the name of *Stanhope*), was remarkable for the awkwardness of his manners, and that his father, who set so high a value on elegance, hoped to inspire him with the same taste, by setting the subject in its strongest light. His efforts, however, were not successful. Towards the close of his life, Chesterfield became deaf, and suffered from other

bodily infirmities, which cast a gloom over his last days. He was intimate with Pope, Swift, Bolingbroke, and other distinguished scholars, and an acquaintance of doctor Johnson, who called him a wit among lords, and a lord among wits, and said of his letters, that they taught the morals of a prostitute and the manners of a dancing-master. He died in 1773, at the age of 79.

CHESTNUT. The sweet chestnut (*fagus castanea*) is a stately tree, and is distinguished by having spear-shaped and pointed leaves, with tapering serratures at the edge. The flowers appear in long, hanging spikes, or clusters, about the month of May; and the fruit, which is ripe in September, is enveloped in a husk defended by a great number of complicated prickles. Notwithstanding the known durability of the oak, there does not appear any well authenticated instance of the age of an oak being equal to that of the celebrated chestnut-tree at Tortworth, in Gloucestershire, which was known as a boundary mark in the reign of king John. This tree is supposed to have been then more than 500 years old, making its age at this time above 1100 years. The diameter of its trunk is 15 feet, and it still continues to bear fruit. Few forest trees are more beautiful than the chestnut. It is true that the generality of painters prefer the oak for its picturesque form; yet, in the landscapes of Salvator Rosa, and other celebrated masters, chestnut-trees are very conspicuous. The timber of this tree was formerly much in use. It is frequently used for the beams and rafters of houses, and its appearance so nearly resembles that of the oak, that it requires the eye of a good judge to distinguish them from each other. For the heads and staves of casks, the wood of the chestnut is considered peculiarly excellent; and pipes made of it for the conveyance of water under ground are said to be more durable than those made of either elm or oak. For furniture, it may be stained so as somewhat to resemble mahogany. Hop-poles and poles for espaliers, and dead fences, made of young chestnut-trees, are preferred to most others. In the U. States, it is chiefly used in the manufacture of rails for fences.

CHESTNUT, HORSE. (See *Horse-Chestnut.*)

CHEVAL, À (*French*); on horseback; astride any object. In a military sense, a body of troops is said to be *à cheval* of a river, if one wing is stationed on the right and the other on the left bank.

CHEVAUX DE FRISE (*Friesland horses*, so called because first used at the siege of Groningen, in that province, in 1658); an armed beam of square timber or iron, used to defend the fronts of camps, breaches, &c. They are usually from 15 to 18 feet long, and connected by chains, each being perforated with small holes, to receive rods of wood or iron, pointed at their extremities, and, when moved in any direction, affording a sort of hedge of spears.

CHÉZY, Antoine Leonard; born at Paris, in 1773; professor of the Oriental languages, first professor of the Sanscrit language and literature in the *collège royal*, at Paris, the chair of which was established for him by Louis XVIII; and one of the conservators of the royal or national library. He has translated the poem *Mejnun and Leila* from the Persian into French, from which A. Th. Hartmann (Leipsic, 1807) translated it into German. In 1814, he published an episode from the Sanscrit, entitled *Death of Yajuadatta.* His wife is known in Germany, under the name of *Helmina*, as a prose writer and a poetess. Her mother was a daughter of the well-known German poetess, madame Karschin. Helmina was born in Berlin, Jan. 26, 1783, lived for a time with madame de Genlis in Paris, and resides in or near Vienna. She has written poetry, novels, tales, and an opera, *Euryanthe*, for Maria von Weber.

CHIABRERA, Gabriel; a poet, born at Savona, in the Genoese territory, in 1552. Sound in mind and body, he lived to a great age, and died at Savona in 1638. His poetical genius developed itself late, and he was considerably advanced, when he began to study the poets attentively. He preferred the Greeks, and particularly Pindar, his admiration for whom inspired him with the desire of imitating him. Thus he created a manner and style which was altogether different from that of the other Italian lyric poets, and which procured him the surname of the *Italian Pindar.* Equally successful were his attempts to imitate Anacreon; his canzonets are as easy and elegant as his canzoni are sublime. He is, besides, the author of several epic, dramatic, pastoral and other poems. His fame soon spread over all Italy. He visited Rome, and resided a considerable time at Florence and Genoa. Wherever he went, he was loaded with presents and honors.

CHIAOUS, or CHIAOUX, is a French corruption of the Turkish word *chaush*, or *chavush*, the title of the royal messengers or gentlemen-ushers in the court of the

grand signor. Their office partakes both of a civil and military character, and they act as the heralds and messengers of the empire.

Chiaramonti; the family name of pope Pius VII. (q. v.) Like his predecessors, Clement XIV and Pius VI, from whom the *museum Pio-Clementinum* is called, he augmented the treasures of art in the Vatican. The museums established there by him and during his government are called after him; but this name is particularly applied to that collection of ancient statues and reliefs, which are placed in the hall adjoining the *museum Pio-Clementinum.* The selection and arrangement of these were committed to Canova. The description of this museum (*Il Museo Chiaramonti descritto ed illustrato da Filippo Aurelio Visconti e Gius. Ant. Guattani*, &c., Rome, 1818, fol.) forms a supplement to the work on the *museo Pio-Clementino*, published by Giamb. and Ennio Quir. Visconti.—The entrance into the *museo Chiaramonti*, as well as into the library of the Vatican, is by the *museo* (*Chiaramonti*) *delle inscrizioni*, the museum of Greek and Roman inscriptions, which are inserted in the walls of a long corridor—a collection which has not its equal in Europe. The pope caused it to be arranged by Gaet. Marini. The entrance to it is through the *loggie* of the Vatican. There is also a *Biblioteca Chiaramonti*, containing the whole library of cardinal Zelada, which has been added to the Vatican.

Chiari, Pietro; a prolific writer of comedies and novels; born at Brescia, towards the beginning of the 18th century. After having completed his studies, he entered the order of Jesuits, but soon changed the monastic for the secular life, and, thus becoming free from all official duties, devoted himself solely to letters. He resided at Venice, with the title of poet to the duke of Modena, and, in the space of 10 or 12 years, brought more than 60 comedies on the stage. Chiari and Goldoni were rivals, but the public adjudged the palm to the latter. Chiari's dramas in verse fill 10 vols.; those in prose, 4. He is not destitute of invention nor of art in the management of his subjects, but his works are deficient in animation, vigor and humor. He died at Brescia, at a very advanced age, in 1787 or 1788.

Chiaro scuro (an Italian phrase, meaning *clear-obscure*; in French, *clair-obscur*), in painting, is the art of judiciously distributing the lights and shadows in a picture. A composition, however perfect in other respects, becomes a picture only by means of the *chiaro scuro*, which gives faithfulness to the representation, and therefore is of the highest importance for the painter; at the same time, it is one of the most difficult branches of an artist's study, because of the want of precise rules for its execution. Every art has a point where rules fail, and genius only can direct. This point, in the art of painting, is the *chiaro scuro.* The drawing of a piece may be perfectly correct, the coloring may be brilliant and true, and yet the whole picture remain cold and hard. This we find often the case with the ancient painters before Raphael; and it is one of the great merits of this sublime artist, that he left his masters far behind him in *chiaro scuro*, though he is considered not so perfect in this branch as Correggio and Titian, who were inferior to him in many other respects. The mode in which the light and shade are distributed on any single object is easily shown by lines supposed to be drawn from the source of the light which is shed over the figure; but *chiaro scuro* comprehends, besides this, aërial perspective, and the proportional force of colors, by which objects are made to advance or recede from the eye, produce a mutual effect, and form a united and beautiful whole. *Chiaro scuro* requires great delicacy of conception and skill of execution; and excellence in this branch of art is to be attained only by the study of nature and of the best masters.—*Chiaro scuro* is also understood in another sense, paintings in *chiaro scuro* being such as are painted in light and shade and reflexes only, without any other color than the local one of the object, as representations of sculpture in stone or marble. There are some fine pieces of this sort in the Vatican at Rome, by Polidoro da Caravaggio, and on the walls of the staircase of the royal academy of London, by Cipriani and Rigaud.

Chicken, Mother Carey's. (See *Petrel.*)

Chihuahua; a state or province of Mexico, bounded E. by Coaghuila, S. by Durango, and W. by Cinaloa and Sonora. It is an elevated district, and suffers for want of water.

Chihuahua; a town of Mexico, and capital of the province of the same name, on a small branch of the Conchos; 180 miles N. W. of Mexico; lon. 104° 30′ W.; lat. 28° 50′ N.; population, 11,600. It is surrounded by rich silver mines.

Chilblains are painful inflammatory swellings, of a deep purple or leaden color,

to which the fingers, toes, heels and other extreme parts of the body are subject, on being exposed to a severe degree of cold. The pain is not constant, but rather pungent and shooting at particular times, and an insupportable itching attends it. In some instances, the skin remains entire; but in others, it breaks, and discharges a thin fluid. When the degree of cold has been very great, or the application long continued, the parts affected are apt to mortify, and slough off, leaving a foul, ill-conditioned ulcer behind. Children and old people are more apt to be troubled with chilblains than persons of middle age; and such as are of a scrofulous habit are remarked to suffer severely from them.

Childermas Day; a festival celebrated by the church on the 28th of Dec., in commemoration of the massacre of the Innocents. Bourne, in his *Antiquitates Vulgares*, mentions a popular superstition, that "it is very unlucky to begin any work upon Childermas day." Revels, however, were held on this day.

Chile; a country of South America, bounded N. by Buenos Ayres, E. by Buenos Ayres and Patagonia, from which it is separated by the Andes, S. by Patagonia, and W. by the Pacific ocean; lon. 69° to 74° W.; lat. 24° to 45° S.; about 1400 miles long, and from 100 to 200 broad; square miles about 200,000. Population stated, in 1806, at 720,000; by Malte-Brun, in 1820, and a Spanish journal, at 900,000. Another statement, said to be founded on a census, makes it 1,200,000, exclusive of independent Indians. It is divided into two intendencies, St. Jago and Conception, which are subdivided into 13 provinces, viz. Copiapo, Coquimbo, Quillota, Aconcagua, Melippa, St. Jago, Rancagua, Colchagua, Maule, Itata, Chillan, Puchacay and Huilquilemu. The islands are Coquimbanes, Mugillan, Tortoral, Pajaro, Masapiero, Juan Fernandes, Mocha, and the archipelago of Chiloe. The chief towns are Santiago or St. Jago (the capital), Conception, Valparaiso, Valdivia, Chillan, Coquimbo, St. Fernando and Petorca. The rivers are numerous, but small, and have generally rapid currents. Some of the principal ones are the Maule, Biobio, Cauten, Tolten, Valdivia, Chaivin, Bueno and Sinfondo. Chile presents a plain, gradually rising in elevation as it recedes from the coast and approaches the Andes. From this sloping conformation, it is fertilized and beautified by numerous rivers flowing from the Andes; and of these, 53 communicate directly with the Pacific ocean. The country, intercepted between the foot of the Andes and the Pacific ocean, is divided into two equal parts, the maritime and midland. The maritime part is intercepted by three ridges of mountains, running parallel with the Andes, between which are numerous well-watered valleys. The midland country is generally level, of great fertility, and enjoying a delightful climate. The great chain of the Andes traverses the country from north to south, and presents a number of summits, the height of which has been estimated at upwards of 20,000 feet. Among the Chilean Andes there are said to be 14 volcanoes in a state of constant eruption, and a still greater number that discharge smoke at intervals. Chile abounds with vegetable, animal and mineral productions. Maize, rye, barley, pulse, wine, oil, sugar, cotton, and fruits of various kinds, are cultivated. It has luxuriant pastures, which feed numerous herds of cattle. It is rich in mines of gold, silver, copper, tin and iron. All the metals are found; also a variety of earths and precious stones. It is free from dangerous or venomous animals, which are so much dreaded in hot countries, and has but one species of small serpent, and that perfectly harmless. The climate is remarkably salubrious, and the weather generally serene. In the northern provinces, it rarely rains, in some parts never, but dews are abundant; in the central part, rain often continues 3 or 4 days in succession, followed by 15 or 20 days of fair weather; in the southern provinces, rains are much more abundant, and often continue 9 or 10 days without cessation. The rainy season commences in April, and continues through August. Snow falls abundantly on the Andes, but is never seen on the coast. Earthquakes are common. Chile was formerly a colony of Spain, but, in 1810, the people took the government into their own hands, and, in 1818, made a declaration of absolute independence, which has been hitherto uninterrupted, and recently acknowledged by Portugal. The supreme authority was administered by an elective magistrate, called the *supreme director*, until May, 1827, when a president was substituted, in imitation of the government of the U. States. The Roman Catholic is the established religion of Chile, and the church is very rich. There are said to be about 10,000 monks and nuns in this country, and the religious institutions with which they are connected hold nearly one third of the landed property of the country. The army, in 1818, was stated at 8400

regular troops; the militia at 28,960 men, and the revenue at $2,177,967. The part of Chile lying south of the river Biobio, in lat. 36° 44′ S., is inhabited chiefly by Indians. The Araucanians, a celebrated and warlike tribe, inhabit the region lying between the rivers Biobio and Valdivia. They are enthusiastically attached to liberty, and have never been subdued.—Of the history of Chile, previous to the middle of the 15th century, nothing more is known than what may be derived from the vague traditions of the natives. In 1535, the Spaniards first visited it. They were, at first, received by the Chileans with the utmost respect; but a cruel massacre of some of their chief men, by order of Almagro, the Spanish general, produced opposite feelings; and Almagro, advancing into the country of the Promancians, was defeated with loss, when the Spaniards, disgusted with their general, and with the state of affairs, returned to Peru, where they arrived in 1538. Two years afterwards, Pizarro despatched Pedro de Valdivia, with 200 Spaniards and a numerous body of Peruvians, to Chile, for the purpose of settling such districts as he should conquer. Valdivia succeeded in overcoming the resistance of the natives, and founded the city of Santiago, Feb. 24, 1541. Hostilities with the natives ensued, till Valdivia, having settled his power in the northern provinces of Chile, turned his arms against the southern portion of the country. In 1550, he founded the city of Conception, and was soon afterwards attacked by the Araucanians, with whom he fought several battles, and was finally defeated and taken prisoner, Dec. 3, 1553. Many battles were subsequently fought between the Spaniards and this tribe of Indians, which, though they generally terminated in favor of the former, were destructive to them, and impeded the progress of the settlements. In 1598, a general insurrection of the Araucanians took place; and, with the assistance of their allies, they put to death every Spaniard whom they found outside of the forts. Villanca, Valdivia, Imperial, and several other towns, were attacked and taken, and Conception and Chillar were burnt. To add to the misfortunes of the Spaniards, the Dutch landed on the Chiloe islands, plundered Chiloe, and put the Spanish garrison to the sword. Hostilities were continued for many years without any extraordinary result. Each party seemed obstinate in its determination, and each committed cruelties and outrages, with which the history of South America is unhappily too familiar. At length, in 1641, preliminaries of peace were finally settled between the marquis of Baydes, then governor of Chile, and the Araucanians. By the terms of the treaty, the two nations agreed to suspend hostilities, and the Araucanians engaged to prevent any foreign power from landing on their territories. Two years afterwards, the Dutch made an attempt to settle a colony at Valdivia; but, hearing that an army of Spaniards and Araucanians were marching against them, they evacuated Chile. The peace between the Spaniards and Araucanians lasted until 1655, when hostilities again broke out with their former fury, and continued for 10 years with various success. At the end of this period, a formal treaty was made. This peace was more lasting than the former, and, until the beginning of the 18th century, the history of Chile presents little deserving of record. Though tranquil for so long a time, the spirit of the Araucanians was not broken, nor was their aversion to the Spaniards abated. In 1722, a general conspiracy was formed by the nations from the borders of Peru to the river Biobio. At a fixed moment, when the watch-fires were to blaze on the mountains, the Indians were to rise against the whites, and release the country from their yoke. The design, however, miscarried: only the Araucanians took up arms; and, after a short contest, peace was again concluded. In 1742, don Josef Manto, then governor, collected the colonists into towns, divided the country into provinces, and founded several new cities. In 1770, an attempt of don Antonio Gonzago to compel the Araucanians to adopt habits of industry, and to associate in towns, was the cause of a new war. At length, peace was restored, one condition of which was that the Araucanians should keep a resident minister at Santiago—a stipulation which proves their power and importance. Chile appears to have enjoyed tranquillity during the remainder of the 18th century, and, being relieved from the hostility of the Araucanians, agriculture and commerce, which had been greatly neglected, soon revived. The occupation of Spain by the French troops, in 1809, caused a revolutionary movement in Chile, as well as in other parts of Spanish America. July 10, 1810, the president Carrasco was deposed by the native inhabitants, and a junta of government was formed, under the pretext of holding the country for Ferdinand, but with the secret intention of ultimately proclaiming inde-

pendence. At this period, the most active and influential persons were the three Carreras, Rodriguez and O'Higgins, the government being, in reality, exercised by the Carreras. In 1814, Chile was invaded by a royalist army from Peru, under the command of general Osorio; and the defeat of the patriots at Rancagua, Oct. 1, 1814, compelled the leading individuals to cross the Andes, and seek refuge in Buenos Ayres, leaving their country in possession of the Spaniards. In 1817, the patriots obtained succors from Buenos Ayres, commanded by general San Martin, and reëntered Chile at the head of a powerful body of troops, which defeated the Spaniards at Chacabuco, Feb. 12, 1817, and again at Maypu, April 5, 1817, and thus permanently secured the independence of the country. By the intrigues of San Martin, the three Carreras and their friend Rodriguez, the best men in Chile, were shamefully murdered, and his favorite, don Bernardo O'Higgins, was placed at the head of the government, with the title of *supreme director*. Meanwhile, San Martin, with the liberating army, and aided by a Chilean fleet under lord Cochrane, invaded Peru in return, and gave it a temporary independence. O'Higgins continued to administer the government until Jan. 23, 1823, when he was compelled to resign the supreme authority, owing chiefly to the dissatisfaction of the people with his financial measures. He was succeeded by general Ramon Freire, the latter being appointed supreme director. In January, 1826, the archipelago of Chiloe, which had remained to that time in the hands of the Spaniards, surrendered to the government of Chile. But disturbances have existed among the Araucanians, on the southern frontier, down to the present time, occasioning more or less inconvenience to the Chileans. In other respects, Chile has been wholly unmolested by foreign enemies, unless an attempt of the exile O'Higgins upon Chiloe, in 1826, can be considered such. But the unsettled state of the government, and the maladministration of its affairs, have impeded the prosperity of the country.—In July, 1826, the director Freire resigned his office, and admiral Manuel Blanco was appointed in his place. In May, 1827, the form of the government was changed, and, Blanco having resigned, Freire was again called to the head of affairs as president, but refused to be qualified; and the administration of the government devolved upon don Francisco A. Pinto, the vice-president. Three attempts have been made to effect a solid organization of the government by means of a permanent constitution. One constituent congress assembled in 1823, another in 1824, and a third in 1826; but neither of them accomplished the object of their meeting, and the country is agitated still between the advocates of a central and of a federal constitution. (Stevenson's *South Am.*, vol. iii.; *Amer. An. Reg.*, vol. i. and ii.)

CHILLICOTHE; a post-town and capital of Ross county, Ohio, on the west bank of the Scioto, 45 miles in a right line, and 70 according to the windings, from its mouth; 42 miles S. Columbus; 93 E. by N. Cincinnati; lon. 82° 57′ W.; lat. 39° 18′ N.; population, 2426. It is pleasantly situated on the borders of an elevated, extensive and fertile plain, regularly laid out, the streets crossing each other at right angles, and is a flourishing town. It contains a court-house, a jail, a market-house, 3 houses of public worship, a rope-walk, 4 cotton manufactories, and a steam mill. In the vicinity of the town there are many valuable mills.

CHILLINGWORTH, William; an eminent divine and writer on controversial theology. He was born at Oxford, in 1602, and received his education at Trinity college, in the university of that city. He did not confine his academical studies to divinity, but also distinguished himself as a mathematician, and cultivated poetry. Metaphysics and religious casuistry, however, appear to have been his favorite pursuits; and lord Clarendon, who was particularly intimate with him, celebrates his rare talents as a disputant, and says he had "contracted such an irresolution and habit of doubting, that, by degrees, he grew confident of nothing." This sceptical disposition laid him open to the arguments of a Jesuit, who persuaded him that the church of Rome, in establishing the authority of the pope as an infallible judge, afforded the only means for ascertaining the true religion. He was convinced by this reasoning, and converted, but subsequently came to the conclusion that he had acted erroneously, and wrote several pieces to justify his second conversion, especially The Religion of Protestants a safe Way to Salvation, first published in 1637. Some scruples of conscience, relative to signing the thirty-nine articles, prevented him, for a time, from obtaining church preferment. His scruples, however, were so far overcome, that he made the subscription in the usual form, and was promoted to the chancellorship of Salisbury, with the prebend of Brixworth annexed, in July, 1638.

On the civil war taking place, Chillingworth joined the king's party, and employed his pen in a treatise Of the Unlawfulness of resisting the lawful Prince, although most impious, tyrannical and idolatrous. This tract was not, however, committed to the press. He did not confine himself to literary efforts in support of the royal cause, having, at the siege of Gloucester, in 1643, acted as engineer. His classical reading suggested to him an imitation of some Roman machine for the attack of fortified places; but the approach of the parliamentary army prevented the trial of it against the walls of Gloucester. Not long after, he retired to Arundel castle, in an ill state of health, and was made a prisoner on the surrender of that fortress to sir William Waller. Being removed, at his own request, to Chichester, he died in the episcopal palace, in January, 1644. Chillingworth published sermons and other theological works, of which the best edition is that of doctor Birch, 1742, folio.

Chiloe; a considerable island in the south Pacific ocean, on the coast of Chile; lon. 72° 45′ W.; lat. 43° S.; 140 miles long, and 60, where widest, broad. It produces most of the necessaries of life; and much ambergris is found here. The cedar-trees grow to an amazing size. There are many small islands east of Chiloe, in a narrow sea, called the *archipelago of Chiloe*, which separates the island from the continent. Population of the whole, 26,000. Chief town, San Carlos. There are 47 islands in the archipelago of Chiloe, 32 of them inhabited.

Chiltern Hills; a range of chalky hills, in England, in the county of Oxford, once covered with woods, supposed to have been, at one time, a royal forest. There still remains a nominal office, called the *stewardship of the Chiltern hundreds*, in the gift of the crown. By the acceptance of this, a member of the house of commons vacates his seat in parliament. It is, therefore, generally conferred on such members as wish to resign their seats.

Chimæra. (See *Chimera.*)

Chimay, Theresa, princess of; the divorced wife of Tallien. This lady, celebrated for her adventures, is the daughter of count Cabarrus (q. v.) and a lady of Saragossa named Galabert. Endowed by nature with rare beauty and an ardent temperament, she early gave herself up to her inclinations, and had an intrigue with prince Listenay, who was on his way from Paris to Madrid, to marry the daughter of the duke of Lavauguyon, French ambassador at the Spanish court. Her family, however, favored the suit of M. de Fontenay. Theresa married him, and followed her husband to Paris, where they arrived a short time before the breaking out of the revolution. She embraced its principles with the greatest zeal, cultivated the friendship of the most distinguished members of the constituent assembly, and made her house the centre of the most splendid society. Her union with M. de Fontenay not being a happy one, she had recourse to the new law of divorce, and, in 1793, her marriage was dissolved, and M. de Fontenay became an emigrant. She now became the patroness of all societies devoted to literature or art, and took a particular interest in the lectures (*cours de littérature*) of La Harpe, which were delivered in the Lyceum, and were frequented by the most elegant society of Paris. After the 31st of May, when the reign of terror became so appalling in the capital, Theresa retired to Bordeaux, where she met Tallien, a member of the convention, whom she had formerly slightly known as a clerk in the office of Alexander Lameth, chairman (*rapporteur*) of the military committee in the constituent assembly. Tallien was on a mission at Bordeaux, executing the bloody decrees of the national convention. He conceived an affection for madame de Fontenay, who was not less amiable than beautiful, and they soon formed the tenderest connexion. She seems to have yielded to Tallien's wishes only on condition that he would use his influence to avert from the city of Bordeaux the cruel fate of Lyons and Nantes, where *fusillades* and *noyades* were the order of the day. It was soon perceived by the committee of public safety, that Tallien was no longer sufficiently zealous in his revolutionary principles; he was therefore recalled to Paris to defend himself against the charges which had been brought against him. Theresa was arrested, and likewise carried to Paris, to appear before the revolutionary tribunal. The 9th Thermidor (27th of July, 1794) was near at hand: Danton's blood was yet steaming. Robespierre intended a new act of violence. The adherents of his enemy, that tribune, formerly so terrible, but now crushed, were to be destroyed with one blow. At their head stood Tallien. Theresa was destined to follow him to the guillotine. But the secret of the tyrant was betrayed. Love inspired Tallien with energy, and the 9th of Thermidor delivered France from Robespierre.

A few days afterwards, Tallien and Theresa confirmed their union before the altar. She had the most beneficent influence upon her husband's public life, and all her efforts were exerted to assist the unfortunate and the sufferers by the revolution. By her political influence, and by her beauty, which was then in the highest bloom, she again attracted the eyes of all Paris, and, wherever she appeared in public, was received with acclamations. Theresa and Josephine de Beauharnais, afterwards empress of France, were the principal ornaments of the splendid circle which Barras had assembled around him. Gratitude to her husband did not, however, prevent her from entering into other passing connexions, as taste or caprice prompted. Tallien followed Bonaparte to Egypt, and was soon forgotten. On her application, she was formally divorced, but a friendly intercourse always subsisted between her and Tallien. Napoleon, who, before his connexion with Josephine, had shown much attention to madame Tallien, broke off all intercourse with her when first-consul and emperor, and could never be induced to grant her admission to court. She was thus thrown into the opposition, and led to her connexion with madame de Staël and her third husband, count François Caraman, whom she married in 1805, and who afterwards, in consequence of inheriting an estate, assumed the title of *prince of Chimay*. Four children are the offspring of this marriage. She lives, at present, in Paris, or on the estate of her husband.

Chimborazo; a mountain of Colombia, in the province of Quito, about 100 miles S. by W. Quito; lat. about 2° S. It is the most elevated summit of the Andes, rising to the height of 21,440 feet above the level of the sea, and covered with perpetual snow 2600 feet from the summit and upwards. It presents a magnificent spectacle when seen from the shores of the Pacific ocean after the long rains of winter, when the transparency of the air is suddenly increased, and its enormous circular summit is seen projected upon the deep azure-blue of the equatorial sky. The great rarity of the air, through which the tops of the Andes are seen, adds very much to the splendor of the snow, and aids the magical effect of its reflection. This mountain was ascended, in 1802, by Humboldt and Bonpland, who reached to within 2140 feet of the summit, being, by barometrical measurement, 19,300 feet above the level of the sea—a greater elevation than ever was before attained by man. Their further ascent was prevented by a chasm 500 feet wide. The air was intensely cold and piercing, and, owing to its extreme rarity, blood oozed from their lips, eyes and gums, and respiration was difficult. One of the party fainted, and all of them felt extreme weakness. Condamine ascended, in 1745, to the height of 15,815 feet.

Chimera; a fabulous monster, breathing flames, with the head of a lion, the body of a goat, and the tail of a dragon, which laid waste the fields of Lycia, and was at last destroyed by Bellerophon. (See *Hipponous*.) Her form is described by the poets as an unnatural mixture of the most incongruous parts. Therefore the name of *chimera* is used for a nondescript, an unnatural production of fancy. According to some, Chimera was a volcano in Lycia, around the top of which dwelt lions, around the middle goats, and at the foot poisonous serpents. Bellerophon is said to have been the first who rendered this mountain habitable.

Chimes, in horology, is a species of music, mechanically produced by the strokes of hammers against a series of bells, tuned agreeably to a given scale in music. The hammers are lifted by levers, acted upon by metallic pins, or wooden pegs, stuck into a large barrel, which is made to revolve by clock-work, and is so connected with the striking part of the clock-mechanism, that it is set in motion by it at certain intervals of time, usually every hour, or every quarter of an hour. The music thus produced may consist of a direct succession of the notes constituting an octave, frequently repeated, or otherwise may be a psalm-tune, or short popular air in the key to which the bells are tuned. This species of mechanical music most probably had its origin, like clock-work itself, in some of the monastic institutions of Germany, in the middle ages. The first apparatus for producing it, is said to have been made at Alost, in the Netherlands, in 1487. The chime mechanism may be adapted to act with the large bells of a church steeple, by means of wheel-work strong enough to raise heavy hammers; or a set of bells, of different diameters, may be arranged concentrically within one another on one common axis, sufficiently small to be introduced into the frame of a clock, or even of a watch. The chime mechanism is sometimes so constructed, that it may be played like a piano, but with the fist instead of the fingers. This is covered with leather, that the blow on the key

may be applied more forcibly. Difficult as the performance is, some players can execute compositions consisting of three parts, and even produce trills and *arpeggios*. Burney relates that the chime-player Scheppen, at Louvain, laid a wager with an able performer on the violin, that he would execute a difficult solo for the violin with the bells, and won his wager. Pottheff, organist and chime-player at Amsterdam, became blind in his 7th year, and received the abovenamed appointment in his 31st year; and, although every key in his apparatus required a force equal to a two-pound weight, yet he played his bells with the facility of a performer on the piano-forte. Burney heard him perform some fugues in 1772.

CHIMNEY. How far the Greek and Roman architects were acquainted with the construction of chimneys, is a matter of dispute. No traces of such works have been discovered in the houses of Pompeii, and Vitruvius gives no rules for erecting them. The first certain notice of chimneys, as we now build them, is believed to be that contained in an inscription at Venice, over the principal gate of the *Scuola Grande di Sta. Maria della Carità*, which states that, in 1347, a great many chimneys were thrown down by an earthquake. Chimneys require much attention, to make them secure and prevent their smoking, so great an annoyance to domestic comfort. It seems, at present, to be acknowledged, that it is much better to exclude the cold, damp air from the flues, by narrowing the aperture at the top, than to give a larger vent to the smoke, at the risk of admitting a quantity of air to rush down the flue. For this reason, chimney-pots are of great use. In Prussia, where the architectural police (*Baupolizei*) is strict, great attention is paid to the erection of chimneys, and to the regular sweeping of them, the chimney-sweepers being bound to sweep the chimneys of a certain number of streets within a regular time; and, though the interference of a police in subjects of domestic economy is a delicate matter, the numerous fires which take place in the U. States, from the careless construction of chimneys, seem to make some public supervision of their security desirable. The longer a chimney is, the more perfect is its draught, because the tendency of the smoke to draw upwards is in proportion to the different weight of the column of air included in a chimney and an equal column of external air. Short chimneys are liable to smoke, and fire-places in upper stories are, therefore, more apt to smoke than those in the lower ones. Two flues in the same chimney should not communicate with each other short of the top. Some chimneys, in large establishments in London, are very remarkable for their size.

CHIMNEYSWEEPERS are, in all countries, in a state deserving great pity. Their condition in London has led to the establishment of a *Society for superseding the necessity of climbing-boys, by encouraging a new method of sweeping chimneys, and for improving the condition of children and others employed by chimneysweepers*. The subject has, likewise, occupied the attention of parliament, and due investigation has shown that there are few chimneys which cannot be swept as well by a machine as by boys. Most of the particulars relative to the evils of this trade (one of which is the incurably cancerous diseases to which the boys are very generally subject), and the facility with which a substitute may be provided for it, may be found in the Chimneysweeper's Friend, or Climbing-Boy's Album, by James Montgomery. In France, the little chimneysweepers are generally Savoyards.

CHIMU; the name of some highly singular and extremely interesting ruins near the town of Mansiche, in Peru, which are supposed to be the vast remains of an ancient city. Humboldt visited them during his travels in Peru, and went into the interior of the famous *Guaca de Toledo* (burying-place, or *tumulus*, of Toledo), the tomb of a Peruvian prince, in which Garci Gutierez de Toledo discovered, on digging a gallery, in 1576, massive gold amounting in value to more than a quarter of a million sterling, as is proved by the books of accounts, preserved at the mayor's office in Truxillo.

CHINA. The Chinese empire, including the tributary states, and those under its protection, consists of about 5,250,000 square miles, with 242,000,000 inhabitants. China Proper, "the centre of the world," contains 1,298,000 square miles (lat. 18° 37′—41° 35′ N.), with 146,280,000 inhabitants, of whom 2,000,000 live on the water. Among the inhabitants are 31,000 sailors, 822,000 foot-soldiers, 410,000 horse, 7552 military and 9611 civil officers. —Subject to China are Mantchou (726,800 square miles), Mongolia (1,935,910 square miles), and Tourfan (578,275 square miles). Under her protection are Thibet, Bootan, Corea, Loo-Choo, containing together 726,202 square miles. The Portuguese navigators who followed Vasco da Gama

were the first from whom the Europeans obtained tolerably correct ideas of the situation, extent and character of this country. Since that time, our knowledge of China has been derived from several ambassadors, who saw the court and the roads, from merchants who had inhabited the suburbs of one seaport (Canton), and from numerous missionaries, who relate what they have seen, but generally with little discrimination. Much information is to be hoped from the Canton Register, a paper which is published twice a month in Canton.* The emperors of the Mantchou dynasty, erroneously called *Tartars*, have extended their conquests over the greatest part of the country formerly called *Independent Tartary*, the inhabitants of which are, however, not Tartars, but mostly Calmucks and Mongols. The Russians advanced, at the same time, into Siberia. Russia and China have thus come into contact, on a line extending from lake Palcati to the mouth of the river Amour. This extensive frontier is principally formed by the Altaian, Sayanian and Daourian mountains. In Daouria, however, the Russians have extended their possessions beyond the last-named mountains to the banks of the river Amour. Lake Palcati, the Alak mountains, and the Beloor mountains, divide the Chinese empire, on the west, from the Kirguises, Usbecks, and other independent Tartar tribes. While the Chinese dominions extend to the confines of Asiatic Russia on the north and north-west, on the west and south-west they extend over the immense regions of Thibet, and almost reach the English territories in Bengal. On this side, China is divided from India by the small countries of Sirinagur, Nepaul, and others, and by the Garrow mountains. Farther to the east, the Burman empire bounds on the Chinese province of Yun-nan. In the south, the empire of Anam and the provinces of Laos and Tonquin touch its borders. The Eastern ocean, with the gulf of Corea, washes the coasts of China for an extent of 3600 miles, from the Tonquinese frontier to the mouth of the river Amour. To the south are the Chinese and Yellow seas, and the gulf of Tonquin. The channel of Formosa separates the island of that name from the continent. The Blue and Yellow seas flow, the former between China and the islands of Loo-Choo and Japan, the latter between China and Corea. The sea of Japan extends from Corea to the river Amour: at the extreme point, it goes under the name of the *channel of Tartary.*—*China Proper* is bounded on the east by the Eastern ocean; on the north, by the immense wall of Mongolia and Manchooria, which has been built more than 2000 years, and is 1500 miles in length, 30 feet high, and 15 feet thick on the top. To the west, political limits are prescribed to the wanderings of the Calmucks or Eleuthes of Hoho-Nor and of the Sifans. To the south, the boundaries of the Chinese empire and China Proper are the same. China Proper contains 1572 towns, the principal of which are Pekin, Canton, and Nankin (q. v.); 1193 fortresses, 2796 temples, 2606 convents, 32 imperial palaces, &c. It is divided into 15 provinces. Two chains of mountains extend through the country; the one in the south-east, the other in the north-west. The former extends between the provinces Quang-si, Quang-tong, and Fo-Kien, on the south, and the provinces Hoo-Quang and Kiang-si on the north. Its original course is from west to east, but, after reaching the limits of Fo-Kien, it turns to the north-east. The principal chain is difficult of access, particularly in the provinces of Koeit-Cheou and Quang-si, owing to the savage tribes by which it is inhabited. Travellers have only examined the little mountain Meiling, which rises 3000 feet above lake Po-yang. The heights to the north-west are rather a succession of terraces than regular chains of mountains. The province of Shan-si is full of mountains, which appear to belong to a chain extending from the banks of the river Amour, traversing the whole of Mongolia. They are almost entirely composed of perpendicular rocks. The province of Shan-Tong consists, principally, of a mountainous peninsula. These mountains contain coal mines, and form a group entirely detached from the other Chinese chains. The largest plains are in the province Kiang-Nan, between the two great rivers Hoang-ho and Yang-tse-Kiang or Kiang-Ku. The former, or the Yellow river, rises from two lakes in the country of the Calmucks of Hoho-Nor; the latter, or the Blue river, rises somewhere in the north of Thibet, near the desert of Cobi. Both descend rapidly from the table-lands of central Asia, and each encounters a chain of mountains which forces it to describe a long circuit,

* A museum, to be called *The British Museum in China*, it is stated in the Canton Register, is about to be established among the British residents in that city. Perhaps this institution, also, will contribute to enlarge our knowledge of China.

—the Hoang-ho to the north, the Yang-tse-Kiang to the south,—after which they again approach, and terminate their courses within a distance of 180 miles of each other. Besides these, there are the Fuen-ho, the Hoei-ho, and the Hoay-ho, which empty into the Blue river; the Yalon-Kiang, which is about 600 miles long, the Tchoo or Yang-Kiang, the La-Kiang, and the Yuen-Kiang, which flow into the Yellow river. The Yuen and Yon flow into the Blue river through two lakes. The Hoan-Kiang in the south, and the Pay-ho in the north, are unconnected with the two great rivers. The former falls into the gulf of Canton, and the latter into the gulf of Pekin. These, and innumerable other rivers, united by numerous canals, are of incalculable advantage to agriculture and inland navigation. The principal canal is the Imperial canal, 1400 miles long, which forms a water communication between Pekin and Canton, with an interruption of only one day's journey. China also abounds in lakes, particularly the province of Houquang (which signifies the *country of lakes*). The Poyang-hoo, according to Staunton the largest lake in China, is, according to Du Halde, only 95 miles in circumference.—In a country of such vast extent, the climate must necessarily be very various. In the south, near the tropic, the heat is excessive, but it is moderated by the influence of the periodical winds. The northern and western parts are much colder than the countries of Europe situated in the same latitude, owing to the elevation of the land, to the nature of the soil, which is filled with saltpetre, and to the snow, which, during the greatest part of the year, covers the central mountains of Asia.—Agriculture, in China, is in a very flourishing condition. The principal production is rice. In the north-western provinces, which are too cold and too dry for its production, its place is supplied by wheat and other grain. Yams, potatoes, turnips, beans, and a species of white cabbage (*petsai*), are likewise produced. Arable land is cultivated without interruption, the practice of fallowing being unknown. Even the steepest hills are brought into cultivation, and artificially watered. The manner in which the dwellings of the peasantry are situated, not being collected into villages, but scattered through the country, contributes greatly to the flourishing state of agriculture. There are no fences, nor gates, nor any sort of precaution against wild beasts or thieves. The women raise silkworms and spin cotton; they also manufacture woollen stuffs, and are the only weavers in the country. The honors conferred on agriculture by the Chinese government are generally known. Every year, on the 15th day of the first moon, the emperor repairs, in great state, to a certain field, accompanied by the princes and the principal officers, prostrates himself, and touches the ground nine times with his head, in honor of Tien, the God of heaven; he pronounces a prayer prepared by the court of ceremonies, invoking the blessing of the Great Being on his labor and that of his people. Then, as the high-priest of the empire, he sacrifices a bullock to heaven, as the fountain of all good. Whilst the victim is offered on the altar, a plough, drawn by a pair of oxen, highly ornamented, is brought to the emperor, who throws aside his imperial robes, lays hold of the handle of the plough, and opens several furrows over the whole field. The principal mandarins follow his example. The festival closes with the distribution of money and cloth amongst the peasantry. In the same manner the emperor again comes to sow the seed. In the provinces, the viceroys perform the same ceremony on the same day. In the cultivation of trees, the Chinese have made comparatively little progress. They have many fruit-trees, but have done little for their improvement. Grafting is not common. Currants, raspberries, and, according to some, olives, do not grow in China. But nature has conferred on this country other treasures, such as the tea-plant, from which the Chinese derive immense profits, the camphor-tree, the aloe, the sugar-cane, the bamboo, indigo, cotton, rhubarb, the varnish-tree, soap-tree, tallow-tree, lime, wax-tree, and the li-tchi. The Chinese have all the domestic animals of Europe and America, amongst which the hog is the most numerous. The camel is the usual beast of burden. The wild animals are the elephant, the rhinoceros, the tiger, the musk-ox, several kinds of apes, the deer, the wild boar, the fox, &c. Poultry abounds in China, particularly ducks. Several sorts of birds are distinguished for the richness of their plumage, such as the gold and silver pheasants, and the peacock with spurs. Great quantities of fish are found in the waters. The gold-fish are there, as with us, kept as an ornament. Amongst the insects of China, the silkworm, which is found in all parts of the country, and appears to be indigenous, is the principal. Of the mineral

productions our information is very imperfect. Silver mines are abundant, but they are little worked. The gold is, for the most part, obtained from the sands of the rivers in the provinces of Se-tchuen and Yun-nan; but gold and silver are not coined. Tutenague is a metallic substance peculiar to China, which is used for the manufacture of vessels and utensils, and which some suppose to be pure zinc, and others an artificial composition. China produces a peculiar kind of copper; also arsenic, much quicksilver (in Yun-nan), but little lead and tin. Of valuable stones, it affords the lapis lazuli, the rock-crystal, the loadstone, and various kinds of marble. Of clays, the porcelain clay is the only kind we need mention. Salt is a profitable monopoly of the government.—The features and the shape of the skull of the Chinese prove their descent from the Mongols; but a residence of many centuries in a milder climate has softened their characteristic marks. A Chinese woman is proud of her beauty in proportion to the smallness of her eyes, the protuberance of her lips, the lankness and blackness of her hair, and the smallness of her feet. The last completes the Chinese idea of beauty, and is obtained by pressure and hindering the growth. By the men, corpulence, as the sign of an easy life, is regarded with respect. Lean people are considered void of talent. The higher classes allow the nails of their fingers to grow, some on one hand, some on both, and dye their hair and beards black. The Chinese possess the usual virtues and vices of a slavish, industrious and commercial people.—The government is an absolute monarchy, but the mandarins and tribunals are permitted to make respectful remonstrances to the emperor. The emperor calls himself *holy son of heaven, sole guardian of the earth*, and *father of his people*. He is obliged to occupy himself constantly with the affairs of state. He has three wives, of whom only one bears the title and rank of empress. He resides, generally, in Pekin; in summer, at Tchehol. Offerings are made to his image and to his throne; his person is worshipped; his subjects prostrate themselves in his presence. The emperor never appears in public without 2000 lictors, bearing chains, axes, and other instruments characteristic of Eastern despotism. The revenue is estimated at $150,000,000, and consists, chiefly, in the productions of the soil. It is raised by a land-tax, by duties on imports and exports, and on articles of internal commerce, and by a poll-tax on every person between the ages of 20 and 60. The Chinese army is very numerous, consisting of about 900,000 men, but does not appear capable of resisting the irregular Asiatic troops, much less European soldiers.—The Chinese nobility is of two kinds, the dignity of the one being personal, that of the other official. Of the former there are five degrees, the three first of which are conferred only on relations of the emperor, and are generally translated by the term *prince*. These princes are bound to live within the precincts of the imperial palace. The personal nobility has precedence over the mandarins, or official nobility. The rank of the mandarins is indicated by the color of the buttons on their caps. There are likewise titular mandarins. There are, in all, from 13,000 to 14,000 civil mandarins, called *governors*, and 18,000 military mandarins. The former are divided into nine, the latter into five classes. The highest body of officers in the empire is the council of the ministerial mandarins. These transact business with the emperor. Subordinate central authorities are, 1. *Li-pu* (guard of civil officers), which proposes pardons to the emperor; 2. *Ho-pu* (ministry of finance); 3. *Li-pu* (court of ceremonial); 4. *Ping-pu* (council of war); 5. *Hong-pu* (ministry of justice, including *Kong-pu*, or that of architecture). In every province, a mandarin is governor, with a council to watch over his actions and execute his commands. There are courts of justice in the different towns. The ceremonial dress of the mandarins is of embroidered satin, with a covering of blue crape. Badges, indicating the civil or military rank of the wearer, are embroidered in front and on the back. The right to wear a peacock's feather on the back of the cap is equivalent to a European order, and is conferred as a particular mark of favor. The pretended wisdom of the Chinese laws may be characterized in a few words:—they are good police regulations, accompanied with good lessons on morality. They give to the emperor, as well as to the mandarins, unlimited power over the nation, which considers blind obedience to superiors its first duty. Innumerable ceremonies perpetually remind it of the distinctions of rank. (See the *Chinese Ceremonial*, in verse, Macao, 1824.) In intellectual improvement, this nation has long been stationary. This is partly owing to the love of antiquity common throughout Asia, partly to the want of intellectual commu-

nication with other nations. This is principally prevented by the difficulty of their written language, which is not, like ours, formed of letters and syllables, but of characters. (See *Chinese Language and Literature*, at the conclusion of this article.) Mechanical skill has been carried to great perfection among them; their industry in the manufacture of stuffs, porcelain, lackered ware, &c. is astonishing, and can only be compared with their own labors in digging canals, in the formation of gardens, levelling mountains, and other similar works. Many of our most useful inventions are to be found among them. They printed books, before the art was invented in Europe, with characters carved on wooden tablets, which is their present practice. They also used the magnet before its use was known to us; but they have remained far behind us in the art of navigation, on account of their ignorance of ship-building. A short time ago, a translation of a Chinese treatise on navigation, by one of their naval officers, was published, which showed an utter ignorance of this art. The monuments of China have, perhaps, been, on the whole, too much praised. Yet we must acknowledge our wonder at their great roads, their immense single-arched bridges, their pyramidal towers, but, above all, at their great wall, called, in Chinese, *Van-li-Tching* (the wall of 10,000 Li), which traverses high mountains, deep valleys, and, by means of arches, wide rivers, extending from the province of Shen-Si to Wanghay or the Yellow sea, a distance of 1500 miles. In some places, to protect exposed passages, it is double and treble. The foundation and corners are of granite, but the principal part is of blue bricks, cemented with pure white mortar. At distances of about 200 paces are distributed square towers, or strong bulwarks.—The national character is the result of their attachment to established customs. The manner of living is prescribed to each rank by invariable rules. The Chinese abstain almost entirely from spirituous liquors: the use of tea is general. Their principal article of food is rice. Polygamy is permitted to the nobles and mandarins. The emperor maintains a numerous harem. Women are kept in a sort of slavery. The peasant yokes his wife and ass together to the plough. The Chinese pay a kind of religious worship to their ancestors, and perform certain ceremonies around their tombs. Respect toward parents is a duty inculcated by their religion and laws. The primitive religion of China appears to have been a branch of Shamanism, the foundation of which is the worship of the stars and other remarkable objects of nature. This ancient religion has been supplanted by the doctrines of more modern sects. Among these, the principal are the sect of Cong-fu-tse (Confucius) and of Lao-Kiun or Tao-tse. The bulk of the nation has embraced the religion of Fo (see *Confucius*, and *Fo*), which was brought from India. The religion of the emperors of the Tartar-Mantchoo dynasty is that of the Dalai-Lama. (See *Lama*.) For the propagation of Christianity in China, see *Missions*. The discovery of a conspiracy against the emperor, in 1823, gave rise to a general persecution of the Christians, which, however, terminated in 1824. According to the accounts of the French mission in China, the number of Christians in that country in September, 1824, amounted to 46,287; there were 27 schools for Christian boys, and 45 for Christian girls. In the year 1829, two Chinese Christians were brought to Paris; they spoke Latin, as most Christians of that country do. The foreign commerce of China does not correspond with the extent and richness of the empire. In 1806, the exports amounted to 45,000,000 pounds of tea, 13,000,000 of which were sold to the Americans, and 31,000,000 to the British; 16,000,000 pounds of sugar, 21,000 pieces of nankeen, 3,000,000 pounds of tutenague, besides copper, borax, alum, quicksilver, porcelain, lackered ware, cinnamon, rhubarb, musk, and other drugs. These were exported in 116 ships, of which 80 were English, 33 American and 3 Danish. These brought to China rice (36,000,000 pounds), cotton, and various kinds of cloths, glass, fox, otter and beaver skins, sandal wood, areca nuts, &c. The trade with Europe and North America is confined to 12 privileged merchants, called *Hong merchants* or *Hannists*, whose profits are immense. (See *Hong*.)—The ancient history of China is enveloped in darkness and fable. According to tradition, China was governed, for many millions of years, by the gods, Tien-Hoan-Chi, and the fabulous families of kings, Ti-Hoan-Chi, Kiehu-Tohu-Ki. Amongst the latter was Fo-hi, the lawgiver of the Chinese, and U-ti, under whose family commences, with the reign of the celebrated Yau, the work called the *Shu-king*, from which the Chinese derive their early history. But the historical character of this book cannot bear criticism. The royal families of this obscure period are the Kia (till 1767 B. C.), Shang (till 1122), Chew (till

258). Wu-wang is invariably considered the founder of this last dynasty, but the accounts of its establishment differ. According to one account, the natives of the interior dethroned Chew-sin, the last of the preceding dynasty. According to others, Wu-wang came, with an army of foreigners, from the west, and introduced civilization amongst the natives. After the establishment of this family, there is a long chasm in the historical records. This the Chinese writers fill with fables. Under this dynasty is the Chew-kew, or period of fighting kings, who ruled over many little neighboring states, and were continually at war with each other (from 770 till 320 B. C.). At length, a Chinese hero, Chi-hoang-ti, of the princely house of Ting, made his appearance, in the age of Hannibal, and with him commenced the house of Tsin (from 256 till 207 B. C.). He extirpated all the petty princes of the branch of Chew, and united the whole of China (247). He built the great wall as a protection against the Tartars. The empire was again dismembered, after his death, under his son Ul-shi, but was reunited, ten years later, by Lieu-pang. He adopted the new name of *Hang*, and founded the dynasty of Hang, which reigned till A. D. 220, and was divided into the western and eastern Hang (Si-hang, from B. C. 217 to A. D. 24, and Tong-hang, from A. D. 24 till 220). The princes of this dynasty extended their conquests considerably to the west, and took part in the affairs of Central Asia. The religion of Tao-tse prevailed during their ascendency; and in the same period Judaism was introduced into China. In the course of time, the princes degenerated, and, under Hien-ti, China was divided into three kingdoms (220), which were again united by Wu-ti (280). He was the founder of the family of Tsin (265—420). The sovereigns of this family were bad rulers. The last, Kong-ti, was dethroned by Wu-ti, founder of the Song dynasty (420—479). A short time before this, a separate kingdom was formed in the southern provinces (386), called *U-tai*, or the five families. The Songs were likewise sovereigns of little worth. Whilst the whole aspect of Europe was changed by the general emigration of nations, two empires were formed in China, with the extinction of the dynasty of Tsin—one in the north (386), and the other in the south (420); the latter of which was likewise called *U-tai*, or the empire of the five families. In the latter reigned successively the family Song (till 479), Tsin (till 502), Lang (till 537), Tchin (till 589), Soui (till 619). The northern empire (386 till 587) was founded by the Goli Tartars, who conquered the northern part of China, and was governed by four dynasties,—two native and two foreign,—viz. the Goei, of the race of To-pa, and the Hew-Chew, of the race of Sien-pi. *a.* The dynasty of Goei reigned from 386 till 556 in three branches (Yuen-Goei till 534, Tong-Goei till 550, and Si-Goei or the western Goei, till 550); *b.* the dynasty of Pe-Tsi (the northern Tsi), from 550 till 577; *c.* the dynasty of Hew-Chew (the last Chew), from 557 till 581; *d.* the dynasty of Hew-Lang (the last Lang), from 554 till 587. Yang-Kien dethroned Hew-Chew (581), conquered the empire of Hew-Lang (587), of the Tsin (589), and founded the dynasty of Soui. The second emperor of this dynasty, Yang-ti, was dethroned by Li-ien (617), who founded the family of Tang, which maintained itself 300 years, and resided at Sia-gan-fu, in Shen-si. During the reign of the first emperors of this line, particularly under Li-ien's learned son Tai-tsong I (626), China grew very powerful. But his successors gave themselves up to pleasure, and were entirely governed by their eunuchs. Internal distractions were the consequences. The last emperor, Tchao-siuen-ti, was dethroned by Shu-wen, who founded the dynasty of Hehu-Lang (907). This, as well as the succeeding dynasties of Hehu-Tang (923), Hehu-Tsin (936), Hehu-Han (946), Hehu-Tchew (957), was of short duration. These are called *Hehu-U-tai*, or the five last families. After this, China was torn by internal commotions, and almost every province had a separate ruler, when, in 990, the people elected the able Shao-Quang-Yu emperor. He was the founder of the dynasty Sing, or Song, which reigned till 1279. His immediate successors resembled him, yet the country suffered considerably by the devastations of the Tartars. Under Yin-tsong (1012), the Chinese were forced to pay tribute to the Tartar Leao-tsang. Whey-tsong overthrew the empire of Leao-tsang (1101); but the Tartars possessed themselves of the whole of the north of China (Pe-cheli), 1125. Kao-tsong II was their tributary, and reigned over the southern provinces only. Under the emperor Ning-tsong, the Chinese formed an alliance with Genghis-Khan, and the Niu-cheng submitted to this great conqueror (1180). But the Mongols themselves turned their arms against China, and Kublai-Khan subjected them, after the death of the last emperor,

Ti-ping (1260). Under the Tang dynasty, arts and sciences flourished in China; several of the emperors themselves were learned men. The Chinese authors call the Mongolian dynasty of emperors *Yuen* (from 1279 till 1368), and Kublai-Khan is by them called *Shi-tsu*. This was the first time that the whole of China was subjected by foreign princes. But the conquerors conformed themselves entirely to the Chinese customs, and left the laws, manners and religion of the country unchanged. Most of the emperors of this line were able princes. But after the death of Timur-Khan, or Tsing-Tsang (Tamerlane), 1307, and still more after that of Yeson-Timur-Khan, or Tai-ting (1318), divisions in the imperial family frequently occasioned internal wars, which weakened the strength of the Mongols. The Chinese Chu took up arms against the voluptuous Toka-mur-Khan, or Shun-ti, and the Mongolian grandees became divided among themselves. Toka-mur-Khan fled into Mongolia (1368), where he died (1379). His son Bisurdar fixed his residence in the ancient Mongolian capital Karakorum, and was the founder of the empire of the Kalkas, or northern Yuen. This state did not remain long united; but, after the death of Tokoz-Timur (1460), each horde, under its own khan, became independent; in consequence of which, they were, with few exceptions, constantly kept in subjection to China after this period. Chu, afterwards called *Tai-tsoo IV*, a private individual, but worthy of the throne, delivered his country from the foreign yoke, and founded the dynasty of Ming (1368 till 1644), which gave the empire 16 sovereigns, most of whom were men of merit. On the frontiers of the empire, the remains of the Niudshee Tartars, now called *Mantchoos*, still existed. The emperor Shin-tsong II gave them lands in the province of Leao-tong; and, when an attempt was made, soon after, to expel them, they resisted successfully, under their prince Taitsu, and obtained possession of Leao-tong; upon which their chief assumed the title of emperor. He continued the war during the reigns of the Chinese emperors Quan-tsong and Hi-tsong, until his death. His son Ta-tsong succeeded him, and Hoai-tsong, a good but weak prince, was the successor of Hi-tsong on the throne of China. On the death of Ta-tsong, the Tartars did not appoint any one to succeed him, and discontinued the war. But in China, Li-tching excited an insurrection, during which Hong-Puan put an end to his life (1644). Li-tching's opponents called in the Mantchoos to their assistance. They got possession of Pekin, and of the whole empire, over which they still reign. Under Shun-chi, a child of six years old, the conquest of China was completed (1646—47), and the present dynasty of Tatim, or Tsim, or Tsing, was founded. He was succeeded, in 1662, by his son Kang-hi, who subdued the khan of the Mongols, took Formosa, and made several other additions to his empire. During the reign of this prince, the Christian religion was tolerated, but his son Yong-ching prohibited it in 1724. The son of the latter, Kien-Lung, continued the persecution against the Christians (1746—73). He conquered Cashgar, Yarkand, the greatest part of Songaria, the north-eastern part of Thibet and Lassa, the empires of Miao-tse and Siao-Kin-tshuen, and extended his territories to Hindostan and Bucharia. He peopled the Calmuck country, which the expulsion of the Songarians had rendered almost a desert, with the fugitive Torgots and Songarians from Russia. In 1768, he was totally defeated by the Birmese of Ava; nevertheless, the Chinese took possession of a town in Ava in 1770, and returned to their country with the loss of half of their army. They were more successful against the Miaotse (mountaineers). Towards the end of his reign, his minister, favorite and son-in-law, Ho-Tchington, abused his influence over him. Kien-Lung was succeeded, in 1799, by his 15th son, Kia-King. His reign was frequently disturbed by internal commotions; for in China there exist secret combinations of malcontents of all classes. In their nightly meetings, they curse the emperor, celebrate Priapian mysteries, and prepare everything for the arrival of a new Fo, who is to restore the golden age. The Catholics, whom he favored, have lost most of their privileges by their inconsiderate zeal, and at Pekin, the preaching of the Christian religion has been strictly prohibited. Kia-King was succeeded, in 1820, by his second son, Tara-Kwang, whom the Russians call *Daoguan*. The embassy of lord Macartney (q. v.) was not more successful in attempting to change the policy maintained by the court of China for more than 1000 years, than the Russian embassy of count Golowkin, or the more recent one of lord Amherst, the British ambassador, in 1816. The envoys were unable to form political or commercial treaties with this "celestial empire of the world," which treats all monarchs as its

vassals. (See Staunton's *Miscellaneous Notices relating to China*, &c. (London, 1822.) A history of China, translated from the Chinese of Choo-Foo-Tsze, by P. P. Thoms, many years resident at Macao, in China, was lately announced for publication. It is stated to commence with the reign of Fuh-he, according to Chinese chronology, B. C. 3000, and to reach the reign of Min-te, A. D. 300, including a period of 3300 years.

Chinese Language, Writing and Literature. The Chinese language belongs to that class of idioms which are called *monosyllabic.* (See *Languages.*) Every word of it consists only of one syllable. They may, however, be combined together as in the English words *welcome, welfare;* but every syllable is significant, and therefore is of itself a *word.* If the Chinese language were written, like our own, with an alphabet, it would be found to possess comparatively but few sounds. It wants the consonants *b, d, r, v,* and *z.* Every syllable ends with a vowel sound. The Chinese cannot articulate two consonants successively, without interposing a *sheva,* or English *u* short. Thus they pronounce the Latin word *Christus* in this manner, *Kul-iss-ut-oo-suh.* The number of syllables of which the Chinese language is composed is very small. According to Remusat, it does not exceed 252; but Montucci thinks there are 460. It is not, therefore, accurately known. But this number is quadrupled by four different tones or accents (some say five), of which an idea cannot be given by words. By means of these accents, the Chinese speak in a kind of *cantilena,* or recitative, which is not, however, much observed when they speak fast, in their ordinary conversation. It requires a nice ear to distinguish those varieties of tone. This language, consisting of monosyllables, is destitute of grammatical forms. The nouns and verbs cannot be inflected, and therefore the differences of tenses, moods, cases, and the like, are either left to be understood by means of the context, or expressed by the manner in which the words are placed in relation to each other, as in French, *sage-femme* and *femme-sage.* With all these deficiencies, if they can so be called, the Chinese understand each other perfectly well, and are never at a loss to express their ideas. Their extensive and varied literature is a proof of it; but this is generally ascribed to their writing, which, it is said, expresses more than their spoken language. But we do not concur with those who hold this opinion. We think that the spoken language is fully adequate to the expression of every idea, and that the written characters add nothing to its force. The enthusiasm with which some writers speak of the wonderful effects of the Chinese writings upon the minds of those who read them, has often reminded us of the *ocular harpsichord* of father Castel. The Chinese characters, like all others, represent the sounds, that is to say, the syllabic sounds or words of the spoken language; and through those sounds the ideas are communicated to the mind.—The writing of the Chinese, indeed, if we consider only the number of their characters, and compare it with that of their words, would seem to possess a very great superiority. There are not less than 80,000 Chinese characters; but of these only 10,000 are in common use, and the knowledge of them is sufficient to enable one to understand almost every Chinese book. It was once thought that it required a man's whole life to learn to read and write Chinese; but M. Remusat, the celebrated professor of that language in the royal college at Paris, has demonstrated by facts, that the Chinese may be learned in as short a time as any other idiom. The great number of these characters proceeds, in the first place, from the considerable quantity of homophonous words which exist in the Chinese. These are represented by different characters, as with us by different modes of spelling, of which the French words *cent, cens, sang, sans, sens, sent,* each having a different meaning, but all pronounced alike, are a striking example. Neither are homophonous words wanting in English, as *bow* and *bough, great* and *grate,* and many others. The Chinese characters, also, by being combined together, as it were, into one, express two or more words at the same time, and this, in a great degree, accounts for there being so many of them. The Chinese characters are all reducible to 214, which are called *keys* or *radicals* (in Chinese, *poo*), each of them representing one word, and each word an idea. By the analogy of those ideas the complex characters are formed—an ingenious contrivance, which facilitates very much the acquisition of the knowledge of them. Thus all the words which express some manual labor or occupation are combined of the character which represents the word *hand,* with some other, expressive of the particular occupation intended to be designated, or of the material employed. This has induced many of the learned, and even

the Chinese literati themselves, to maintain that the Chinese writing is *ideographic*, and represents ideas in a manner unconnected with the spoken language; but this supposition is disproved by the fact that no two Chinese can read aloud from the same book without using the same words, which are precisely those which the characters represent. If it were otherwise, every person in reading would use different words, and the *written language*, as it is called, would be *translated*, not *read*. It must be added, also, that the Chinese poetry is in *rhyme*, and therefore addressed to the ear, and not to the eye. This shows that it is impossible for those who are ignorant of the Chinese language to read the Chinese writing, unless their own idiom should be constructed exactly on the same model with the Chinese, have the same number of words, with the same meaning affixed to each, and the same grammatical forms. It has been repeatedly asserted that the Coreans, and other nations in the neighborhood of China, can all read the Chinese writing, and understand it, without knowing a word of the spoken language; but this appears impossible. It is more reasonable to suppose, either that they have adapted the Chinese characters to their own idioms, or that the Chinese is among them, as Latin is with us, a learned language, which is generally acquired as a part of a liberal system of education. The Chinese characters are written from top to bottom and from right to left. The lines are not horizontal, but perpendicular, and parallel to each other. The Chinese literature is rich in works of every description, both in verse and in prose. They are fond of works of moral philosophy, but they have a great many books of history, geography, voyages, dramas, romances, tales and fictions of all kinds. Several of the latter works have been lately translated in England and France. The books called the *Kings*, ascribed to their great sage Confucius, are now in a course of translation. The works of his successor, Meng-Tseu, have been lately published at Paris in the original, with an elegant Latin translation, in two octavo volumes, by M. Stanislas Julien. Other translations from the Chinese are in progress, both at London and Paris, under the patronage of the Asiatic societies of those capitals. The king of France has established a professorship of Chinese in the royal college at Paris. This chair is now filled by the learned Remusat, who has already formed several distinguished pupils. The study of the Chinese language appears to be now pursued with great ardor in Europe, and with remarkable success. The reverend Mr. Morrison has published a Chinese grammar, and a dictionary of the same language, in 4 vols., 4to.; the former printed at Serampore, the latter at Macao, and both difficult to be procured. M. Remusat has published at Paris an excellent grammar of that language. The manuscript dictionary of father Basil de Glemona was translated into French, and published at Paris, by M. de Guignes, under the patronage of the emperor Napoleon, in the year 1813, in one thick folio volume, to which a valuable supplement has been since added by M. Klaproth. Auxiliary means are not now wanting for those who are desirous of learning this curious idiom.

China Ware. (See *Porcelain*.)

Chinchilla. (See *Lanigera*.)

Chinese Style. (See *Architecture*.)

Chio; called by the ancients *Chios*. (See *Scio*.)

Chippeway; a town in Upper Canada, on the Chippeway or Welland, 2 miles N. W. Niagara falls, 10 S. Queenstown. This place is famous for a victory gained near it by the American troops over the British, July 5, 1814.

Chippeway; a river of the U. States in the North-West Territory, which runs S. W. into the Mississippi; lon. 92° W.; lat. 43° 45′ N.; length, about 300 miles.

Chippeways; Indians, in the North-West Territory, on the Chippeway, in Michigan Territory, and in Canada on the Utawas. Number, according to Pike, 11,177; 2049 warriors. (See *Indians*.)

Chiquitos; a province of S. America, in Buenos Ayres, inhabited, in 1732, by 7 Indian nations, each composed of about 600 families. The country is mountainous and marshy; but the more fertile soils produce a variety of fruits without culture. The varilla is common, and a kind of cocoa is found, whose fruit is more like a melon than a cocoa-nut. It lies to the south of Moxes.

Chiragra (*Greek*; from χεὶρ, the hand, and ἄγρα, a seizure); that species of arthritis, or gout, which attacks the joints of the hand (the wrist and knuckles) and hinders their motions. It gradually deprives the hands of their flexibility, and bends the fingers, distorts them, and impedes their action, by the accumulation of a calcareous matter around the sinews, which finally benumbs and stiffens the joints.

Chirograph. (See *Charter*.)

Chirology; the language of the fin-

gers, or the art of making one's self understood by means of the hands and fingers. It is an important means of communication for the deaf and dumb.

CHIROMANCY (from the Greek), or PALMISTRY; the pretended art of prognosticating by the lines of the hand. Its adherents maintain, that human inclinations, faults and virtues are designated in an infallible manner by the lines which divine Providence has originally drawn in the hands of all men. Traces of chiromancy are found in the writings of Aristotle, who asserts, for instance, that it is a sign of a long life if one or two lines run across the whole hand. The chiromancers quote some passages of the Bible to prove that their art is founded on the divine decrees, as the following:—"And it shall be for a sign unto thee upon thine hand, and for a memorial between thine eyes" (*Exodus* xiii. 9); and, "He sealeth up the hand of every man, that all men may know his work" (*Job* xxxvii. 7). In the middle ages, chiromancy was cultivated; and, in the present age, the French chiromancer madame Lenormand found, as she states, some eminent adepts in Paris, and in her travels to the different European congresses. The books in which chiromancy is explained and taught are numerous; and, in order to give dignity to the art, it has been connected with astrology. The Gipsies are at present the principal professors of chiromancy, and people who have no faith in the art not unfrequently amuse themselves with their predictions.

CHIRON; son of Saturn and Philyra. Saturn assumed the shape of a horse, in this amour, to deceive his wife Rhea. The shape of Chiron, therefore, was half that of a man, half of a horse. In point of fact, Chiron was one of the people called *Centaurs*. He was celebrated through all Greece for his wisdom and acquirements; and the greatest princes and heroes of the time—Bacchus, Jason, Hercules, Achilles, Æsculapius, Nestor, Theseus, Palamedes, Ulysses, Castor and Pollux, &c.—were intrusted to him for education. Besides the other branches in which young men of rank were instructed at that time, they learned from him music and medicine. He was particularly skilled in surgery. When Hercules drove the Centaurs from mount Pelion, they took refuge with Chiron, in Malea; but their enemy pursued them even into this retreat, and unfortunately wounded his old teacher with a misdirected arrow. The speedy operation of the poison, in which the arrow had been dipped, rendered remedies useless; and Chiron suffered the severest torments. The gods, at his prayer, put an end to his life, though his nature was immortal by reason of his descent from Saturn. After his death, he was placed among the stars, and became the constellation Sagittarius.

CHIRONOMY (χειρονομία, Greek; from χείρ, the hand, and νόμος, a rule); the science which treats of the rules of gesticulation, which is a part of pantomime. The ancient orators recognised the importance of gesticulation as a means of giving expressiveness to a discourse. (See Gilbert Austin's *Chironomia, or a Treatise on Rhetorical Delivery*, London, 1806.)

CHIVALRY (from the French *chevalier*, a horseman; in German, *Ritter*, which signifies likewise a *rider* on horseback). Poets still sometimes use *chivalry* for *cavalry*; but this word is generally employed to signify a certain institution of the middle ages. The age of chivalry is the heroic age of the Teutonic-Christian tribes, corresponding to the age of the Grecian heroes. This heroic period of a nation may be compared to the youth of an individual; and we find, therefore, nations, in this stage of their progress, distinguished by the virtues, follies, and even vices, to which the youth of individuals is most prone—thirst for glory, enthusiasm, pride, indescribable and indefinite aspirations after something beyond the realities of life, strong faith in virtue and intellectual greatness, together with much vanity and credulity. Chivalry, in the perfection of its glory and its extravagance, existed only among the German tribes, or those which were conquered by and mingled with them, and whose institutions and civilization were impregnated with the Teutonic spirit. Therefore we find chivalry never fully developed in Italy, because the Teutonic spirit never penetrated all the institutions of that country, as it found a civilization already established, of too settled a character to be materially affected by its influence. We do not find much of the chivalric spirit in Greece, nor among the Sclavonic tribes, except some traces among the Bohemians and the Poles, who had caught a portion of it from the Germans. Among the Swedes, though a genuine Teutonic tribe, chivalry never struck deep root; but this is to be ascribed to their remote situation, and to the circumstance that they early directed their attention to navigation and naval warfare, which, in many ways, were unfavorable to the growth of the chivalric spirit; affording, for instance, compara-

tively little opportunity for that display of courage and accomplishment in the eyes of admiring multitudes, or in the adventurous quests of the single knight, which formed so striking a feature of the chivalric age. Poets and orators are fond of declaring that the chivalric spirit is gone. The famous passage in Burke's Reflections is familiar to every one; but the man who coolly investigates the character of past times, and compares them with the present, will hardly come to the conclusion that our age is deficient in any of the qualities which constituted the glory of the age of chivalry. Their strength is the same; their direction only is changed. Is it courage which has departed? The soldier, who steadily marches up to the jaws of a battery, can hardly be considered less brave than the knights of former days, who cased their bodies in steel to meet far less formidable means of destruction. The late wars in Europe abound with displays of valor, which may compete with any recorded in history or romance. In the battle of Dresden, the emperor Napoleon (as Oldeleben relates in his account of Napoleon's campaign in Saxony), being seated before the Pirna gate, and seeing the artillerists in a redoubt shrink from serving the cannon, because the Prussian riflemen shot every man who presented himself, turned to his old guard, and said, "Show them how Frenchmen behave in battle;" when some of the soldiers addressed immediately sprung upon the redoubt, and marched up and down, in full view of the enemy, till they were shot. Of chivalric self-sacrifice, we can hardly find a more striking instance than that of a Prussian officer of the corps of colonel Schill (q. v.), who, when his comrades were condemned to death at Wesel, by a French court-martial, for a military expedition in contravention of the existing peace, refused the pardon which was proffered to him alone by Napoleon, and preferred to die with his fellow soldiers. Are we referred to the enthusiastic self-devotion which crowded the plains of Palestine with the thousands of European chivalry, eager to shed their blood for the tomb of their Savior? We say the same spirit in our days has chosen a nobler direction: the adventurers who expose themselves to every peril in the cause of science and human improvement, the Humboldts, Clappertons, Burckhardts, display equal heroism in a worthier cause. We would not govern ourselves by so narrow a theory of utility as to refuse to acknowledge what was really great and sublime in the spirit of chivalry, but we cannot admit that the virtues of the chivalric age have vanished, because they now appear with less show and gorgeousness.

To explain the nature and origin of chivalry, we must consider the character of the ancient German tribes. The warlike spirit was common to them with other barbarous nations; but there were certain traits in their character peculiarly their own. Among these was their esteem for women. This is dwelt upon by Tacitus, and is sufficiently apparent from the early native German historians. This regard for the female sex was diffused by them through every country into which they spread, though with considerable difference in the forms in which it developed itself. In France, it became that refined gallantry, for which the nation has been so long conspicuous; in Spain, it assumed a more romantic and glowing character, displaying much of the fire of Oriental feeling; in Germany itself, it became faithful and tender attachment to the wedded wife. Undoubtedly the Christian religion assisted in developing this feeling of esteem for the female sex in those times, particularly by the adoration of the Virgin, which was taught as a part of it. The constant reverence of this deified image of chastity and female purity must have had a great effect. We do not conceive, however, that the elevated condition of women can be referred entirely to the Christian religion, as we see that it has not produced this effect in the instance of nations who have had no opportunity of imbibing the Teutonic spirit; and many Asiatic nations recognise that feature of this religion, to which we have attributed so much efficacy, (namely the birth of the being whom they worship from a virgin,) and yet keep their women in a very degraded condition. We may be told, in answer to our claim of the peculiar regard for the female as a characteristic of the Teutonic tribes, that women were held in high esteem by the Romans. It is true that wives and mothers were treated with great regard by the Romans, and the history of no nation affords more numerous instances of female nobleness; but this esteem was rendered to them, not as females, but as the faithful companions and patriotic mothers of citizens. It had somewhat of a political cast. But this was not the case with the Germans. There is another trait of the German character, which deserves to be considered in this connexion, which is very apparent in their literature, and the lives of many individu-

als; we mean that indefinite thirst for something superior to the realities of life, that *sehnen*, to use their own word, which hardly admits of translation, which has produced among them at the same time so much excellence and so much extravagance. These three traits of the Teutonic race, their warlike spirit, their esteem for women, and their indefinable thirst for superhuman greatness, together with the influence of the feudal system and of the Roman Catholic religion, afford an explanation of the spirit of chivalry—an institution which, to many observers, appears like an isolated point in history, and leaves them in doubt whether to despise it as foolish, or admire it as sublime. The feudal system divided the Christian Teutonic tribes into masses, the members of which were united, indeed, by some political ties, but had little of that intimate connexion which bound men together in the communities of antiquity, and has produced like effects in our own and a few preceding ages. They still preserved, in a great measure, the independence of barbarians. There was, however, one strong bond of union, which gave consistency to the whole aggregate; we mean the Roman Catholic religion, which has lost much of its connecting power, in proportion as other ties, chiefly those of a common civilization, have gained strength. The influence of this religion was of great service to mankind during the ages of ignorance and violence, by giving coherency to the links of the social chain, which were continually in danger of parting. To this cause is to be ascribed the great uniformity of character which prevailed during the ages of chivalry. The feudal system, besides, enabled the gentry to live on the labors of the oppressed peasants, without the necessity of providing for their own support, and to indulge the love of adventures incident to their warlike and ambitious character. If we now combine the characteristics which we have been considering—a warlike spirit, a lofty devotion to the female sex, an undefinable thirst for glory, connected with feudal independence, elevation above the drudgery of daily toil, and a uniformity of character and purpose, inspired by the influence of a common religion—we obtain a tolerable view of the chivalric character. This character had not yet quite developed itself in the age of Charlemagne. The courage exhibited by the warriors of his age was rather the courage of individuals in bodies. The independence, the individuality of character, which distinguished the errant knight who sought far and wide for adventures to be achieved by his single arm, was the growth of a later period. The use of the war-horse, which formed so essential an instrument of the son of chivalry, was not common among the Germans until the time of their wars with the Huns. They were indeed acquainted with it before, and Tacitus mentions it in his account of Germany; but it was not in common use among them till the period we have mentioned. After it was introduced, cavalry was considered among them, as among all nations in the early stages of their progress, much superior to infantry, which was, in fact, despised, until the successes of the Swiss demonstrated its superiority. In the 11th century, knighthood had become an established and well-defined institution; but it was not till the 14th that its honors were confined exclusively to the nobility (q. v.). The crusades gave a more religious turn to the spirit of chivalry, and made the knights of all Christian nations known to each other, so that a great uniformity is thenceforward to be perceived among them throughout Europe. Then arose the religious orders of knights, the knights of St. John, the templars, the Teutonic knights, &c. The whole establishment of knighthood assumed continually a more formal character, and, degenerating, like every human institution, sunk at last into Quixotic extravagances, or frittered away its spirit amid the forms and punctilios springing from the pride and the distinctions of the privileged orders of society. It merged, in fact, among the abuses which it has been one of the great labors of our age to overthrow. The decline of chivalry might be traced through the different forms which it assumed in different nations as distinctly as its developement—a task too extensive for this work.

The education of a knight was briefly as follows:—The young and noble stripling, generally about his 12th year, was sent to the court of some baron or noble knight, where he spent his time chiefly in attending on the ladies, and acquiring skill in the use of arms, in riding, &c. This duty of waiting about the persons of the ladies became, in the sequel, as injurious to the morals of the page as it may have been salutary in the beginning. When advancing age and experience in the use of arms had qualified the page for war, he became an *escuyer* (esquire or squire). This word is generally supposed to be derived from *escu* or *scudo* (shield), because, among other offices, it was the

squire's business to carry the shield of the knight whom he served. The third and highest rank of chivalry was that of knighthood, which was not conferred before the 21st year, except in the case of distinguished birth or great achievements. The individual prepared himself by confessing, fasting, &c.; religious rites were performed; and then, after promising to be faithful, to protect ladies and orphans, never to lie, nor utter slander, to live in harmony with his equals, &c. (in France, there were 20 vows of knighthood) he received the *accolade* (q. v.), a slight blow on the neck with the flat of the sword, from the person who dubbed him a knight, who, at the same time, pronounced a formula to this effect: "I dub thee knight, in the name of God and St. Michael (or in the name of the Father, Son and Holy Ghost). Be faithful, bold and fortunate." This was often done on the eve of battle, to stimulate the new knight to deeds of valor, or, after the combat, to reward signal bravery.

Though no man of any reflection would wish for the return of the age of chivalry, yet we must remember that chivalry exercised, in some respects, a salutary influence at a time when governments were unsettled and laws little regarded. Though chivalry often carried the feelings of love and honor to a fanatical excess, yet it did much good by elevating them to the rank of deities; for the reverence paid to them principally prevented mankind, at this period of barbarous violence, from relapsing into barbarism; and, as the feudal system was unavoidable, it is well that its evils were somewhat alleviated by the spirit of chivalry. The influence which chivalry had on poetry was very great. The *troubadours* in the south of France, the *trouveres* in the north of the same country, the *minstrels* in England, the *Minnesänger* in Germany, sung the achievements of the knights who received them hospitably. (See *Ballad.*) In Provence arose the *cours d'amour* (q. v.), which decided the poetical contests of the knights. Amorous songs (*chansons*), duets (*tensons*), pastoral songs (*pastourelles*) and poetical colloquies (*sirventes*) were performed. In Germany, the chivalric spirit produced one of the most splendid and sublime epics, the *Nibelungenlied.* (q. v.) By the intercourse with the East, which grew up during the crusades, fairies, and all the wonders of enchantment, were introduced into the romantic or chivalric poetry. It is probable, however, that there existed something of the same kind before the influence of the East was felt; for instance, the stories of the enchanter Merlin. Chivalric poetry, in our opinion, begins, as Schlegel has shown, with the mythological cyclus of king Arthur's round table. The second cyclus is that of Charlemagne and his paladins, his 12 peers, which remained the poetical foundation of chivalric poetry for many centuries. The cyclus of Amadis (q. v.), which belongs, perhaps, exclusively to Spain, does not rest on any historical ground. (For further information, see the article *Chivalry*, in the supplement to the *Encyclopædia Britannica*, written by sir Walter Scott, which contains many interesting facts, though the writer does not investigate very deeply the spirit of the institution. The article *Chevalerie*, in the *Encyclopédie Moderne*, is full of valuable information. The preface to lord Byron's Childe Harold should not be forgotten. See also Heeren's *Essay on the Influence of the Crusades*, translated into French from the German; Büsching's *Vorlesungen über Ritterzeit und Ritterwesen*, Leipsic, 1823, 2 vols.; *Mémoires sur l'ancienne Chevalerie, par Lacurne de Sainte-Palaye*, Paris, 1826, 2 vols., with engravings; and last, but not least, *Don Quixote.* See also the article *Tournament*, and the other articles in this work connected with this subject.) We have dwelt so long on chivalry, as we think a correct view of it important to the understanding of many other subjects, and as some of our views may be new to our readers.

Chladni, Ernest Florence Frederic, one of the most distinguished proficients in the science of acoustics, born at Wittenberg, 1756, son of E. M. Chladenius, professor in the faculty of law at that place, received his first education in the royal school at Grimma, devoted himself afterwards at Wittenberg and Leipsic to law, and in the latter university was made doctor of philosophy in 1781, and, in 1782, doctor of law. After the death of his father, he abandoned the law, and devoted himself entirely to the study of nature, in which he had hitherto employed all his leisure hours. As an amateur of music, in which he received his first instruction at the age of 19 years, he observed that the theory of sound was much more neglected than the other branches of physics, and determined to supply this deficiency. The study of mathematics and physics, with reference to music, enabled him to present new views relative to the theory and practice of the art. Since 1787, he

has proved himself a profound naturalist, by several works, relating, principally, to sound and tone; e. g., his Discoveries in Regard to the Theory of Sound (Leipsic, 1787); Suggestions for promoting a better Explanation of the Theory of Sound, a work dedicated to the society of naturalists at Berlin. His principal composition, which is a classical work in its kind, is his Acoustics (Leipsic, 1802, 4to., with copperplates), preceded by the history of his discoveries in acoustics. (A French translation, revised by himself, appeared in Paris, 1809—*Traité d'Acoustique.*) He has also written Further Contributions to Acoustics (Leipsic, 1817), and Contributions to Practical Acoustics and the Theory of Constructing Instruments (Leipsic, 1822). Chladni is the inventor of the euphon and the clavicylinder. To make these instruments known, he spent 10 years in visiting the capital cities of Germany, Holland, France, Italy, Russia, Denmark, and everywhere gained the esteem of connoisseurs. He returned, in 1812, to his native place, where he is continually employed in new researches. He also commenced examinations of the bolides, or fiery meteors, the phenomena of which, as the flame, smoke, noise, &c., have little in common with the electrical phenomena with which they have been confounded. He endeavored to prove, in two treatises, On the Origin of the Iron Masses found by Pallas, and other similar Masses (Riga, 1794), and On Fiery Meteors (Vienna, 1819), 1. that the stories which represent masses of stone as having fallen on our earth are worthy of credit; and, 2. that these masses and meteors are not the productions of our earth, and come from beyond the region of our atmosphere. (See *Meteoric Stones.*)

Chloric Acid. (See *Chlorine.*)

Chloride of Nitrogen. (See *Chlorine.*)

Chlorine. The discovery of this gas was made in 1770, by Scheele, and named, by its discoverer, *dephlogisticated marine acid.* The term *dephlogisticated* had exactly the same import as that of *oxygenated*, soon afterwards introduced by Lavoisier. From its peculiar yellowish-green color, the appellation of *chlorine* (from χλωρὸς, green) has been given to it. Chlorine gas is obtained by the action of muriatic acid on the peroxide of manganese. The most convenient method of preparing it is by mixing concentrated muriatic acid, contained in a glass flask, with half its weight of finely-powdered peroxide of manganese. On the application of a moderate heat, the gas is evolved, and should be collected in inverted glass bottles, filled with warm water. In order to comprehend the theory of this process, it must be premised that muriatic acid consists of chlorine and hydrogen. The peroxide of manganese is composed of manganese and oxygen. When these compounds react on one another, the peroxide of manganese gives up a portion of its oxygen to the hydrogen of the muriatic acid, in consequence of which water is generated, and chlorine (the other ingredient in muriatic acid) is liberated. The method which is employed in the arts, and which is the most economical, is the following:—Three parts of common salt (muriate of soda) are intimately mingled with one of the peroxide of manganese, and to this mixture two parts of sulphuric acid, diluted with an equal weight of water, are then added. By the action of sulphuric acid on the muriate of soda, muriatic acid is disengaged, which reacts as before explained upon the peroxide of manganese; so that, instead of adding muriatic acid directly to the manganese, the materials for forming it are employed. Chlorine is gaseous under a common atmospheric pressure. It is twice and a half heavier than atmospheric air, or its specific gravity is 2.5. The gas has a yellowish-green color. Of all the gases, it is the most insupportable in its action on the lungs. When pure, it occasions immediate death if an animal is immersed in it; and even when largely diluted with common air, it cannot be respired with safety. It occasions a severe sense of stricture at the breast, which renders it impossible to make a full inspiration. This continues for a considerable time after it has been inspired, and has often produced a permanently injurious effect. When thoroughly dried, by exposure to fused chloride of calcium, it suffers no change, though cooled to 40°. When prepared over water, however, so as to contain a quantity of aqueous vapor, it condenses on the sides of the vessel even at a temperature of 40°; and, if surrounded by snow or ice, it shoots into acicular crystals of a bright-yellow color, and sometimes two inches in length, which remain attached to the sides of the vessel. This solid is a hydrate of chlorine, and, when heated to 50°, it melts into a yellowish oily fluid. Chlorine is absorbed by water, in a quantity which increases as the temperature diminishes. At 50°, the water takes up about twice its volume. The solution has a yellowish-green color, and

its odor is that of the gas itself. Its taste is rather styptic than sour, and the liquid, like the gas, has the property of destroying the vegetable colors. Hence it may be employed in bleaching. It is not changed by a boiling temperature. Solution of chlorine is decomposed, however, by exposure to the solar light; the chlorine attracts hydrogen from the water, forming muriatic acid, which remains dissolved, and pure oxygen is disengaged. Chlorine gas supports the combustion of a number of inflammable substances. A lighted taper burns in it, though feebly, with a red flame; phosphorus takes fire when immersed in it; and a number of the metals, as antimony, arsenic, copper and others, if introduced into it in leaves or filings, burn spontaneously. Potassium and sodium burn vividly in it. In these cases, the inflammable or metallic substances are believed simply to unite with the chlorine. Chlorine combines with many of these bases in more than one proportion. When in one proportion, the compound is called a *chloride;* when in two, a *bi-chloride*, or a *deuto-chloride*, &c. Whenever a metallic chloride, which is soluble in water, is thrown into that fluid, it is conceived to be instantly converted into a muriate; the water present is decomposed, its oxygen goes to the metallic base, and its hydrogen to the chlorine, and a muriate of an alkali, earth, or metallic oxide, is formed. Thus common salt, when dry, is a chloride of sodium: it is no salt, containing neither acid nor alkali, but, whenever it is dissolved in water, it is immediately transformed into a salt: the sodium attracts oxygen and becomes soda, and the chlorine takes hydrogen and becomes muriatic acid, and muriate of soda exists in the solution. When any of the compounds of chlorine, with inflammable substances or metals, are subjected to the action of a galvanic apparatus sufficiently powerful to decompose them, the chlorine is always evolved at the positive pole of the battery, and the base at the negative pole. In this respect, and in its power of supporting combustion, chlorine is analogous to oxygen. One of the most important chemical properties of chlorine is displayed in its action on the vegetable colors. Many of them it entirely destroys; and even those which are the most deep and permanent, such as the color of indigo, it renders faint, and changes to a light yellow or brown. This agency is exerted by it, both in its gaseous and its liquid form. The presence of water is, however, necessary to this. Hence, when the gas destroys color, it must, probably, be enabled so to do by the hygrometric water it contains. It is accordingly found, that, when freed from this, it does not destroy the color of dry litmus paper. The destruction of color appears to be owing to the communication of the oxygen of the water present to the coloring matter: the chlorine attracts the hydrogen of the water to form muriatic acid, and the evolved oxygen unites with the coloring matter, and, by changing its constitution, alters its relation to light, so that the tint disappears. Berthollet applied this agency of chlorine to the process of bleaching, and with such success as to have entirely changed the manipulations of that art. The method of using it has been successively improved. It consisted, at first, in subjecting the thread or cloth to the action of the gas itself; but the effect, in this way, was unequally produced, and the strength and texture were sometimes injured. It was then applied, condensed by water, and in a certain state of dilution. The thread, or cloth, was prepared as in the old method of bleaching, by boiling first in water, and then in alkaline lye; it was then immersed in the diluted chlorine: this alternate application of alkali and chlorine was continued until the color was discharged. The offensive, suffocating odor of the gas rendered this mode of using it, however, scarcely practicable; the odor was found to be removed by condensing the chlorine by a weak solution of potash: lime, diffused in water, being more economical, was afterwards substituted. Under all these forms, the chlorine, by decomposing water, and causing oxygen to be imparted to the coloring matter, weakens or discharges the color, and the coloring matter appears to be rendered more soluble in the alkaline solution, alternately applied, and of course more easily extracted by its action. More lately, a compound of chlorine and lime has been employed, prepared by exposing slacked lime to chlorine gas: the gas is quickly absorbed, and the *chloride of lime*, as it is called, being dissolved in water, forms the bleaching liquor now commonly employed, and which possesses many advantages. In using it, the colored cloth is first steeped in warm water to clean it, and is then repeatedly washed with a solution of caustic potash, so diluted that it cannot injure the texture of the cloth, and which is thrown upon it by a pump; the cloth is then washed and steeped in a very weak solution of chloride of lime, again washed, acted on by a boiling lye as before, and again steeped in

the solution; and these operations are performed alternately several times. The cloth is lastly immersed in very dilute sulphuric acid, which gives it a pure white color; after which it is washed and dried. Chloride of magnesia has been substituted, with great advantage, for that of lime, in whitening cloth for calico printing; the cloth, when lime is used, retaining a little of it, which, in the subsequent operation of clearing by immersion in weak sulphuric acid, forms sulphate of lime, which remains, and affects the colors when it is dyed; while the sulphate of magnesia is so soluble, that it is entirely removed. Chloride of alumine has been employed to discharge the color of the Turkey-red dye, which resists the action of other chlorides, and is only discharged by chlorine gas, by an operation very injurious to the workmen. Another important application of chlorine gas is that of destroying or neutralizing contagion. Acid vapors, sulphurous acid in particular, under the form of the fumes of burning sulphur, had often been employed for that purpose; but chlorine, from the facility with which it decomposes the different compound gases that contain the elements of vegetable and animal matter, and which may be supposed to constitute noxious effluvia, is superior to any other agent, and is now universally employed for the purposes of fumigation. It is the only agent which can administer relief in cases of asphyxia from sulphureted hydrogen; and it has been found useful, among such persons as are obliged to frequent places where contagious effluvia are constantly developed, to bathe the hands and arms with its solution. Chlorine, united with hydrogen, forms an important compound, called *muriatic*, or *hydrochloric acid gas*. (See *Muriatic Acid*.) With oxygen, it gives rise to four distinct compounds, which are remarkable for the feeble attraction of their constituent elements, notwithstanding the strong affinity of oxygen and chlorine for most elementary substances. These compounds are never met with in nature. Indeed, they cannot be formed by the direct combination of their constituents; and their decomposition is effected by the slightest causes. Notwithstanding this, their union is always regulated by the law of definite proportions, as appears from the following tabular view, illustrative of their composition.

	Chlorine.	*Oxygen.*
Protoxide of chlorine	36	8
Peroxide of chlorine	36	32
Chloric acid	36	40
Perchloric acid	36	56

Chlorine forms, along with nitrogen, one of the most explosive compounds yet known, and was the cause of serious accidents to M. Dulong, its discoverer, and afterwards to sir H. Davy. The *chloride of nitrogen* is formed from the action of chlorine on some salt of ammonia, chlorine and nitrogen being incapable of uniting, when presented to each other in their gaseous form. Its formation is owing to the decomposition of ammonia (a compound of hydrogen and nitrogen) by chlorine. The hydrogen of the ammonia unites with chlorine, and forms muriatic acid; while the nitrogen of the ammonia, being presented in its nascent state to chlorine, dissolved in the solution, enters into combination with it. The chloride of nitrogen has a specific gravity of 1.653; it does not congeal by the intense cold produced by a mixture of snow and salt. At a temperature between 200° and 212°, it explodes; and mere contact with most substances of a combustible nature causes detonation at common temperatures. The products of the explosion are chlorine and nitrogen. Three distinct compounds of *chlorine* and *carbon* have of late been made known by Faraday; but for an account of these, as well as of the *chlorides of sulphur and of phosphorus*, and the *chloro-carbonic acid gas*, the reader is referred to the larger treatises on chemistry, it being incompatible with the plan of the present work to enter into those details which are not connected with the useful arts, or which are not absolutely necessary in order to afford a correct idea of the mode of reasoning and general theory of the science.*

Chlorite. (See *Talc*.)

Choc (from the French *choc*, the violent meeting of two bodies), in military language, signifies a violent attack. It is generally applied to a charge of cavalry. To give such an attack its full effect, it is necessary, 1. that the line be preserved unbroken, so that the attack shall take effect at all points at the same time; 2. that the horses be strong and heavy, that their momentum may be great; 3. that the

* A letter of M. Dauvergne to M. Gay-Lussac, in the *Ann. de Chemie*, recently published, states the effect of chlorine as an antidote of hydrocyanic acid. A cat, to which two drops of hydrocyanic acid were given through the lachrymal gland, was affected most violently by the poison. While the animal was in this condition, some chlorine was put into her mouth, and, one hour after, she was able to make a few tottering steps: the next morning the animal was quite well. It has also been lately stated, in the public journals, that the French physicians have found chlorine very effectual in preserving from the plague, if put on the linen, &c.

charge be made as swiftly as possible, not merely for the sake of the physical effect, but also of the moral effect which it has on the enemy. This swiftness, however, must be attained gradually, increasing as the distance diminishes. The charge commences with a short trot; a long trot follows; at the distance of 150 paces, this is increased to a gallop; and 50 paces from the enemy, the horse must be put to his speed. A choc, whether successful or not, is of short duration.

Chocolate. (See *Cacao.*)

Choctaws, or Flat-Heads; a tribe of Indians, residing between the Mississippi and the Tombigbee, partly in Alabama, but mostly in Mississippi. Their territory is bounded N. and N. E. by that of the Chickasaws. The country has a fertile soil, and is traversed by the upper waters of the Yazoo, Big Black, and Pearl rivers. Their number is estimated at about 20,000 or 25,000. They are a hardy, intrepid and ingenious race, and have made, within the last 20 years, great advances in agriculture and other arts of civilized life. They raise cotton, and manufacture it into cloth for their ordinary use, and often appear well clad in garments of their own making. In 1818, the American board of foreign missions established a mission among the Indians at Elliot, on the Yalo Busha, a branch of the Yazoo; and, since that period, eight other similar establishments have been formed. (See *Indians.*)

Choczim (*Chotschim*); an important frontier fortress of Russia, on the right bank of the Dniester, opposite to Kaminiec, in Bessarabia, with 25,000 inhabitants and a considerable trade. The people are entirely employed in furnishing supplies for the army. The Turks caused Choczim to be regularly fortified, in 1718, by French engineers; but it was taken by the Russians in 1730, 1769 and 1788. As the Pruth, in Europe, is, at present, the boundary of the two empires, the situation of Choczim renders it of great importance as an arsenal and place of rendezvous.

Chodowiecki, Daniel Nicholas, a painter and engraver, born at Dantzick, 1726, received from his father, in his leisure hours, his first instruction in miniature-painting, which he practised with great assiduity, in order to support his mother, after the death of his father. His first trials excited the astonishment of connoisseurs. A little engraving, the *Play at Dice*, in 1756, particularly attracted the attention of the academy of Berlin. During the seven years' war, he engraved various subjects connected with it; among others, the *Russian Prisoners at Berlin*, which is now rare. The history of the unhappy Calas gave him an affecting subject for a picture, which, at the desire of all who saw it, he engraved on copper. The impressions of the year 1767 are particularly esteemed. Almost all the plates to Lavater's Physiognomical Fragments are from his designs. He engraved several of them himself. At last, scarcely a book appeared in Prussia, for which he did not engrave at least a vignette. The number of his engravings is more than 3000; but we must observe, that he was in the habit of making changes in his plates, after a number of copies had been struck off, so that all the copies of the same plate are not entirely alike. He must be considered the founder of a new art in Germany—that of representing modern figures. He died, Feb. 1, 1801, at Berlin, where he was director of the academy of arts. He was universally esteemed for his integrity.

Choir; that part of the church where the choristers sing. In some old churches, the seats of the choristers, and other parts of the choir, are ornamented with admirable carved work. (See *Architecture*, vol. I, page 343, sect. vii., *Gothic style.*)

Choiseul, Etienne François de; duke de Choiseul et d'Amboise; minister of state of Louis XV; born in 1719. When count of Stainville, he displayed a brilliant courage, and was rapidly promoted. His marriage with a rich heiress, sister to the duchess of Gontaut, and his intimate connexion with the marchioness de Pompadour, permitted him to indulge his ambitious hopes, which he never concealed. He went as ambassador to Rome, and, in 1756, in the same capacity, to Vienna. In 1757, he succeeded the cardinal Bernis, then minister of foreign affairs, who, from chagrin at the opposition which he experienced, after the conclusion of the much-contested alliance with Austria, resigned his office. The new minister quickly gained the greatest influence. He was made duke and peer, and administered, at the same time, the department of war. He afterwards resigned the department of foreign affairs to the *count* Choiseul, who subsequently became duke of Praslin. Without having the name; he was, in fact, prime minister, and conducted alone all the public affairs. From the beginning, he was unfriendly to the Jesuits, and united with the parliaments to

effect their ruin. Meanwhile, the seven years' war continued, and France, after experiencing continual reverses, was compelled, by the exhausted state of her finances, to conclude a peace, in 1763, on unfavorable terms. This misfortune could not be ascribed to the two ministers who divided between themselves the administration of the state. Less able ministers would probably have been obliged to make greater sacrifices. But the honors and demonstrations of favor with which Choiseul and Praslin were loaded were sufficient to draw upon them the bitterest accusations. Their enemies asserted that they only prolonged the war to render themselves necessary, and reproached them for not having sooner concluded peace. Madame de Pompadour died in 1764, the dauphin in 1765, and the dauphiness in 1767. After spreading the most absurd and infamous reports concerning the death of the dauphin, to throw suspicions on Choiseul, his enemies, the duke d'Aiguillon, the abbé Terray, and the chancellor Maupeou, had recourse to the vilest instruments to effect his ruin. They succeeded so far, that Louis XV, in spite of the representations of the minister, and his own promises, degraded the royal dignity by introducing the countess du Barry (q. v.) at court. At first, the countess used all her arts to insinuate herself into the favor of the minister. Her ambition was, to succeed to all the influence of madame de Pompadour. Choiseul haughtily refused her proposals; but, laudable as was his conduct towards the mistress, he ought not to have allowed himself to forget the respect due to his king and benefactor. He might, perhaps, have persuaded him by compliance: his boldness only irritated him, and supplied his enemies with new pretexts for assailing him. The duchess of Grammont, the minister's sister, always possessed great influence over him. She exercised it, on this occasion, without the least moderation, encouraged by the discontent of the nation, which favored the parliaments, then attacked by the chancellor Maupeou. The cause of the parliaments and the minister soon became one. The king was persuaded that Choiseul excited them to opposition. The attachment of Louis to his minister struggled, for some time, against the intrigues of his enemies; but, in December, 1770, he announced to him, in severe terms, his disgrace, and his banishment to Chanteloup. The departure of Choiseul resembled a triumph. His removal was considered, by the nation, a public misfortune. He lived three years in exile, surrounded by a splendid and select society. On the death of Louis XV, he recovered his liberty, having been in exile just long enough to increase his reputation, and to confirm the general esteem in which he was held. While minister of war, after seven years of reverses, he had changed the organization of the army, in consequence of the new tactics introduced by Frederic the Great. Although the displeasure of the old officers was excited, and many gave in their resignations, yet the necessity of the change was soon evident. The corps of artillery received a new form, and excellent schools were established, in which officers were educated, who rendered the French artillery the finest in Europe. The same improvements were made in the corps of engineers. Choiseul devoted particular attention to the West Indies. Martinique was fortified anew, and St. Domingo raised to the highest degree of prosperity. When Choiseul and Praslin left the ministry, in 1770, the loss of the fleet had been repaired in less than seven years. It consisted of 64 ships of the line and 50 frigates and corvettes. The magazines were filled. Choiseul also concluded the family compact, which united all the sovereigns of the house of Bourbon, and placed the Spanish fleet at the disposal of France. Thus he recovered the respect which France had lost by her military reverses. His firmness supplied what was wanting to his country in real strength. He conquered Corsica without any open opposition from England. Convinced of the importance of the independence of Poland for the balance of Europe, he continually thwarted the ambitious designs of Russia, and involved it in a war with Turkey, which he would have supported more vigorously, had not the king himself opposed it. French officers were sent to the Polish confederates, to the Turks, and the East Indian princes, whom he hoped to arm, as well as the American colonies, against the English. Prodigal of his own fortune, he was frugal in the public expenditures. Louis XV soon felt the loss of Choiseul, and exclaimed, on hearing of the division of Poland, "This would not have happened had Choiseul been here." After Louis XVI ascended the throne, Choiseul was recalled, and received in the most honorable manner, but was not again admitted into the ministry. Notwithstanding his immense debts, he continued to support an expensive style of living, and

died in 1785, without children. His nephew and heir was

Choiseul-Stainville, Claude Antoine Gabriel, duke of, born 1762, peer of France before the revolution. He emigrated in 1792, after he had assisted the flight of the king, in 1791, and been arrested and released. He raised a regiment of hussars, and served against France. In the sequel, he was shipwrecked on the French coast, taken, and remained four years in prison, while it was debated whether the laws against emigrants returning to France were applicable to him. The first consul released him, and caused him to be transported into a neutral territory, January 1, 1800. In 1801, he gave him permission to return to France. After the restoration, Choiseul was made lieutenant-general. In the house of peers, he joined the constitutional party. He has written *Rélation du Départ de Louis XVI, le 20 Juin*, 1791, and the *Hist. et Procès des Naufragés de Calais* (both in the *Mémoires des Contemporains*).

Choiseul-Gouffier, Marie Gabriel Auguste, count de, peer of France, born in 1752, adopted the name of *Gouffier* after his marriage with Mlle. de Gouffier. In 1776, he travelled in Greece and Asia. His instructive journal of his travels obtained him a seat in the academy. In 1784, he was ambassador at Constantinople, and took with him several literary men and artists, in whose society he occupied himself, during his leisure hours, in learned researches. In 1791, he was appointed ambassador to the court of London, but remained in Constantinople, and addressed all his notes to the brothers of Louis XVI, then in Germany. But, on the retreat from Champagne, this correspondence fell into the hands of the republicans, and, October 22, 1792, the convention ordered his arrest. He therefore left Constantinople, and repaired to Russia, where the empress granted him a pension, as an academician. In February, 1797, he was appointed privy-counsellor by the emperor Paul I. In 1802, he returned to France, and, in the following year, as a member of the former academy, was admitted into the national institute, and, more lately, into the academy itself, after its restoration. He died in the summer of 1817. The 1st part of the 2d volume of his *Voyage pittoresque en Grèce* appeared in 1809, the 2d part in 1820, the 3d in 1824, gr. folio, with copperplates and an atlas. The 1st volume of this work was published in 1782. In 1816, he read, in the academy of inscriptions, a *Dissertation sur Homère*, directed against the German philosophers.

Cholera (Celsus derives it from χολὴ and ῥέω, literally, a flow of bile, and Trallian from χολὰς and ῥέω, intestinal flux); *diarrhœa cholerica; fellifluæ passio;* a genus of disease arranged by Cullen in the class *neuroses* and order *spasmi*. It is a purging and vomiting of bile, attended with anxiety, painful gripings, spasms of the abdominal muscles, and those of the calves of the legs. There are two species of this genus:—1. *Cholera spontanea*, which happens, in hot seasons, without any manifest cause. 2. *Cholera accidentalis*, which occurs after the use of food that digests slowly and irritates. In warm climates, it is met with at all seasons of the year, and its occurrence is very frequent; but in England, and other cold climates, it is most prevalent in the middle of summer, particularly in the month of August; and the violence of the disease has usually been greater in proportion to the intenseness of the heat. It usually comes on with soreness, pain, distension, and flatulency in the stomach and intestines, succeeded quickly by a severe and frequent vomiting, and purging of bilious matter, heat, thirst, a hurried respiration, and frequent but weak and fluttering pulse. When the disease is not violent, these symptoms, after continuing for a day or two, cease gradually, leaving the patient in a debilitated and exhausted state; but where the disease proceeds with much violence, great depression of strength ensues, with cold, clammy sweats, considerable anxiety, a hurried and short respiration, and hiccoughs, with a sinking and irregularity of the pulse, which quickly terminate in death—an event that not unfrequently happens within the space of 24 hours. The appearances generally observed on dissection are, a quantity of bilious matter in the *primæ viæ*; the ducts of the liver relaxed and distended. Several of the viscera have been found, in some cases, displaced, probably by the violent vomiting. In the early period of the disease, when the strength is not much exhausted, the object is, to lessen the irritation, and facilitate the discharge of the bile, by tepid demulcent liquids, frequently administered. It will likewise be useful to procure a determination to the surface, by fomentations of the abdomen, by the foot-bath, or even the warm-bath. But where the symptoms are urgent, and the patient appears rapidly sinking from the continued vomiting, violent pain, &c., it is necessary to give opium freely, but in a

small bulk, from one to three grains, or even more, in a table-spoonful of linseed infusion, or with an effervescing saline draught, which must be repeated at short intervals, perhaps every hour, till relief be obtained. Sometimes, where the stomach could not be got to retain the opium, it has answered in the form of clyster; or a liniment containing it may be rubbed into the abdomen; or a blister, applied over the stomach, may lessen the irritability of that organ. Afterwards, the bile may be allowed to evacuate itself downwards; or mild aperients, or clysters, given, if necessary, to promote its discharge. When the urgent symptoms are relieved, the strength must be restored by gentle tonics, as the aromatic bitters, calumba, and the like, with a light, nutritious diet: strong toast and water is the best drink, or a little burnt brandy may be added, if there is much languor. Exposure to cold must be carefully avoided. The abdomen and the feet, particularly, must be kept warm, and great attention is necessary to regulate the bowels, and procure a regular discharge of bile, lest a relapse should happen. It will also be proper to examine the state of the abdomen, whether pressure give pain at any part, because inflammation in the *primæ viæ* is very liable to supervene, often in an insidious manner. Should that be the case, leeches, blistering the part, and other suitable means, must be promptly resorted to.

Cholesteric Acid; a French name for the acid formed by the union of nitric acid and the fat matter of the human biliary calculi.

Cholesterine. (See *Calculus*.)

Choliamb (Greek, χωλίαμβος, the lame iambus; also called *skazon*, from σκάζω, to halt; or *versus Hipponacticus*, because the satirist Hipponax of Ephesus made use of it, or perhaps invented it). The choliambus is an iambic trimeter, the last foot of which, instead of being an iambus, is a trochee or spondee, which gives it a lame motion, as, for instance, Martial 1, i. epig. 3:—

> Cur in theatrum, Cato severe, venisti?
> An ideo tantum veneras, ut exires?

We perceive, from the construction of the choliambus, that it may be applied with advantage to produce a comic effect. The Germans have happily imitated this verse, as well as all other ancient metres. An instance of a German choliambus is—

⏑ —⏑—⏑ — ⏑ — ⏑ — —⏒

Der Choliambe scheint ein Vers für Kunstrichter.

Cholula; a town of Mexico, in Puebla; 60 miles E. of Mexico; lat. 19° 2′ N.; lon. 98° 8′ W.; population, 16,000. It was formerly a city of Anahuac, containing, in the time of Cortes, according to his account, 40,000 houses, independent of the adjoining villages or suburbs, which he computed at as many more. Its commerce consisted in manufactures of cotton, gems, and plates of clay; and it was much famed for its jewellers and potters. With respect to religion, it may be said that Cholula was the Rome of Anahuac. The surprising multitude of temples, of which Cortes mentions that he counted more than 400, and, in particular, the great temple erected upon an artificial mountain, which is still existing, drew together innumerable pilgrims. This temple, which is the most ancient and celebrated of all the Mexican religious monuments, is 164 feet in perpendicular height, and, at the base, it measures, on each side, 1450 feet. It has four stories of equal height, and appears to have been constructed exactly in the direction of the four cardinal points. It is built in alternate layers of clay and bricks, and is supposed to have been used both as a temple and a tomb.

Choral (derived from *chorus*); a term applied to vocal music, consisting of a combination of different melodies, and intended to be performed by a plurality of singers to each part; as *choral anthem*, *choral service*. In Germany, this term is applied to the music of hymns, in the composition of which the Germans are so much distinguished.

Chord (from the Greek χορδὴ, an intestine), in modern music; a combination of two or more sounds according to the laws of harmony. The word *chord* is often used in counterpoint; as *fundamental chord*, *accidental*, *anomalous*, or *equi-vocal*, *transient chord*.

Choregraphy; an invention of modern times; the art of representing dancing by signs, as singing is represented by notes. It points out the part to be performed by every dancer—the various motions which belong to the various parts of the music, the position of the feet, the arms, and the body, &c. The degree of swiftness with which every motion is to be performed may be thus indicated, by which all becomes as intelligible to the dancer as a piece of music to the musician. Drawings to assist the tactician, by designating the position, motion and evolutions of troops, have also been called *choregraphical drawings*.

Choriambus, in metre; a foot compounded of a trochee and an iambus. (See *Rhythm*.)

CHOROGRAPHY; the description of a single district, in contradistinction to *geography* (the description of the earth). The art of drawing maps of particular districts is also called *chorography*.

CHORUS, in the drama. This was, originally, a troop of singers and dancers, intended to heighten the pomp and solemnity of festivals. This, without doubt, was at first the purpose of tragedy and comedy, of which the chorus was originally the chief part, in fact, the basis. In the sequel, it is true, the chorus became only an accessory part. During the most flourishing period of Attic tragedy, the chorus was a troop of male and female personages, who, during the whole representation, were bystanders or spectators of the action, never quitting the stage. In the intervals of the action, the chorus chanted songs, which related to the subject of the performance, and were intended either to augment the impression, or to express the feeling of the audience on the course of the action. Sometimes it even took part in the performance, by observations on the conduct of the personages, by advice, consolation, exhortation or dissuasion. It usually represented a part, generally the oldest portion of the people, where the action happened, sometimes the counsellors of the king, &c. The chorus was an indispensable part of the representation. In the beginning, it consisted of a great number of persons, sometimes as many as 50; but the number was afterwards limited to 15. The exhibition of a chorus was in Athens an honorable civil charge, and was called *choragy*. The leader or chief of a chorus was called *coryphæus*, who spoke in the name of the rest, when the chorus participated in the action. Sometimes the chorus was divided into two parts, who sung alternately. The divisions of the chorus were not stationary, but moved from one side of the stage to the other; from which circumstance the names of the portions of verse which they recited, *strophe*, *antistrophe* and *epode*, are derived. But it cannot be determined in what manner the chorus sung. It is probable that it was in a sort of solemn recitative, and that their melodies, if we may call them so, consisted in unisons and octaves, and were very simple. They were also accompanied by instruments, perhaps flutes. With the decline of ancient tragedy, the chorus was omitted. Some tragedians of the present age, of whom Schiller was the first (see his prologue to the *Bride of Messina*) have attempted to revive the ancient chorus.

Chorus, in music, in its general sense, denotes a composition of two, three, four or more parts, each of which is intended to be sung by a plurality of voices. It is applied, also, to the performers who sing those parts. These choruses are adapted to express the joy, admiration, grief, adoration, &c., of a multitude, and sometimes produce much effect, but are very difficult for the composer.

CHOSROES I, king of Persia, succeeded to the throne in 531. His memory is still venerated in the East, and his virtues obtained him the titles of the *Magnanimous* and the *Just*. At his accession to the crown, Persia was involved in a war with Justinian, to whom Chosroes granted a perpetual peace, on the payment of a large sum of money. But, in 540, Chosroes invaded Syria, laid Antioch in ashes, and returned home laden with spoils. After several other victorious expeditions, he invaded India and Arabia, renewed the war with Justin, the successor of Justinian, whom he compelled to solicit a truce, but was, soon after, driven back across the Euphrates by Tiberius, the new emperor, and the Romans took up their winter quarters in the Persian provinces. Chosroes died in 579. His love of justice sometimes led him to acts of cruelty; but he encouraged the arts, founded academies, and made a considerable proficiency in philosophy himself. His reputation obtained him a visit from seven sages of Greece, who still adhered to the pagan religion; and, in a treaty with Justinian, he required that they should be exempt from the penalties enacted against those who continued to favor paganism. Persian historians ascribe to him the completion of the great wall of Jabouge and Magogue, extending from Derbent along the Persian frontiers.

CHOSROES II, grandson to the preceding, ascended the throne in 590, and carried his arms into Judea, Libya and Egypt, and made himself master of Carthage. In 617, he reduced Heraclius, the Roman emperor, to solicit a peace, which he refused to grant, except on condition of his renouncing the crucified God, and worshipping the sun. Heraclius, deriving courage from despair, penetrated into the Persian empire, and pillaged and burned the palace of Chosroes, who was dethroned by his own son, and cast into prison, after witnessing the massacre of 18 of his sons, and suffering every indignity. His sufferings were terminated by his death, in 628.

CHOUANS, in the French revolution; the insurgents on the right and left banks of

the Loire. The name was properly applied to the royalists on the right bank of the Loire, in Bretagne, Anjou and Maine. The principal theatre of the war formed nearly a square, the angles of which are the cities of Nantes, Angers, Mayenne and Rennes; but the excursions sometimes extended to the coast, to the city of L'Orient. The origin of the word *Chouans* is not known. Some derive it from the name of the sons of a blacksmith, who first excited the insurrection in that quarter; others from a corruption of the word *chat-huant* (screech-owl). According to the latter, there was a horde of smugglers, who, before the revolution, secretly exported salt from Bretagne into the neighboring provinces, and whose signal was the cry of the screech-owl. The revolution broke up the trade of these men, most of whom had no other resource. Accustomed to a vagabond life, they wandered through the country, committing depredations, and were gradually joined by others of a similar character. At first, murder and pillage was the chief object of these wretches, but they afterwards united with the Vendeans (see *Vendée*) in defence of monarchy and religion, and shared their fate. Since the return of Louis XVIII, several of the chiefs of the Chouans have been honorably rewarded for their former services.

Chough, or Chouch (*choucas*, French); the trivial name of a species of crow (*corvus monedula*, L.). It is about the size of a pigeon, and has a sharp cry; is nearly omnivorous, except that it does not feed upon carrion; is of a dark ash color about the neck and under the belly, though frequently entirely black. The choughs live together in large flocks, and make their nests in steeples, old towers, or in large and lofty trees. Their manners are very similar to those of the rooks, with which they are sometimes seen flying in company. They are exceedingly vigilant in guarding their nests and young from birds of prey, which they attack and drive off with great vigor whenever they approach their vicinity.

Choumla, Shumla, or Shiumla; a Turkish fortress in the mountains of the Balkan. (q. v.) Varna (q. v.) and Choumla are called, on account of their great military importance, *the gates of Constantinople*. The town of Choumla, properly so called, is nearly surrounded by a natural rampart, consisting of a portion of mount Hæmus, or the Balkan. The steep slopes of this great bulwark are covered with detached rocks and close, thorny bushes. The nature of the ground makes it a very advantageous position for the Turkish soldier, who, when sheltered by the inequalities of the ground and a few entrenchments, displays great resolution and address. The town is about a league in length and half a league in breadth, and may contain from 30,000 to 35,000 souls. The fortifications are rudely constructed, but its situation in the midst of a vast natural fortress, capable of containing an immense army, with its magazines, &c., secures it from the enemy's artillery. The air is very healthy in the elevated parts of the Balkan, and in the narrow valleys which lie between its ridges. On the other hand, there cannot be a more unhealthy country than that which extends from the Balkan to the borders of the Danube and the Pruth. This difference between the climate of the mountains and that of the plain is the most effectual defence which nature has given to Choumla. In the late war between Russia and Turkey, it was besieged by the troops of the former power from July 20, 1828, until Oct. 25, of the same year, when they retired, after the conquest of Varna, Oct. 11. On the 11th of June, 1829, a decisive victory was gained by the Russians over the Turks, not far from Choumla. The grand vizier commanded the Turks, who are said to have lost 6000 killed, 1500 prisoners, and 60 pieces of cannon, with large quantities of ammunition and baggage. The loss of the Russians amounted only to 1400 killed and 600 wounded.

Chrism (from the Greek χρίσμα, salve); the holy oil prepared on Holy Thursday by the Catholic bishops, and used in baptism, confirmation, ordination of priests, and the extreme unction. Hence the name *Christ*, the anointed.

Christ (Gr. χριστὸς, the anointed). *Messiah*, from the Hebrew, has the same signification. (See *Christianity*, and *Jesus*.)

Christ, Pictures of. Legends exist of a portrait of the Savior, which king Abgarus of Edessa is said to have possessed. This was miraculously impressed by the Savior on a napkin which he placed upon his face, and afterwards sent to the king. The handkerchief of St. Veronica (Berenice) is said to have also contained a portrait of Christ impressed in a similar way. A picture of Christ, taken by St. Luke, is likewise mentioned. In a letter, evidently spurious, which Lentulus, the predecessor of Pilate, is said to have written to the Roman senate, Christ is described as being of a handsome, manly stature and countenance. Among

the existing representations of Christ, the most ancient is in a *basso-relievo* of marble, on a sarcophagus, of the 2d or 3d century, in the Vatican. Christ is there exhibited as a young man without beard, with Roman features, flowing and slightly curled hair, wearing a Roman *toga*, and seated upon a curule chair. In the same place, there is another Christ, of the 4th century, with an oval face, Oriental features, parted hair, and a short, straight beard. This representation was the model which the Byzantine and Italian painters followed until the time of Michael Angelo and Raphael. Since the 16th century, the Italian school has generally taken the heads of Jupiter and Apollo as the models for the pictures of Christ. Different nations have given his image their own characteristic features. The head of Christ has become the highest point of the art of painting among Christian nations; and men of the greatest genius have labored to imbody their conceptions of his divinity, the union of the different virtues of his character, his meekness and firmness, and the full perfection of his Godlike nature. The representations of the Savior by Titian, Leonardo da Vinci, Raphael, &c., are among the sublimest productions of modern art. Christ's head is, for the modern artist, what the head of Jupiter or Apollo was for the ancient, with this difference, however, that it has become more especially the ideal of the painter, whilst the others principally furnished subjects for the genius of the sculptor; and this circumstance shows the difference in the character of the two periods of art, which must, of course, be most apparent in their highest productions. Some of the most elevated expressions of the countenance of the Savior, e. g. the glowing love of his divine soul, cannot be well represented by the marble. There exist, however, excellent statues of Christ. The two best of modern times are that of Thorwaldsen at Copenhagen, and that of Dannecker at Stuttgart.

Christ-Church College. (See *Oxford.*)

Christ's Hospital (generally known by the name of *Blue coat school*, the title having reference to the costume of the children educated there); a school in London, founded by Edward VI, for supporting poor orphans. At the same time St. Bartholomew's hospital was founded, for the wounded and diseased, and Bridewell was assigned as a place of confinement for vagabonds. Charles II connected a mathematical school with it. There are generally from 1000 to 1200 boys and girls at this establishment, receiving instruction, board and clothing. The great hall at Christ's hospital is remarkable for some very fine pictures.

Christian II, king of Denmark, born at Copenhagen, 1481, was educated with little care. While yet a youth, his violent character led him into great extravagances. King John, his father, punished him severely, but in vain. In 1507, he was called to Bergen, to suppress some seditious movements, where he conceived a violent passion for a young Dutchwoman, named Dyveke, whose mother kept an inn. Dyveke became the mistress of Christian, who allowed her, and particularly her mother, an unlimited influence over him. He was viceroy in Norway, until the declining health of his father recalled him to Copenhagen. After he had ascended the throne, he married, in 1515, Isabella, sister of Charles V. He afterwards remonstrated with Henry VIII of England, on account of the piracies committed by the English ships, renewed the treaties which had been made with the grand-duke of Moscow, and endeavored to deprive the Hanse towns of their commerce. The hopes which this conduct excited among his subjects were soon annihilated by the horrible scenes caused by the death of Dyveke. The relations of Torbern Oxe, governor of the castle of Copenhagen, were accused of having poisoned her. Oxe acknowledged a former passion for her, and the king ordered him to be beheaded. Several other executions spread horror through the whole kingdom. Christian hated the nobility, and protected the commons and the peasantry against their oppressions. In 1516, a papal legate arrived in the North, in order to dispose of indulgences. Christian received him, hoping that he might be useful to him in Sweden, in obtaining the crown, at which he was then aiming. The Swedes were divided into several parties. Gustavus Trolle, archbishop of Upsal, a sworn enemy of Stenon Sture, administrator of the kingdom, had secretly united himself with Christian; but the Swedish states protected Sture, dismissed Trolle, and caused his castle to be demolished. The nuncio, who arrived during these events in Sweden, was gained over by Sture, discovered to him the plans of Christian, and justified the Swedes to the pope against the charges of Trolle. Christian finally arrived at Stockholm in 1518, for the sake of an interview with the administrator, receiving, for his own

security, six hostages from the first families. When these hostages, among whom was Gustavus Vasa, arrived at the Danish fleet, the faithless monarch treated them as prisoners, and returned to Denmark. He appeared in Sweden, in 1520, in the middle of winter, at the head of an army. The Swedes were beaten at Bogesund, Jan. 19, and Sture was mortally wounded. The Danes pursued their advantage. Trolle presided over the assembly of the states-general at Upsal, and proposed to them to acknowledge Christian for their king. Although many were disinclined to the union, they were, nevertheless, obliged to submit to it. A general amnesty was proclaimed, and all hastened to profit by it. The capital, to which the widow of the administrator had repaired, offered some resistance. As soon as the sea was open, Christian appeared with his fleet before Stockholm, which did not surrender to him. The summer was passing away; his provisions were nearly exhausted; his troops murmured. At last, he resolved to send Swedish messengers to the inhabitants. His promises, aided by famine, effected what his arms had not been able to accomplish. The gates were opened to him. He promised to maintain the liberty of Sweden, and to forget the past. He arrived at Stockholm near the end of October, demanded from the bishops and senators an act acknowledging him as their hereditary king, and caused himself to be crowned, two days after, by Trolle. He bestowed the honor of knighthood only on foreigners, and declared that he would confer this dignity on no Swedish subject, because he had conquered the country by force of arms. In spite of the general consternation, he ordered public rejoicings, during which he knew how to gain the favor of the multitude. He determined to strengthen the royal authority in Sweden, and to effect his purpose by the annihilation of the first families. His advisers differed only as to the means. Finally, Slaghoek, the king's confessor, reminded him of the excommunication of the enemies of Trolle, and added, that, though, as a prince, he might forget the past, he ought to extirpate the heretics, in obedience to the commands of the pope. Accordingly, Trolle demanded the punishment of the heretics; the king appointed commissioners before whom the accused appeared. Christina, the widow of the administrator, was among them. To vindicate her husband's memory, she produced the decree of the senate passed in 1517. Christian obtained possession of it, and formed from it his list of proscriptions. The accused were declared guilty, and 94 victims were executed in the presence of the king. These bloody scenes continued in the capital as well as in the provinces. Christian justified himself by the public declaration, that they were necessary for the tranquillity of the kingdom. He then returned to Denmark. His way was marked with blood: he garrisoned all the cities, and committed the same cruelties in Denmark. He soon after went to the Netherlands, to request the assistance of Charles V against Frederic, duke of Holstein, his uncle, and against the inhabitants of Lübeck, who were always ready to assist the Swedes. On his return to Copenhagen, he found all Sweden in arms. Slaghoek's tyranny had excited a general revolt. Christian gave him the archbishopric of Lund, but soon after caused him to be burnt alive, in order to appease the pope, who had sent a legate to Denmark, to examine into the murder of the bishops at Stockholm. In order to reconcile the pope, he altered every thing in the laws which favored Lutheranism, for which he had previously shown much inclination. Meanwhile Gustavus Vasa escaped from prison, and raised his standard against the Danes. The states-general, assembled at Wadstena, declared that Christian had forfeited the Swedish crown. The garrison of Stockholm revolted on account of the want of pay. Christian, exasperated by these events, ordered the Danish governors to execute all the rebels. This measure hastened his ruin. Norby still held Stockholm, Calmar and Abo, three places which were considered as the keys of the kingdom; but he was soon harassed by the inhabitants of Lübeck, who even made an attack upon the coasts of Denmark. Christian, to revenge himself, commenced negotiations with the duke of Holstein, but they were soon interrupted by his own violence. Meanwhile, he published two codes restricting the privileges of the clergy, and extending the rights of the peasantry. They contained many wise laws, which are still in force, but mixed with others which caused general discontent. The nation complained of the debasement of the currency, and the insupportable burthen of the taxes. The bishops and senators of Jutland, perceiving the disposition of the people, formed the plan of revolting against the king. About the end of 1522, they renounced their allegiance, declared Christian to have forfeited his rights, and offered

the crown to Frederic, duke of Holstein. The king, who suspected their designs, summoned the nobility of Jutland to Callundborg, in Zealand; and, as none obeyed the call, he summoned them anew in 1523, to Aarhuus, in Jutland, whither he repaired himself. His arrival compelled the conspirators to hasten the execution of their plans. They assembled in Viborg, and adopted two acts; by one of which they deposed the king, and by the other invited Frederic to take possession of the throne. A civil war was on the point of breaking out, when Christian abandoned his kingdom. In April, 1523, he left Denmark, and took the queen, his children, his treasures, and the archives of the kingdom, on board the fleet. A storm dispersed his ships, threw him upon the coast of Norway, and, after the greatest dangers, he reached Veere, in Zealand. Charles V contented himself with writing to forbid Frederic, the nobility of Jutland, and the city of Lübeck, to act against Christian. The latter had, meanwhile, raised an army and equipped a fleet, and landed at Opslo, in Norway, in 1531. But his troops suffered new losses. Being attacked in his camp by the Danish and Hanseatic fleet, he shut himself up in the city, and his vessels became a prey to the flames. Deprived of all resources, he proposed a treaty to the Danish generals, who finally granted him a safe conduct, permitting him to repair, in the Danish fleet, to Copenhagen, for the purpose of a personal interview with Frederic. In July, 1532, he arrived before Copenhagen. But Frederic rejected the treaty, and the senate ordered the imprisonment of Christian. He was accordingly conveyed to the castle of Sonderburg, in the island of Alsen. He there passed 12 years in the society, at first, of a dwarf, and afterwards of an old invalid, in a tower, the door of which was walled up. A stone table is still shown, around the edge of which is a line worn by the hand of Christian, whose sole exercise consisted in walking round it, with his hand resting on the surface. He was totally abandoned. When Christian III ascended the throne, in 1543, his condition was improved, by virtue of a treaty with Charles V. He lived, from 1546, at Callundborg, with a fixed income, and died at this place, Jan. 24, 1559. His wife, Christina, a professor of Lutheranism, faithfully shared his misfortunes until her death, in 1526. He had three children—John, who died at Ratisbon in 1532, at the age of 13 years; Dorothea, who married Frederic, the elector palatine; and Christina, who married Francis Sforza, duke of Milan, and, after his death, Francis, duke of Lorraine. It ought not to be forgotten, that Christian's cruelty was, in some degree, owing to the insolence of the nobility, whose arrogance he was determined to repress.

Christian VII, king of Denmark, born 1749, son of Frederic V and Louisa of England, succeeded his father, Jan. 13, 1766. In the same year, he married Caroline Matilda (q. v.), sister of George III of England. During his travels, in 1767—69, through Germany, Holland, England and France, he visited the most distinguished men of learning, the academies and literary societies, was made doctor of laws in Cambridge, and everywhere maintained the character of an affable and enlightened prince. At first, the count J. H. G. de Bernstorff, who had enjoyed the entire confidence of Frederic V, continued to preside over the affairs of the state. But, in 1770, Struensee (q. v.), the king's physician, who had gained an unlimited influence over him, and had also insinuated himself into the favor of the imprudent young queen, obtained this post. The reforms undertaken by this minister excited the hatred of the nobility and the discontent of the military. The ambitious queen dowager (Julia Maria of Brunswick, step-mother of Christian) had in vain endeavored to disunite Christian and his wife, in order to obtain the direction of affairs. She now formed a connexion with some malcontents, and succeeded, Jan. 16, 1772, in conjunction with them and her son, the hereditary prince Frederic (Christian's step-brother), in obtaining from the king, after a long resistance, an order for the imprisonment of his queen and Struensee, on pretence that they were conspiring the deposition of the king. From that time the guidance of affairs was in the hands of Julia and of her son Frederic. The king, whom disease had deprived of his reason, reigned only nominally. In 1784, the present king was placed, as regent, at the head of the government. (See *Frederic VI.*) Before the taking of the capital by the English, in 1807, Christian VII had been carried to Rendsburg, in Holstein, where he died, March 13, 1808. The queen, Caroline Matilda, after having been conducted to the castle of Cronborg, had been subjected to an examination as to her connexion with Struensee. She afterwards repaired to Celle, where she died in 1775. Christian had but two children, the present king, Frederic VI, and the princess Au-

gusta, married to the late duke of Holstein-Augustenburg. (For an account of Struensee's fate, see the *Mémoires de M. de Falckenskiold*, major-general of the king of Denmark, published by Secretan, Paris, 1826.)

CHRISTIANIA; capital of the kingdom of Norway, seat of government, and the place where the *storthing* (Norwegian parliament) meet; lon. 10° 49′ E.; lat. 59° 53′ 46″ N. It contains 1500 houses, and 11,040 inhabitants, is situated in the diocese of Christiania, or Aggerhuus, on the northern end of the bay of Christiansfiord, in a district where gardening is much pursued. Besides the suburbs, it contains Christiania Proper, built by king Christian IV, in 1624, on a regular plan, the Old City, or Opslo, and the citadel, Aggerhuus, which was demolished in 1815. Among the principal buildings are the royal palace, the new council-house, and the exchange. Since 1811, a university (Fredericia) has been established here, with a philological seminary, a botanical garden, an observatory, a library, collections of various kinds, 18 professors, and 200 students. Christiania also contains a military school, a bank, a commercial institute, an alum factory, &c. It has much trade, chiefly in lumber and iron. Its harbor is excellent. The value of the lumber annually exported is estimated at 810,000 guilders. In the vicinity are 136 sawing-mills, which furnish, annually, 20 millions of planks.

CHRISTIANITY; the religion instituted by Jesus Christ. Christianity, as it now exists in our minds, has received, from the influence of the priesthood, of national character, of the spirit of the time, and the thousand ways in which it has been brought into contact with politics and science, a quantity of impure additions, which we should first separate, in order to understand what it is in reality. There could be no better means of attaining a correct understanding of it, than to investigate, historically, the religious principles which Jesus himself professed, exhibited in his life, and labored to introduce into the world, if the investigator could avoid giving the coloring of his own views to his explanation of the records of the origin of Christianity. But the most honest inquirers have not entirely succeeded in so doing. Even the Christian theologians of the present age—less divided, in some countries, for instance, in Germany, by the spirit of creeds and sects, than by the difference of scientific methods and philosophical speculations—dispute respecting the principle that constitutes the basis of the religion of Christ, which, in other respects, has been unanimously adopted. (See the articles *Religion*, *Revelation*, *Rationalism*, and *Supernaturalism*.) This principle appears, by its effect upon the numerous nations, differing so greatly in intellectual character and cultivation, which received Christianity at first, to have been a universal truth, adapted to the whole human race, and of a divine, all-uniting power. The Jews believed in a living God, the Creator of all things, and, so far, had just views of the source of religion. The Greeks, besides developing the principle of the beautiful in their works of art, had laid the foundations of valuable sciences applicable to the business of life. The Romans had established the principles of law and political administration, and proved their value by experience. These scattered elements of moral and intellectual cultivation, insufficient, in their disunited state, to bring about the true happiness and moral perfection of man, in his social and individual capacity, were refined, perfected and combined by Christianity, through the law of a pure benevolence, the highest aim of which is that of rendering men good and happy, like God, and which finds, in the idea of a kingdom of heaven upon earth, announced and realized by Christ, all the means of executing its design. His religion supplied what was wanting to these nations—a religious character to the science of Greece, moral elevation to the legislative spirit of Rome, liberty and light to the devotion of the Jews—and, by inculcating the precept of universal love of mankind, raised the narrow spirit of patriotism to the extended feeling of general philanthropy. Thus the endeavors of ancient times after moral perfection were directed and concentrated by Christianity, which supplied, at the same time, a motive for diffusing more widely that light and those advantages which mystery and the spirit of castes had formerly withheld from the multitude. It conveyed the highest ideas, the most important truths and principles, the purest laws of moral life, to all ranks; it proved the possibility of perfect virtue, through the example of its Founder; it laid the foundation for the peace of the world, through the doctrine of the reconciliation of men with God and with each other; and, directing their minds and hearts towards Jesus, the Author and Finisher of their faith, the crucified, arisen and glorified Mediator between heaven

and earth, it taught them to discern the benevolent connexion of the future life with the present. The history of Jesus, and the preparations of God for his mission, afforded the materials from which Christians formed their conceptions of the character and tendency of their religion. The first community of the followers of Jesus was formed at Jerusalem, soon after the death of their Master. Another, at Antioch, in Syria, first assumed (about 65) the name of *Christians*, which had originally been given to them by their adversaries, as a term of reproach; and the travels of the apostles spread Christianity through the provinces of the Roman empire. Palestine, Syria, Natolia, Greece, the islands of the Mediterranean, Italy, and the northern coast of Africa, as early as the 1st century, contained societies of Christians. Their ecclesiastical discipline was simple, and conformable to their humble condition, and they continued to acquire strength amidst all kinds of oppressions. (See *Persecutions*.) At the end of the 2d century, Christians were to be found in all the provinces, and, at the end of the 3d century, almost one half of the inhabitants of the Roman empire, and of several neighboring countries, professed this belief. The endeavor to preserve a unity of faith (see *Orthodoxy*) and of church discipline, caused numberless disputes among those of different opinions (see *Heretics* and *Sects*), and led to the establishment of an ecclesiastical tyranny, notwithstanding the oppressions which the first Christians had experienced from a similar institution—the Jewish priesthood. At the beginning of the 4th century, when the Christians obtained toleration by means of Constantine the Great, and, soon after, the superiority in the Roman empire, the bishops exercised the power of arbiters of faith, in the first general council (see *Nice*), 325, by instituting a creed binding on all Christians. Upon this foundation, the later councils (q. v.), assisted by those writers who are honored by the church as its fathers and teachers (see *Fathers of the Church, Jerome, Ambrose, Augustine*, &c.), erected the edifice of the orthodox system; while the superior portion of the ecclesiastics, who were now transformed into priests, and elevated above the laity as a privileged, sacred order (see *Clergy* and *Priests*), were enabled, partly by their increasing authority in matters of church discipline, partly by the belief, which they had encouraged, that certain traditions from the apostles were inherited by them only (see *Traditions*), to preserve the prerogatives at first granted them out of love and gratitude, but afterwards much extended by themselves, and to make themselves, gradually, masters of the church. (See *Bishops, Patriarchs, Popes, Hierarchy*.) Their views were promoted by the favor of the emperors (see *Theodosius the Great*) (with slight interruptions in the reign of Julian and some of his successors), by the increased splendor and various ceremonials of divine worship (see *Mass, Saints, Relics, Iconoclasts*), by the decline of classical learning, the increasing superstition resulting from this increase of ignorance, and by the establishment of convents and monks. (See *Convents*.) In this form, appealing to the senses more than to the understanding, Christianity, which had been introduced among the Goths in the 4th century, was spread among the other Teutonic nations in the west and north of Europe, and subjected to its power, during the 7th and 8th centuries, the rude warriors who founded new kingdoms on the ruins of the Western Empire, while it was losing ground, in Asia and Africa, before the encroachments of the Saracens, by whose rigorous measures hundreds of thousands of Christians were converted to Mohammedanism, the heretical sects which had been disowned by the orthodox church (see *Jacobites, Copts, Armenians, Maronites, Nestorians*) being almost the only Christians who maintained themselves in the East. During this progress of Mohammedanism, which, in Europe, extended only to Spain and Sicily, the Roman popes (see *Popes* and *Gregory VII*), who were advancing systematically to ecclesiastical superiority in the west of Europe, gained more in the north, and soon after, in the east of this quarter of the world, by the conversion of the Sclavonic and Scandinavian nations (from the 10th to the 12th century), than they had lost in other regions. For the Mohammedans had chiefly overrun the territory of the Eastern church (see *Greek Church*), which had been, since the 5th century, no longer one with the Western (Latin) church, and had, by degrees, become entirely separate from it. In the 10th century, it received some new adherents, by the conversion of the Russians, who are now its most powerful support. But the crusaders, who were led, partly by religious enthusiasm, partly by the desire of conquest and adventures (1096—1150), to attempt the recovery of the holy sepulchre, gained the new kingdom of Jerusalem, not for the Greek emperor, but for themselves and

the papal hierarchy. (See *Crusades.*) The confusion which this finally unsuccessful undertaking introduced into the civil and domestic affairs of the western nations, gave the church a favorable opportunity of increasing its possessions, and asserting its pretensions to universal monarchy. But, contrary to the wishes and expectations of the rulers of the church, the remains of ancient heresies (see *Manichæans, Paulicians*) were introduced into the West, through the increased intercourse of nations, and by the returning crusaders, and new and more liberal ideas were propagated, springing from the philosophical spirit of examination of some schoolmen (see *Abelard, Arnold of Brescia*), and the indignation excited by the corruptions of the clergy. These kindled an opposition among all the societies and sects against the Roman hierarchy. (See *Cathari, Albigenses, Waldenses.*) The foundation and multiplication of ecclesiastical orders (q. v.), particularly the Franciscans and Dominicans, for the care of souls and the instruction of the people, which had been neglected by the secular priests, did not remedy the evil, because they labored, in general, more actively to promote the interests of the church and the papacy, than to remove superstition and ignorance; and bold speculations, which would not yield to their persuasion, were still less likely to be extirpated by the power of the inquisition (q. v.), which armed itself with fire and sword. The great difference of the Christian religion, as it was then taught and practised, from the religion of Jesus Christ, the insufficiency of what the church taught to the religious wants of the human mind and heart, was apparent to many, partly from their knowledge of the spirit of Jesus, derived from the Bible, which was already studied, in secret, by curious readers, in spite of the prohibitions of the church, and partly from the bold eloquence of single teachers and chiefs of sects. Ecclesiastical orders also desired to pursue their own course (see *Knights Templars, Franciscans*); offended princes forgot the great services of the papal power in promoting the cultivation of nations in the first centuries of the middle ages; and the popes themselves made little effort to reform or conceal the corruption of their court and of the clergy. They even afforded the scandalous spectacle of a schism in the church (see *Schism, Popes,* and *Antipope*), which was distracted, after 1378, for more than 30 years, by the quarrels between two candidates, who both asserted their right to the papal chair. This dispute was settled only by the decrees of the council of Constance (1414—1418), which were very unfavorable to the papal power. The doctrines of the English Wickliffe (q. v.) had already given rise to a party opposed to the popedom; and the revolt of the adherents of the Bohemian reformer (see *Huss, Hussites*), who was burnt at Constance on account of similar doctrines, extorted from the council of Bâle (1431—43) certain *compacts*, which, being firmly maintained, proved to the friends of a reformation in the head and members of the church (proposed, but without success, at the council of Bâle), what a firm and united opposition to the abuses of the Roman church might be able to effect. We refer the reader to the article *Reformation*, and the articles relating to it, for a history of the causes, progress and consequences of this great event. But that this great change in the church has revived primitive Christianity in the spirit of its Founder, the most zealous Protestants will not assert, any more than the reflecting Catholic will deny the necessity of such a reform, and the real merits of Protestantism in promoting it. (See *Trent, Council of, Roman Catholic Church,* and *Protestantism.*) The forms under which Christianity appears, in our days, are very different. The example of the south of Europe proves how easily this religion naturalizes itself, but, also, how much it loses, under the influence of sensuality and an over-active fancy, of the simple grandeur, the moral power and pure spirit of its original character. Protestantism removed from the northern nations many of the burdens with which the predominance of the earthly nature had oppressed the spirit of religion. By opening the Bible to all, it aroused the spirit of inquiry, but also gave rise to an immense variety of sects, springing from the different views which different men were led to form from the study of the sacred volume. The present moral and political condition of Christian Europe, though affected by so many influences foreign to religion, bears the stamp of a cultivation springing from Christianity, and this has been impressed upon its colonies in distant lands, among which the U. States of North America alone have advanced to the principle of universal toleration. But if we look among our contemporaries for Christianity as it dwelt and operated in Christ, we shall find it pure in no nation and in no religious party; but we perceive its features in the conduct of the enlight-

ened and pious among all nations, who love Christ, and are penetrated with his Spirit. How Christianity will develope itself in North America, where all sects are tolerated, what will be the result of this immense variety of opinions and creeds, is, as yet, a matter of speculation. The general views of the great body of Protestant sects in this country, however, have so much in common, that they may still be considered as forming one great family among the principal divisions of the Christian world. Whether this will be true after a considerable time has elapsed, is at least doubtful, as the Unitarians and Trinitarians seem to be taking essentially different directions.

CHRISTIANS; the general name of the followers of Christ. (See *Christianity.*)

CHRISTIANS; the name of a denomination, in the U. States, adopted to express their renunciation of all sectarianism. They have become numerous in all parts of the country, the number of their churches, in 1827, being estimated at about 1000. Each church is an independent body: they recognise no creed, no authority in matters of doctrine: the Scriptures, which every individual must interpret for himself, are their only rule of faith: admission to the church is obtained by a simple profession of belief in Christianity: speculative belief they treat as of little importance, compared with virtue of character. In New England, they separated principally from the Calvinistic Baptists; in the Southern States, from the Methodists; and in the Western, from the Presbyterians. There was, therefore, at first, a great diversity of opinion and practice among them, each church retaining some of the peculiarities of the sect from which it seceded. In New England, the churches were established on the principle of close communion, which was soon abandoned. In the South and West, they were Pedobaptists, but have since become Baptists. Nearly all were, at first, Trinitarians; but the doctrine of the Trinity, and its concomitant doctrines, are now universally rejected by them. To maintain a connexion between the different churches, one or more *conferences* are formed in each state, consisting of members delegated from each church. In 1827, there were 23 of these conferences, which again form, by delegation, the United States General Christian Conference. They have several periodical works (Christian Herald, Portsmouth, N. H.; Gospel Luminary, N. Y.; Christian Messenger, Ky.), but no theological seminary, considering that whoever understands the gospel may teach it. They consider Christ as the Son of God, miraculously conceived, whose death was a ratification of the new covenant, not a propitiatory sacrifice; and the Holy Ghost or Spirit as the power or energy of God, exerted in converting the wicked and strengthening the good.

CHRISTIANS OF ST. THOMAS; the name of a sect of Christians on the coast of Malabar, in the East Indies, to which region the apostle St. Thomas is said to have carried the gospel. They belong to those Christians who, in the year 499, united to form a Syrian and Chaldaic church in Central and Eastern Asia, and are, like them, Nestorians. (See *Syrian Christians.*) They have, however, retained rather more strongly than the latter the features of their descent from the earliest Christian communities. Like these, they still celebrate the *agapes*, or love-feasts, portion maidens from the property of the church, and provide for their poor. Their notions respecting the Lord's supper incline to those of the Protestants, but, in celebrating it, they use bread with salt and oil. At the time of baptism, they anoint the body of the infant with oil. These two ceremonies, together with the consecration of priests, are the only sacraments which they acknowledge. Their priests are distinguished by the tonsure, are allowed to marry, and were, until the 16th century, under a Nestorian patriarch at Babylon, now at Mosul, from whom they received their bishop, and upon whom they are also dependent for the consecration of their priests. Their churches contain, except the cross, no symbols nor pictures. Their liturgy is similar to the Syrian, and the Syrian language is used in it. When the Portuguese occupied the East Indies, the Roman Catholic clergy endeavored to subject the Christians of St. Thomas to the government of the pope. The archbishop of Goa succeeded, in 1599, in persuading them to submit, and form a part of his diocese. They were obliged to renounce the Nestorian faith, adopt a few Catholic ceremonies, and obey a Jesuit, who became their bishop. But, after the Portuguese were supplanted by the Dutch on the coast of Malabar, this union of the Christians of St. Thomas with the Roman church ceased, and they returned to their old forms. At present, they are, under the British government, free from any ecclesiastical restraint, and form among themselves a kind of spiritual republic, under a bishop chosen by themselves, and

in which the priests and elders administer justice, using excommunication as a means of punishment. In their political relations to the natives, they belong to the class of the *Nairi*, or nobility of the second rank, are allowed to ride on elephants, and to carry on commerce and agriculture, instead of practising mechanical trades, like the lower classes. Travellers describe them as very ignorant, but, at the same time, of very good morals.

CHRISTIANSAND; a government and bishopric of Norway, occupying the S. W. part of the country. The population of this division of the kingdom is estimated at 134,000; square miles, 14,800. Though one of the most fertile parts of the country, the grain produced is not adequate to the consumption of the inhabitants, and grain is therefore one of the chief imports. The inhabitants are principally employed in the fisheries and in cutting trees. Timber forms the chief article of their exports.—The capital is also called *Christiansand*, and is situated on the S. coast. The streets are broad and straight, and the houses have extensive gardens. It is considered as the fourth town in the kingdom. It contains about 5000 inhabitants. Its harbor is one of the best in Norway. It derives some support from the trade in timber, but depends chiefly on the repair of vessels which put in there to refit. Lon. 8° 3′ E.; lat. 58° 8′ N.

CHRISTIANS-OE, or ERT-HOLM; a group of islands, in the Baltic, belonging to Denmark, named from the chief island, which has a much-frequented port, a light-house and a castle; lon. 14° 47′ E.; lat. 55° 13′ N.

CHRISTINA, queen of Sweden, born Dec. 9, 1626, daughter of Gustavus Adolphus and the princess Maria Eleonore of Brandenburg, was distinguished for beauty, and taste for the liberal arts. Gustavus, who beheld in Christina the only support of his throne, took the greatest care of her education, which was conducted in a masculine manner. She was instructed in all the sciences adapted to improve her mind and strengthen her character. After the death of Gustavus, at Lützen, in 1632, the states-general appointed guardians to the queen Christina, then but six years old. These were the five highest officers of the crown, who were intrusted, at the same time, with the administration of the kingdom. The education of Christina was continued according to the plan of Gustavus Adolphus. Endowed with a lively imagination, a good memory, and uncommon intelligence, she made the most rapid progress. She learned the ancient languages, history, geography, politics, and renounced the pleasures of her age in order to devote herself entirely to study. She already betrayed those peculiarities which characterized her whole life, and which were, perhaps, as much the consequence of her education as of her natural disposition. She did not like to appear in the female dress, made long journeys on foot or on horseback, and delighted in the fatigues and even the dangers of the chase. She submitted reluctantly to the customs of the court, alternately treating those who surrounded her with the greatest familiarity and with haughtiness or commanding dignity. She honored the chancellor Oxenstiern as a father, and learned from him the art of governing. She soon showed, in the assembly of the states, a maturity of understanding which astonished her guardians. In 1642, the states-general proposed to her to take the administration into her own hands; but she excused herself on the ground of her youth. Only two years after, she took upon herself the government. A great talent for business, and great firmness of purpose, distinguished her first steps. She terminated the war with Denmark, begun in 1644, and obtained several provinces by the treaty concluded at Brömsebro, in 1645. She then, contrary to the advice of Oxenstiern, who hoped to gain, by the continuance of the war, still greater advantages for Sweden, labored to reëstablish peace in Germany, in order to be able to devote herself uninterruptedly to the sciences and the arts of peace. Christina was fitted, by her talents and the circumstances in which she was placed, to play the most distinguished part in the North of Europe, and, for some time, seemed sensible of the charms of her lofty station. On many occasions, she maintained the dignity of her crown and the honor of her country. France, Spain, Holland and England sought her friendship. She promoted commerce by wise legislation, and patronised the learned and literary institutions. The nation was devoted to her, and rejoiced to see the daughter of Gustavus at the head of the government, surrounded by generals and statesmen formed by that great prince. It was the universal wish that the queen should choose a husband; but her love of independence rendered her averse to such a connexion. Among the princes who sued for her hand, her cousin, Charles Gustavus of

Deuxponts, was distinguished for his intelligence, noble character, and extensive knowledge. She declined his offer, but induced the states-general, in 1649, to designate him for her successor. In 1650, she caused herself to be crowned, with great pomp, and with the title of *king*. From that time, a striking change in her conduct was perceptible. She neglected her ancient ministers, and listened to the advice of ambitious favorites. Intrigues and base passions succeeded to her former noble and useful views. The public treasure was squandered with extravagant profusion. Distinctions were conferred upon the undeserving, and jealousy produced murmurs, complaints and factions. In this state of confusion, the queen declared her intention of abdicating the crown. The old ministers, honoring the memory of Gustavus Adolphus, remonstrated in the strongest terms, and, above all, Oxenstiern expressed himself with so much energy, that the queen desisted from her resolution. She now grasped with more firmness the reins of government, and dissipated, for a time, the clouds which had darkened her throne. She occupied herself again with study, bought paintings, medals, manuscripts, books, maintained a correspondence with many learned men, and invited several to her court. Descartes, Grotius, Salmasius, Bochart, Huet, Chevreau, Naudé, Vossius, Conring, Meibom, appeared in Stockholm, and the queen conversed familiarly with them on literary and philosophical subjects. Among the literary amusements which she united with serious studies, was the Grecian dance, which she caused to be exhibited by Meibom (q. v.) and Naudé. But new troubles occurred; and the conspiracy of Messenius threatened not only the favorites of the queen, but the queen herself. Christina, who loved whatever was uncommon, resumed the determination to resign the crown. In 1654, at the age of 29, she assembled the states-general at Upsal, and, in their presence, laid aside the insignia of royalty, to surrender them into the hands of prince Charles Gustavus. She reserved to herself a certain income, entire independence, and full power over her suite and household. A few days after, she left Sweden, and went through Denmark and Germany to Brussels, where she made a public entry, and remained for some time. There she made a secret profession of the Catholic religion, which she afterwards publicly confirmed in Inspruck—a step which excited great astonishment, and of the causes of which nothing certain is known. Christina went from Inspruck to Rome, which she entered on horseback, in the costume of an Amazon, with great pomp. When the pope Alexander VII confirmed her, she adopted the surname of *Alessandra*. She visited the monuments of the city, and attentively examined every thing which could awaken historical recollections. In 1656, she visited France, and remained at Fontainebleau, at Compiegne, where the court was then held, and at Paris. Her dress and manners produced an unfavorable impression, but her talents and knowledge were generally admired. She offered to mediate between France and Spain; but Mazarin declined the offer, and succeeded in accelerating her departure from France, under various pretexts. In the following year, she returned. This second residence in France was rendered remarkable by the execution of her grand equerry, Monaldeschi, who had enjoyed her entire confidence, but whom she accused of treason. This act of vengeance, though defended by Leibnitz, is a stain on the memory of Christina. The French court testified its displeasure, and two months passed before the queen showed herself publicly in Paris. In 1658, she returned to Rome, where she received very unpleasing news from Sweden. Her revenue was not transmitted to her, and nobody would make her advances. Alexander VII relieved her from this embarrassment by a pension of 12,000 scudi (dollars). After the death of Charles Gustavus, in 1660, the queen made a visit to Sweden, under pretence of wishing to arrange her private affairs; but it was soon perceived that she had other views. As the crown-prince was very young, she declared, that, in case of his death, she should lay claim to the throne. This project was unfavorably received, and she was compelled to sign a formal act of abdication. Other unpleasant circumstances induced her to abandon Stockholm. She visited Sweden a second time in 1666, but returned to Hamburg without reaching the capital, having heard that the public exercise of her religion would not be allowed her. About this time, she aspired to the Polish crown, but the Poles took no notice of her wishes. Finally, she returned to Italy, where she passed the remainder of her life, at Rome, in the cultivation of the arts and sciences. She founded an academy, collected valuable manuscripts, medals and paintings, and died, after having experienced many vexations, April 19, 1689.

She was interred in the church of St. Peter, and the pope erected a monument to her with a long inscription. She had asked only for these few words: *Vixit Christina annos LXIII.* Her principal heir was the cardinal Azzolini, her intendant. Her library was bought by pope Alexander VIII, who placed 900 manuscripts of this collection in the Vatican, and gave the remainder of the books to his family. Odescalchi, the nephew of Innocent XI, purchased the paintings and antiquities. The duke of Orleans, regent of France, bought a part of the paintings for 90,000 scudi, in 1722. The value of these collections may be learned from the two works which give a description of them, namely, Havercamp's *Nummophylacium Reginæ Christinæ*, and the *Museum Odescalcum.* The life of Christina presents a series of inconsistencies and contradictions: we see, on one side, magnanimity, frankness, mildness; on the other, vanity, severity, revenge and dissimulation. Her knowledge of the world, her acuteness and penetration, did not preserve her from visionary projects, from the dreams of alchemy and astrology, and other illusions. She left some small works, in which her character and manner of thinking are perceptible, and which, for the most part, are contained in Archenholz's Memoirs of this princess (1751, 4 vols. 4to.). The authenticity of the letters which appeared in 1762, under her name, is not proved.

CHRISTMAS, the feast of Christ's birth, was, according to many critics, not celebrated in the first centuries of the Christian church, as the Christian usage, in general, was, to celebrate the death of remarkable persons rather than their birth. The death of the martyr Stephen, and the massacre of the innocents at Bethlehem, had been already long celebrated, when, perhaps in opposition to the doctrine of the Manichæans respecting the birth of the Savior, a feast was established, in memory of this event, in the 4th century. In the 5th century, the Western church ordered it to be celebrated for ever on the day of the old Roman feast of the birth of Sol, on the 25th of December, though no information respecting the day of Christ's birth existed. In the East, Christmas was celebrated on the 6th of January. From the gospel of St. Luke, it was known that Christ was born during the night, and therefore divine service was performed in the night of Dec. 24—25, from which circumstance Christmas is called, in German, *Weihnachten*, i. e. Holy or Consecrated Night. The feasts of the martyr Stephen and the evangelist St. John were united with it, and a feast of three days' continuance was thus formed. In the ecclesiastical year, this festival gives name to a period extending from the first Sunday of Advent to the feast of Epiphany, Jan. 6. Some say that Christmas has always been celebrated in the church. In the Catholic church, three masses are performed—one at midnight, one at daybreak, and one in the morning. In the Greek and Roman churches, the manger, the holy family, &c., are sometimes represented at large. Some convents in Rome, chiefly the Franciscans, are famous for attracting many people by such exhibitions. The church of England celebrates this feast, as do the great body of European Protestants. In the U. States, it is little regarded, except by the Episcopalians. The custom of making presents on Christmas-eve is derived from an old heathen usage, practised at the feast of the birth of Sol, or, in Germany, on the occasion of some feast peculiar to that country (at least the *Ruprecht* seems to have had such an origin); but it has become consecrated by ages, and contributes a great deal to make this festival an interesting event to families. In the north of Germany, this custom prevails most, pervading all the classes and relations of society. In some German churches, sermons are delivered on Christmas-eve for the benefit of children, who attend, carrying each a little taper. In the Catholic church, the *officium pastorum* is sung in which a chorus of children respond to the priest.

CHRISTOPHE, Henri, king of Hayti, was born Oct. 6, 1767, in the island of Grenada, as stated by some, but, as others say, in that of St. Christopher. According to the latter account, he was carried to St. Domingo, at the age of twelve, sold as a slave, and employed by his new master in the business of a cook, which calling he exercised at the Cape. Others relate that, after having served in the American war, and received a wound at the siege of Savannah, he went to St. Domingo, and was employed on the plantation of Limonade, in the capacity of an overseer, wherein he displayed his characteristic severity. From the commencement of the troubles among the blacks, he took a decided part in favor of independence, and signalized himself by his energy, boldness and activity, in many bloody engagements. Toussaint-Louverture, the acknowledged chief of the blacks, at length gave him the com-

mission of brigadier-general, and employed him to suppress an insurrection headed by his nephew Moyse. This object was speedily accomplished by Christophe, who made himself master of the person of Moyse, and succeeded him as governor of the province of the North. The execution of Moyse excited new troubles at the Cape, which the activity and intrepidity of Christophe completely suppressed. He commanded there in 1802, when Leclerc arrived with a French army, destined for the subjugation of the Negroes. Most of them, deceived by the promises of Leclerc, at first gave way to his designs; but Dessalines and Christophe resisted from the beginning, and were declared outlaws. Christophe was compelled to make his peace, but resumed arms again upon the perfidious seizure of the person of Toussaint. The climate aided the heroic efforts of Dessalines and Christophe, and, at the close of 1805, there was no longer a French force in Hayti,—for so the island was now denominated by the insurgent chiefs. During the short-lived government of Dessalines, Christophe was general-in-chief of the Haytian army; and, being the senior officer, and most distinguished among the blacks, possessed, of course, powerful claims to succeed him in authority. But the popularity of Petion in the South balanced that of Christophe in the North. In February, 1807, an assembly convened at the Cape appointed Christophe president for life of the state of Hayti; and, about the same time, a republic was organized at Port-au-Prince, with Petion at its head. A civil war between the two chiefs ensued, but did not prevent Christophe from taking judicious measures to establish public order in the territory which he governed. He organized the administration, the tribunals, the marine, and the army, made suitable regulations for the encouragement of agriculture, commerce, and other branches of industry among his people, and, by his energy, attained the most flattering results. His military force was placed on a respectable footing, and his finances were brought into a flourishing condition. He constructed fortifications, and was enabled to set the French at defiance. Following the example of Napoleon, whom he imitated, he abolished the republican forms, March 28, 1811, and was proclaimed king of Hayti, by the name of *Henri I.* The dignity and title were made hereditary in his family; a hereditary nobility was created, to give lustre and strength to the new institutions, with an appropriate order of knighthood; and, to complete the imitation of feudal sovereignties, he was solemnly crowned at the Cape, June 2, 1812, with the ceremonies customary in Europe. He also sought to perpetuate his name by the compilation of the *Code Henri*—a digest founded upon the *Code Napoléon*, but not servilely copied. On the contrary, it was judiciously adapted to the situation of Hayti. In 1813, some cases of defection occurred among his subjects, which tended to exasperate the violent and suspicious temper of Christophe, and prompted him to impolitic acts of cruelty. In 1814, he and Petion suspended hostilities, not by a formal agreement, but, as it were, by tacit consent. For several years in succession, after this, the efforts of the French to regain their authority in the island gave a new turn to the policy of Christophe's government. He constantly refused to hear any proposition from the ex-colonists, short of an acknowledgment of the unqualified independence of the island; and he adopted the most decided measures to counteract the attempts made by France. Beside his military preparations for defence against aggression, he multiplied, through the agency of the press, writings calculated to render the views of the ex-colonists odious, and to maintain the spirit of independence among the emancipated blacks. To further the same object, he conceived, and, at one period, seriously set about effecting, the plan of substituting the English language in the island in place of the French; his intercourse with the English and American merchants having communicated to him a partiality for their language. This project entered into a system of general education, which he devised for the Haytians. Things continued to proceed in this way until the death of Petion, in 1818, and the accession of Boyer. Discontents had increased, meanwhile, among the subjects of Christophe, who contrasted the mild and easy rule of Boyer with the iron despotism under which they groaned; and the army itself was ripe for a change. Insurrection began among the garrison of St. Marc, which mutinied in a body, killed the governor of the town, and sent a deputation to Boyer, signifying their desire to join the republic. Boyer hastily assembled a force of 15,000 men, and marched to the support of the insurgent garrison. At this time, Christophe was confined, by illness, in his fortified palace of Sans Souci, where he commonly resided. The insurrection soon spread to the Cape, where Richard, duc de Marmalade,

and one of the first dignitaries of the kingdom, proclaimed the abolition of royalty at the head of the troops. The *élite* of Christophe's army, composing his guard of about 1500 men, continued faithful to him for a while, but, when marched up to oppose the insurgents from the Cape, joined with the latter in demanding the deposition of Christophe. Perceiving his case to be desperate, and resolved not to gratify the insurgents by becoming their prisoner, Christophe shot himself with a pistol, October 8, 1820. His corpse remained exposed several days on the highway, and his oldest son was massacred; but Boyer protected his widow and daughters from injury, and enabled them to retire to Europe in the possession of a competent fortune. A large treasure was found in fort Henri, which Christophe had amassed from the customs on merchandise. His palace was dismantled by the populace, who seemed to take pleasure in defacing what had cost them so much toil to construct. Thus ended a reign, from which the friends of the blacks anticipated much and with justice. Christophe's policy was probably better calculated than that of Petion and Boyer to advance the prosperity of Hayti. Agriculture and commerce flourished under him, and declined under the latter; but, his government being purely a military despotism, in which he himself was every thing, and the wishes of his people were totally disregarded, the administration degenerated into a system of tyranny which proved insupportable. (*An. Necrol.*, 1821; Franklin's *Hayti*; Malo, *His. d'Hayti.*)

Christopher, duke of Wurtemberg; born in 1515; one of the wisest rulers mentioned in history. His youth was a constant scene of adversity. When he was but four years old, the confederated Suabian cities expelled his father, the duke of Wurtemberg, from his dominions, and sold the dukedom to Austria. Christopher was brought to Vienna, and was hardly saved by his tutor, Tyfferni, from the hands of the Turks, when that city was besieged by Solyman. He was a second time preserved from captivity, by the same individual, in 1532, when Charles V intended to bury his person and his claims on Wurtemberg in a Spanish convent. Christopher had been conveyed almost to the frontiers of Spain, when he fled, and safely reached Bavaria, the duke of which was his uncle, and, together with Philip of Hesse, now commenced a war against Austria, to compel her to resign her claims to Wurtemberg. Francis I supplied them with money to carry on the contest. The battle of Laufen, in 1534, restored the father of Christopher to the government of Wurtemberg. Christopher himself, whom his father disliked, went into the French service. After eight years, he was recalled. In 1550, his father died; but he could not consider himself securely possessed of the dukedom until 1552, when he immediately began to devote himself in every way to the improvement of his subjects. He reëstablished the Lutheran religion, which had been prohibited during the interregnum, and, in so doing, gratified the wishes of his subjects. But he did not appropriate the possessions of convents, and other ecclesiastical establishments, to himself, as so many or most of the Protestant princes did, but formed out of it a great fund, called the *Wurtembergian church property*, to be used for supplying the wants of the church, and for other beneficent purposes. The Wurtembergian *cloister schools*, for the education of young clergymen, and the great theological seminary at Tübingen, are his work. He improved the schools, so that education in Wurtemberg, even at the present time, is, perhaps, in a more flourishing state than in any other part of the world. He extended the liberties of his subjects, and established a civil code, which still exists. At the same time, he was continually attentive to the state of Europe. The fate of Protestantism in Germany was a subject in which he took great interest. He had an interview with Catharine of Medicis and the Guises, in order to alleviate the fate of the Huguenots, and contributed much to the religious peace at Augsburg in 1555. He endeavored to unite the Protestant princes of Germany, and was intrusted with many highly honorable commissions by the empire. He ruled 18 years, and died in December, 1568; but lives still in the memory of the people of Wurtemberg, who regard him as the model of a ruler. J. C. Pfister has well described the life of Christopher.

Christopher, St.; a saint whose name and worship are celebrated, but whose history is little known. He is reported to have been a native of Syria or Cilicia, who was baptized by St. Babylas, bishop of Antioch, and received the crown of martyrdom, in Asia Minor, about the middle of the third century. Relics of him are found in several places, principally in Spain. The Eastern church celebrates his festival on the 9th of May; the Western, on the 25th of July. His intercession was particularly sought in the time of the

plague. *Christopher*, or *Christophel*, literally means *bearer of Christ*. He is represented as a giant, bearing the child Jesus upon his shoulders through the sea, which refers to a legend of this saint. The St. Christopher of Hemmling is one of the finest pictures in the gallery of Boisserée. (q. v.)

Christopher, St. (commonly called *St. Kitt's*); an island in the West Indies, belonging to Great Britain, discovered by Columbus in 1493, about 15 miles in length, and, in general, about 4 in breadth, but towards the eastern extremity, not more than 3. Between that part and the rest of the island is a strip of land 3 miles in length, which does not measure half a mile across. This island contains 43,726 acres, of which about 17,000 acres are appropriated to the growth of sugar, and 4000 to pasturage. As sugar is the only commodity of any consequence that is raised, except the necessary articles of food, and a little cotton, it is probable that nearly one half of the whole island is unfit for cultivation. The interior part of the country consists, indeed, of many rugged precipices and barren mountains. Of these the loftiest is mount Misery (evidently an extinguished volcano), which rises 3711 feet in perpendicular height from the sea. The general average produce of sugar for a series of years is 16,000 hogsheads of 16 cwt., which, as one half only of the whole cane land, or 8500 acres, is annually cut (the remainder being young canes), gives nearly two hogsheads of 16 cwt. per acre for the whole of the land in ripe canes. This island is divided into nine parishes, and contains four towns and hamlets, viz. Basseterre, the present capital, as it was formerly that of the French, containing about 800 houses, Sandy Point, Old Road and Deep Bay. Of these, the two first are ports of entry, established by law. The fortifications consist of Charles Fort and Brimstone Hill, both near Sandy Point, three batteries at Basseterre, one at Fig-tree Bay, another at Palmetto Point, and some smaller ones of no great importance. Population, in 1823—4, according to Humboldt, 23,000, of whom 3500 were free persons, and 19,500 slaves. Official value of imports and exports:—

	Imports.	*Exports.*
In 1809	£266,064	132,845
1810	253,611	89,362

Lon. 62° 49′ W.; lat. 17° 19′ N.

Chromate of Iron, or Chromeisenstein, is a mineral substance of very considerable interest, as affording one of the most beautiful and durable pigments in the arts. It is found disseminated in grains and imperfectly crystallized masses,—occasionally in regular octoedral crystals, its primary form,—of a black color, a shining and somewhat metallic lustre. It scratches glass, is opaque, and has a specific gravity of 4.03. According to Vauquelin, that of France consists of 43 chromic acid, 34.7 oxide of iron, 20.3 alumine, silex 2. But chemists, at the present day, consider the chrome in this mineral in the state of an oxide, and not of an acid; accordingly the mineral is now more correctly denominated the *ferruginous oxide of chrome*. It is found in great abundance in Maryland, at the Bare hills, near Baltimore, and is contained in a steatitic or serpentine rock. It also occurs in small quantities at numerous other places in the U. States, and has many localities in other countries.

Chromatic, in music; one of the three ancient genera—diatonic, chromatic and enharmonic. The word *chromatic* has been adopted, as it is believed, because the Greeks were in the habit of designating this genus by characters of various colors, or, as some say, because the chromatic genus is a mean between the other two, as color is a mean between white and black (this seems to be a very poor explanation); or, lastly, because the chromatic genus, by its semitones, varies and embellishes the diatonic, thus producing an effect similar to that of coloring. In modern music, the word *chromatic* simply means a succession of semitones, ascending or descending. Thus the expressions *chromatic semitone* (the interval which is found between any given note and that same note raised by a sharp or lowered by a flat), *chromatic scale*, *chromatic modulation*, are terms in use.

Chrome; the name of a metal, which, combined with oxygen so as to be in the state of an acid, was discovered by Vauquelin, in an ore of lead from Siberia. This metal has since been found combined with iron in the U. States, and at Unst, one of the Shetland isles. It appears also to be the coloring principle of the emerald and the ruby, and has received its name from its property of assuming brilliant colors in the combinations into which it enters. Chrome, which has hitherto been procured in very small quantities, owing to its powerful attraction for oxygen, may be obtained by mixing the oxide of chrome with charcoal, and exposing the mixture to the most intense heat of a smith's forge. It is brittle, of a grayish-white color, and

very infusible. Its specific gravity is 5.9. Chrome unites with oxygen in three proportions, forming two oxides and one acid. The protoxide is of a green color, exceedingly infusible by itself, but with borax, or vitreous substances, it melts, and communicates to them a beautiful emerald-green color. Indeed, the emerald owes its color to this oxide. The protoxide is employed at the manufactory of Sèvres, in France, to give a fine deep-green to the enamel of porcelain. It is applied without a flux, and melted with the enamel. Chromic acid, however, is the most important of the compounds formed by this metal along with oxygen. It is usually prepared for chemical purposes by mixing solutions of nitrate of barytes and chromate of potash, and digesting the chromate of barytes that is formed in dilute sulphuric acid. This abstracts the barytes, and the chromic acid is procured, by evaporation, in crystals of a fine ruby-red color. It is very soluble in water, has a sour, metallic taste, and all the characters of a strong acid. It combines with the alkalies, earths and metallic oxides, forming salts, many of which have very rich colors. The alkaline chromates are soluble and crystallizable. They are of a yellow or red color, the neutral chromates being commonly yellow, and the bi-chromates, red or deep orange. The best known of these is the bi-chromate of potash, which is one of the most splendid, and, at the same time, one of the most useful salts. The manner in which it is formed is as follows:—Chromate of iron, or rather ferruginous oxide of chrome, reduced to fine powder, is mixed with half its weight of nitrate of potash, and heated strongly for an hour or two in crucibles. The resulting masses are then repeatedly digested with water, and the colored liquids, which are slightly alkaline, saturated with nitric acid, and concentrated by evaporation, till no more crystals of nitre can be obtained from them. The yellow liquid, being now set aside for a week or two, deposits a copious crop of crystals, whose form is that of a four-sided prism, terminated by dihedral summits. Their color is an intense lemon-yellow, with a slight shade of orange. 100 parts of water at 60° dissolves about 48 parts; but boiling water dissolves almost any quantity. Its solution in water decomposes most of the metallic salts; those of mercury, of a fine red; copper and iron, of a reddish brown; silver, dark red, and lead, of a beautiful yellow color, now much used as a pigment, under the name of *chrome yellow*. Chrome yellow is largely manufactured in the U. States, at Baltimore, near which place is found one of the most remarkable deposits of ferruginous oxide of chrome in the world. The process consists in adding a solution of acetate of lead (or sugar of lead) to the rough solution of chromate of potash, from which the nitrate of potash has been just separated by crystallization. The acetate of lead is added as long as any sediment falls. The liquid is then filtered, and the yellow precipitate left on the filters, dried for sale.

CHROMIC ACID. (See *Chrome*.)

CHRONIC (from χρόνος, time); a term applied to diseases which are of long duration, and mostly without fever. It is used in opposition to the term *acute*, which is applied both to a pungent pain, and to a disease which is attended with violent symptoms, terminates in a few days, and is attended with danger. On the other hand, a *chronic* disease is slow in its progress, and not so generally dangerous.

CHRONICLE, strictly speaking, is a history digested according to the order of time. In this sense, it differs but little from *annals*. The term is mostly used in reference to the old histories of nations, written when they were comparatively rude. Chronicles belong to the sources of history, and many have been handed down from early ages; for instance, the two books of the Chronicles of the Hebrews, which belong to the Old Testament. With many nations, such chronicles were written under the authority of government, and priests, being the only men of learning among uncultivated tribes, were intrusted with this office. In the early Christian ages, also, clergymen were generally the authors of the chronicles; e. g., Eusebius, bishop of Cæsarea, collected from other historical works his Chronicle of ancient history. Hieronymus of Stridon translated it into Latin, in the fourth century, and others continued it. Many historical works of the Byzantines (q. v.) are also chronicles. We might mention, likewise, the Alexandrine chronicle (*Chronicon paschale*), published by Du Fresne; also the chronicles written by monks, particularly by the diligent Benedictines, in the middle ages, some of which embraced the whole history of the world, from its beginning to their own time (as the Chronicle of Rhegino, of Otto of Freisingen, &c.); others, the history of a certain period (as Liutprand's History of his Time, from 891 to 946), or of a single nation (as the History of the Franks, by Gregory of Tours; that of the Lombards,

by Paulus Diaconus; the English Chronicles, by Stow, &c.), or the history of single provinces, cities and institutions (as the Chronicle of the Abbey of St. Denis; the Chronicle of Cologne); also the history of individuals (as Eginhard's History of Charlemagne), and of single events. They have been published partly in large collections (for instance, *Scriptores Rerum Germanicarum*), and, until the 13th and 14th centuries, were mostly written in Latin. Of many of them the authors are not known. In this case, they are called after the place where they were written or where they were found.

These chronicles bear the impression of their time, displaying the ignorance and credulity of their authors, and abounding in religious and moral reflections. We must admit, in their favor, however, that they are not filled with political disquisitions and superficial reasoning, of which modern histories afford so many instances. The chronicles of the middle ages were not written with the purpose of supporting certain principles, but generally give simple facts; on account of which they are preferable, as historical records, to many modern works. Of course, they do not equal in value the result of the deep researches of a Gibbon or a Niebuhr. Young men, in search of historical knowledge, ought to apply themselves more frequently to these sources, and not trust so much to the writers who drew from them; and we can say, from experience, that they would find them very interesting reading. (For information respecting the chronicles of the middle ages, we would refer the reader to the treatises by Rösler, in Latin, particularly the preface to his *Chronica Medii Ævi* (1798), and the directories of Freher and Adelung.) *Chronicle* is also often used as the title of newspapers. The most important of these is the (London) Morning Chronicle, an excellent paper of the whig party. (See *Newspaper*.)

Chronodistich, Chronogram; a verse in which certain of the letters used signify Roman numbers, and indicate the year in which the event happened to which the verse relates; e. g., reges ConCeDant paCeM, where CCDCM make the number 1800. It is little used at present.

Chronology (compounded of χρόνος, time, and λόγος, discourse) is the art of measuring time (see *Time*), distinguishing its several constituent parts, such as centuries, years, &c., by appropriate marks and characters, and adjusting these parts, in an orderly manner, to past transactions, by means of eras, epochs and cycles, for the illustration of history. The principal means for marking the divisions of time are afforded by the motions of the heavenly bodies, particularly the sun and the moon, which produce the natural division of time into years, months and days. The necessities of life, requiring still smaller and more precise divisions of time (which can be measured only by artificial means), gave rise to hours, minutes and seconds. This division of time is called the *artificial*. Even in the natural division, however, there is something arbitrary, as it depends solely on the will what point in the motions of the heavenly bodies shall be taken as the point of beginning; for example, in the annual rotation of the earth, whether we shall take the longest day of summer or the shortest day of winter. The first lawgivers, therefore, fixed the civil beginning and end of the month, day and year, and, at the same time also, the smaller divisions of these larger portions of time. From this separation of the natural and artificial or civil division of time, arises a division of chronology into mathematical, astronomical and historical. Astronomical chronology determines the duration of the natural portions of time by the revolutions of the heavenly bodies; historical chronology treats of the civil divisions of time, of the methods of reckoning time among different nations, of ancient periods or remarkable epochs, &c. It is obvious that each of these divisions of chronology requires the assistance of the others. All historical chronology is grounded on the astronomical, which cannot determine the duration of the periods of time without the aid of the civil division. Mathematicians and astronomers determine the natural periods of time as they are indicated by the motions of the sun and moon. It is left to legislators to determine by law on what day the year shall begin, how many days shall constitute a month, how many a week, &c. This civil regulation is the foundation of the calendar (q. v.) or almanac. Thus far must astronomical chronology be connected with historical; but the latter only can teach us the divisions adopted by different people. Historical chronology explains, 1. the form of the year among different nations, as it is regulated by lawgivers, founders of religions, and other founders of civil society: 2. those events which are selected by different nations as eras, that is, as points from which they begin their reckoning; e. g., the Yugs of the Hindoos, the era of Nabonassar, the era of the Seleucidæ, among the Chaldeans,

Syrians, Persians, Egyptians; the creation of the world, among the Jews; the birth of Christ, among Christians; the Olympiads, among the Greeks; the building of Rome and the consular era, among the Romans; the Hegira, or flight of Mohammed, among the Mohammedans, &c. As so many different eras render the reckoning of time difficult, it, 3dly, selects a form of the year and an era to which it refers those of other nations, and by which it arranges the history of all nations and times. The European chronologist and historian must refer the eras and years of all people to those used in modern Europe. Mathematical and astronomical chronology is taught in the manuals of astronomy. Among these may be mentioned the *Astronomie* of Lalande (2d vol. p. 270, 2d ed.) The Manual of Astronomical and Technical Chronology (from the sources) of D. L. Ideler (vol. 1, Berlin, 1825, vol. 2, 1826) is an excellent work. This *savant* has done much for the advancement of this science by his extensive researches into Asiatic as well as European literature.

Chronometer; a time-piece of a peculiar construction, at present much employed by navigators in determining the longitude at sea. In general, chronometers are much larger than common watches, and are hung in gimbals, in boxes six or eight inches square; but there are also many pocket chronometers, which, externally, have all the appearance of the better sort of pocket watches, and internally differ from these only in the construction of the balance. The balance and hair-spring are the principal agents in regulating the rate of going in a common watch, being to this what the pendulum is to a common clock; and this spring, in the former, like the pendulum in the latter, is subject to expansions and contractions, under different degrees of heat and cold, which, of course, affect the speed or rate of the machine; and the methods of correcting this inaccuracy mark the difference between the watch and chronometer. These are very numerous. (See *Horology*.) With American navigators, chronometers are more common than with those of any other nation. All the lines of packets between the U. States and Europe have them.—An instrument under the name of *chronometer* is also used by musicians for the accurate measurement of time. Two sorts have been invented for different purposes. The first supplies the motion of a conductor, and regularly beats time. In the British Magazine (ii. 283) may be found an account of a graduated pendulum for this purpose, proposed by doctor Robinson; and others have since been sold at the principal music-shops in London. The second is used by tuners of instruments, to measure the velocity of beats. On this point, the reader may consult doctor Smith's *Harmonics*, p. 210.

Chrysalis. (See *Papilio*.)

Chryseis. (See *Achilles*.)

Chrysippus, a Stoic philosopher of Cilicia, distinguished for his skill in disputing. He was the principal opposer of the Epicureans, and is said to have written 700 different works, mostly of a dialectical character; but of these no complete work is extant. He died, at a great age, about 206 years B. C.

Chrysoberyl (sometimes called *cymophane*, and, by the jewellers, *Oriental chrysolite*) was, for a long time, only known as occurring in semi-transparent, rounded pieces, in the alluvial deposits of rivers, along with other species of gems. Thus, in Brazil, it was found along with the diamond and topaz, and with rubies and sapphires in Ceylon. Distinct crystals were afterwards brought from Siberia, but their original situation still remains unknown. It is now known to exist, in beautifully distinct crystals, at two places in the U. States—at Haddam (Conn.) and Saratoga (N. Y.) They are found, at both these localities, in a granitic rock. The form of the crystal is, for the most part, a right rectangular prism, and a low, six-sided table (with reëntering angles), formed by the crossing of three prismatic crystals. Chrysoberyl scratches quartz; is of an olive-green color, and vitreous lustre, and is often possessed of a bluish opalescence. Specific gravity, 3.754. It is composed of alumine 68.66, glucine 16.00, silex 5.99, protoxide of iron 4.73, and oxide of titanium 2.66.

Chrysolite; a greenish, yellowish or brownish stone, sometimes transparent, sometimes only translucent, which possesses the power of double refraction in a high degree. It is composed of silex and magnesia. The chrysolite employed in the arts comes chiefly from the Levant, and is sometimes used in jewellery, but is not highly esteemed. Werner thinks that the yellow chrysolite of the ancients is the modern topaz.

Chrysoloras, Emanuel; a distinguished Greek of Constantinople, born about the middle of the 14th century, the first who, in modern times, transplanted Greek literature into Italy. The emperor John Palæologus sent him, in 1391, to

Italy and England, to ask for assistance against the Turks. Having thus become known in Italy, he returned there, about the year 1395, and was appointed professor of Greek literature at Florence. He remained about three years in Florence, where he collected around him a great number of scholars, of all ages and ranks, and excited universal enthusiasm as much by his dignity, and the grace of his elocution, as by the extent of his learning. From his school proceeded Leonardo Bruno, Poggius, Francis Philelphus, and other distinguished revivers of classical studies. He afterwards taught with equal success in Milan, whence the Greek emperor Manuel, who, in 1400, had come to Italy, sent for him to Pavia, Venice, and lastly to Rome. Pope Gregory XII employed him in public affairs, and sent him, with others, to the council of Constance, where he died in 1415. He should not be confounded with his nephew and companion in Italy, John Chrysoloras.

Chrysostom, John, St.; a celebrated father of the church, born in Antioch, in the year 344. Secundus, his father, had the command of the imperial troops in Syria. In those times, eloquence was still the means of obtaining the highest honors in Greece. Chrysostom studied this art, with Libanius, the most famous orator of his time, and soon excelled his master. After having studied philosophy with Andragathius, he devoted himself to the Holy Scriptures, and determined upon quitting the world, and on consecrating his life to God in the deserts of Syria. At the age of 20, he conducted a legal case with extraordinary success; but he soon retired from public business, and, by fasting and penance, endeavored to obtain the mastery of his passions. He remained three years in Antioch. He was united, by the ties of an intimate friendship, with Basil, Theodore, afterwards bishop of Mopsuesta, and with Maximus, subsequently bishop of Seleucia. Theodore having quitted for a time his holy vocation, Chrysostom wrote two beautiful exhortations, in order to recall him to his duty. The bishops of the provinces had determined on electing him or Basil as bishop; but Chrysostom fled, and concealed himself; consequently Basil was elected, who complained, however, much of his friend's withdrawal. Chrysostom defended himself in his beautiful work on the office of priests. He was then only 26 years old. In 374, he retired to the anchorites who dwelt on the mountains in the vicinity of Antioch. He described the life which he led with them in the following manner:—"They rise with the first crowing of the cock, or at midnight. After having read psalms and hymns in common, each, in his separate cell, is occupied in reading the Holy Scriptures, or in copying books. Then they proceed to church, and, after mass, return quietly to their habitations. They never speak to each other; their nourishment is bread and salt; some add oil to it, and the invalids vegetables. After meals, they rest a few moments, and then return to their usual occupations. They till the ground, fell wood, make baskets and clothes, and wash the feet of travellers. Their bed is a mat spread on the ground; their dress consists of skins, or cloths made of the hair of goats and camels. They go barefooted, have no property, and never pronounce the words *mine* and *thine*. Undisturbed peace dwells in their habitations, and a cheerfulness scarcely known in the world." After four years, Chrysostom quitted these hermits to seek a still greater seclusion. He dwelt in a cavern, where he remained two years without lying down. His penance and wakefulness, together with the dampness of his abode, threw him into a severe illness, which forced him to return to Antioch (381). In the same year, he was appointed deacon by the bishop of Antioch, and, in 386, consecrated priest. He was chosen vicar by the same dignitary, and commissioned to preach the word of God to the people. Till then, the bishops only had instructed the people in the gospel. His eloquence attracted Jews, heathens and heretics. He was, says Sozomenes, the ornament of his church, and of the whole East, when the emperor Arcadius determined, in 397, to place him in the episcopal see of Constantinople. To prevent the inhabitants of Antioch from opposing his intentions, the emperor caused him to be secretly conveyed to Constantinople, where Theophilus, patriarch of Alexandria, ordained him. He commenced his official labors by limiting the expenses of his house, founded and supported many hospitals, improved the morals of the clergy, and converted a number of heathens and heretics. He gave so generously to the poor, that he was universally called *John the almsgiver*. He devoted himself to attendance on the sick. He sent bishops as missionaries to the Goths, to the Scythians, and to Persia and Palestine. His eloquence twice prevented an insurrection. In 399, Chrysostom held a council in Constantinople, at which several Asiatic bishops were deposed as guilty of simony.

Severin, bishop of Gabala, in Syria, dared to attack Chrysostom from the pulpit, and to stir up the people against him; but his charges were rejected as calumnies. Chrysostom had two dangerous enemies—the empress Eudoxia, whose injustice and extortions gave cause to many complaints; and Theophilus, patriarch of Alexandria, who was jealous of his influence. The latter assembled several bishops at Chalcedon, who were to investigate the complaints made against Chrysostom. But he refused to appear, alleging that they had acted against the laws of the church; and, on his part, assembled 40 bishops at Constantinople. His enemies, however, prevailed. His removal was determined upon, and sanctioned by Arcadius, who banished him from the country. Chrysostom quitted the city secretly, that he might not be prevented by his adherents, and purposed retiring to Bithynia; but the people threatened a revolt. In the following night, an earthquake gave general alarm. In this dilemma, Arcadius recalled his orders, and Eudoxia herself invited Chrysostom to return. The people accompanied him triumphantly to the city, his enemies fled, and peace was restored, but only for a short time. A feast, attended with many heathen ceremonies, for the consecration of a statue, given by the empress, roused the zeal of the archbishop, who publicly exclaimed against it; and Eudoxia, violently incensed, recalled the prelates devoted to her will, and Chrysostom was condemned, although 40 bishops declared themselves in his favor. Arcadius ordered the soldiers to force him from the church, which was profaned and stained with blood. Pope Innocent I and the emperor Honorius declared themselves in favor of Chrysostom, but Arcadius refused to assemble the council, on which the others insisted, and commanded Chrysostom peremptorily to retire to the place of his banishment. He obeyed, and was conveyed to Nice, in Bithynia (404). Soon after his departure, the church and the palace where the senate used to assemble became a prey to the flames. Many works of art were lost in this conflagration, which the emperor attributed to the friends of Chrysostom. The Isaurians and Huns laid waste the empire. Chrysostom's return was universally desired; Arcadius remained inflexible. Eudoxia died soon after Chrysostom's banishment, after having fixed upon the little Armenian town Cucusus, in the wilds of Taurus, for his abode. Exhausted by sickness, deprivations, and the fatigues of his journey, he arrived there, and continued to exert his pious zeal. He sent missionaries to Persia and Phœnicia, and wrote 17 letters to Olympias, all of which are moral dissertations. He likewise addressed to her his work entitled, "None can injure him who does not injure himself." All Christendom beheld the pious sufferer with love and admiration; at which the emperor, exasperated, commanded him to be conveyed to the shores of the Pontus Euxinus, to the town of Pityont, situated on its most distant borders. The officers who had him in charge obliged the old man to perform this journey on foot, with his head uncovered, in the burning heat of the sun; but he fell a prey to exhaustion. In Comana, in Pontus, he was brought to the oratory of the martyr St. Basil. He put on white garments, received the eucharist, uttered a fervent prayer, which he closed, as usual, with the words "Praise be to God for all things," crossed himself, and expired (407), 63 years old. His body was interred at the side of that of St. Basil; but, in 438, it was conveyed solemnly to Constantinople, and there interred in the church of the apostles, in the sepulchre of the emperor. At a later period, his remains were placed in the Vatican at Rome. The Greek church celebrates his feast on the 13th of November, the Roman on the 27th of January. The name of *Chrysostom* (golden-mouthed) was assigned to him, after his death, to express the eloquence which he possessed in so much greater a degree than the other fathers of the church. He never repeats himself, and is always original. The vivacity and power of his imagination, the force of his logic, his power of arousing the passions, the beauty and accuracy of his comparisons, the neatness and purity of his style, his clearness and sublimity, place him on a level with the most celebrated Greek authors: the Christian church has not a more accomplished orator.—The most accurate Greek edition of his works is that of Henry Saville (1612, 9 vols. fol.); the most complete Greek and Latin, is that of Montfaucon (Paris, 1618, 13 vols. fol.) Professor Neander, at Berlin, has written a biography of this father of the church, or rather a history of him and his time, entitled *St. Chrysostom*, a highly esteemed work, full of the important results of the deep researches of its learned author.

Chubb, Thomas; a writer in humble life, who obtained great temporary distinction as a controversialist. He was born at East Hadham, near Salisbury, and

was instructed only in reading, writing and accounts. He was apprenticed to a glover, but, at length, became journeyman to a tallow-chandler, and employed his leisure in the acquisition of knowledge, from the best English books which he could procure. In 1715, he published The Supremacy of the Father asserted, &c., the perspicuity and argumentative skill of which obtained for it much notice. Of course, a production, assailing a part of the orthodox faith, did not pass without reply, and a controversial warfare commenced, which lasted as long as his life. In 1730, he offered to the world his thoughts on a variety of topics, moral and theological, in 34 tracts, collected in a 4to. volume, of which book Pope, in a letter to Gay, speaks with great respect. Various publications followed, e. g., A Discourse concerning Reason, The true Gospel of Jesus Christ asserted, Inquiry into the Ground and Foundation of Religion, &c., which manifest his disposition to question many points of orthodoxy. He, however, adhered to the general conclusion, that Jesus was sent from God as an instructer to mankind, and regularly attended public worship at his parish church until his death. Chubb seems never to have sought to emerge from the humble condition in which fortune had placed him, although he met with some powerful patrons. He died suddenly in February, 1747, aged 68.

Chulucanas; the name of an ancient ruined city of Peru, on the ridge of the Cordilleras, at the height of 8943 feet above the level of the sea, and on the Paramo of Chulucanas, between the Indian villages of Ayavaca and Guancabamba. Humboldt says, that the great causey of the Incas, lined with freestone—one of the most useful and stupendous works ever executed by man, and which may be compared with the finest Roman roads—is still in good preservation, between Chulucanas, Guamani and Sagique; and Francisco Coreal found it perfect in two other places, and states that it yields in nothing to the most magnificent European road. It runs from Quito, through Cuzco, to La Plata, or from the equator to 20° of S. latitude. On the summit of the Andes, wherever this road passes, ruins of great buildings are every where seen. Humboldt counted nine in less than half a degree of latitude; and Pedro de Cieca de Leon, who wrote in 1541, describes several which he saw in the province of Los Canares. They are now called, by the Peruvians, *palaces of the Incas*, but were probably only fortifications to secure the conquests of Quito and Chile.

Chuquisaca, or La Plata; a city of South America, and capital of Bolivia; lat. 19° 40′ S.; lon. 66° 46′ W.; population, 18,000. The inhabitants consist of Indians and Spaniards. It stands on a plain, environed by eminences, which defend it from all winds. The temperature of the air, in summer, is very mild; nor is there any considerable difference throughout the year. The houses have one story besides the ground floor. They are covered with tiles, and are very roomy and convenient, with delightful gardens, planted with European fruit-trees; but water is so scarce as hardly to supply the necessary purposes of life, and is brought from the several public fountains dispersed in the different parts of the city.—The town had the name of *La Plata* from its being built near silver mines. It was erected into a bishopric in 1551, the place having then the title of *city*, and, in 1608, was raised to an archbishopric. The cathedral is large, of good architecture, and finely adorned with paintings and gildings. The city has also a university, dedicated to St. Francis Xavier, the chairs of which are filled indifferently with secular clergy or laymen; but the rector was formerly always a Jesuit.

Chur. (See *Coire*.)

Church is, in the widest sense of the word, the collective body of those who declare themselves to be followers of Christ. In this sense, the founder of the church is Jesus Christ himself; for, though his followers did not separate themselves from the community of the synagogue until after his death, yet he had, by preaching a doctrine essentially different from Judaism, and by collecting disciples and friends around him, laid the foundation of a new religious body. Moreover, he ordered his disciples, at the time of his departure from the world, to go forth and preach the gospel through the earth, and established two religious ceremonies, by which his followers were to be distinguished. These circumstances, many have thought, must be taken as indicating his intention to found a church. Judaism, too, may be considered as having paved the way for the establishment of a Christian church or organized religious community.—But the word *church* is not so often taken in the sense just described as in a much narrower one, in which it signifies a body of Christians, which differs in doctrines, constitution and usages from the remainder. From the 11th cen-

tury, the Greek or Oriental Christians were separated from the Latin Christians, or Christians of the West; and thus originated the difference between the Greek Catholic church, whose chief is the patriarch of Constantinople, and the Roman Catholic church, whose chief is the Roman bishop, or the pope. In the 16th century, the reformation caused another division in the Western church, one part of its members seceding from the government of the Roman see, and adopting different doctrines from those professed by the rest. Thus arose the difference between the Catholic and Protestant churches. It might reasonably be asked, whether some Protestant sects do not differ from each other as much as from the Catholic church; for instance, the Quakers from the English Episcopal church. But, for the purpose of this article, it is sufficient that, in the common use of language, they are all called *Protestants*. There is, moreover, one point which distinguishes all Protestant sects, or the whole Protestant church, from the two Catholic ones, namely, that the Protestants declare the Bible their only ground of belief, and permit it to be freely read and examined into.—In a third sense, the word *church* is sometimes used for the whole Christian community of a country, e. g., the French church, Italian church, &c.—In a fourth sense, this word signifies the building in which Christians assemble for the worship of God. The Christians of the 1st century worshipped in private houses, or in the open air, in remote places, because they were not acknowledged by the state, and were often persecuted. It was not till the 3d century, that they could venture to give more publicity to their service, and to build churches. Since the 4th century, the churches have become large and magnificent edifices. Such were erected by Constantine and, more particularly, by Theodosius and Justinian. Many heathen temples, also, were changed into Christian churches. In the middle ages, many splendid edifices were erected for the performance of divine service, which, in loftiness and grandeur, were never surpassed. Some of the most famous churches at present are St. Peter's, at Rome; Notre Dame, at Paris; St. Stephen's, at Vienna; the church of Isaac, at St. Petersburg; the minsters at Strasburg and Cologne; and St. Paul's church, in London. (See *Cathedrals*.) Excepting the last mentioned edifice, Protestantism has produced no very splendid church. In fact, the Protestants, in the construction of their places of worship, seem to have had almost exclusively in view the accommodation of the hearers, particularly in England and America. This fact is easily explained from the circumstance that they do not celebrate, in their churches, divine service, in the sense in which the Catholics use the phrase, but chiefly meet to hear the Bible explained to them, and to be instructed in their duties; on account of which the churches of a large portion of Protestants are often, or even usually, called *meeting-houses*, and their sermons *discourses*.—In New England, the word *church* is used to denote the members of a religious society, who have made a public profession of the Christian religion, in contradistinction to the other individuals belonging to the same religious society, who have not made such a profession.—There are various derivations of the word *church*, which, of course, has the same origin with the German *Kirche*, and the Scottish *kirk*. Some derive it from the Greek κυριακὸν, from κυριος, lord, a house appropriated for the service of the Lord. Others think the German word is a translation of the Latin *ecclesia*, in which case it would be derived from *küren*, to elect, and imply the idea of the elect people of God.

As it is the natural course of things that the different branches, powers, or, in general, the component parts of every establishment, are at first confounded, and separated only by degrees, with the progress of improvement, and after long struggles, so it has been with the church and the state. The violent contentions which took place at first between the emperor of Germany, who considered himself emperor of Christendom, and the pope, were repeated in many countries, and still continue in some. It would far exceed our limits to give even a sketch of these disputes, and of the theories which have been advanced on the different sides respecting this question: we will only mention, that, in all Protestant countries, the monarchs have usurped the highest ecclesiastical power, without any support from history or Scripture. Three equally untenable theories have been advanced to justify this assumption:—1. the *episcopal system*, so called, according to which the episcopal rights are said to have been transferred to the sovereign by the reformation; 2. the *territorial system*, which maintains that the worldly ruler is, *ipso facto*, spiritual chief of the church of his country; 3. the *collegial system*, which considers the members of a church as a society, whose rights rest upon a con-

tract, by which a part of them has been conferred upon the sovereign. History and reason prove how unfounded these theories are, which are properly to be considered as defences of usurpation. The United States of America are the only Christian country in which there is no established religion; but, notwithstanding all the advantages springing from this state of things, it is not entirely free from evils.—The revenue of the church is a subject of great importance in political economy. The following table, showing the annual amount of the income of the clergy in all parts of the Christian world, is copied from the Catholic Miscellany. It will be perceived, that the revenue of the clergy of Great Britain, according to this statement, is greater, by £44,000 sterling, than that of all the other Christian clergy in the known world; while the number of hearers attending on their ministry, compared with the aggregate number belonging to the Christian flocks in other nations, is as 1 to 32.

	Amount.	*Hearers.*
French Catholic and Protestant churches,	£1,050,000	30,000,000
United States,	776,000	9,600,000
Spain,	1,000,000	11,000,000
Portugal,	300,000	3,000,000
Hungary, Catholics,	220,000	3,000,000
——— Calvinists,	63,000	1,050,000
——— Lutherans,	26,000	650,000
Italy,	776,000	19,391,000
Austria,	950,000	16,918,000
Switzerland,	87,000	1,720,000
Prussia,	527,000	10,563,000
German small states,	765,000	12,765,000
Holland,	160,000	2,000,000
Netherlands,	105,000	3,000,000
Denmark,	119,000	1,700,000
Sweden,	238,000	3,371,000
Russia, Greek church,	510,000	34,000,000
——— Cath. and Luth.,	480,000	8,000,000
Christians in Turkey,	180,000	6,000,000
——— dispersed elsewhere,	520,000	21,000,000
	£8,852,000	198,728,000
England, Wales, and Ireland,	8,896,000	6,400,000
Income of the established clergy of the whole Christian world beside,	8,852,000	
Balance in favor of the English clergy,	£44,000	

CHURCH, EASTERN. (See *Greek Church.*)

CHURCH OF ENGLAND. (See *England, Church of.*)

CHURCH, GREEK. (See *Greek Church.*)

CHURCH, LATIN, or WESTERN. (See *Roman Catholic Church.*)

CHURCH, ROMAN CATHOLIC. (See *Roman Catholic Church.*)

CHURCH, FATHERS OF THE (*patres ecclesiæ*); teachers and writers of the ancient church, who flourished after the time of the apostles and apostolic fathers (the immediate disciples of the apostles), from the 2d to the 6th century. This name is also sometimes given to the teachers and writers of the following centuries, down to the schoolmen, who begin with the 12th century. A large number of their writings have been preserved, and have been published by modern scholars. The knowledge of their lives and their works constitutes a particular science, called *patristics*. The fathers of the church introduced the Greek and Roman learning into Christian treatises, and many of them were as able as they were learned. Most of the earlier fathers of the church, before their conversion to Christianity, were rhetoricians or advocates, which accounts for several peculiarities, as well in their method of disputing as in their style. The object of their writings is to defend the Christian religion and the Christian community, refute the Jews, pagans and heretics, explain the Holy Scriptures, set forth the doctrines of their faith, and the rules of their morality, also the history of Christianity and the Christian church, and impart instruction to the people. The contents of these writings, therefore, are apologetic, exegetic, dogmatic, moral, historical, polemical, or ascetic. The fathers of the church are divided into two chief classes, Latin and Greek. The most celebrated among the Greek fathers are, Clement of Alexandria, the first who philosophized on Christianity; Origen, distinguished for his homilies and his apologetic and exegetic writings; Eusebius, who wrote the first history of Christianity; Athanasius, who had a decided influence upon the formation of the Christian dogmas; and Chrysostom, the most admired of the ancient Christian orators. The most distinguished among the Latin fathers are, Tertullian, a writer of great originality; Augustine, a man of a peculiar and vehement mind, the oracle of the Western church; Ambrose, distinguished as a Christian orator; and Jerome, a man of much learning, and particularly happy in explaining the Holy Scriptures, whose efforts, however, contributed much to awaken in the West an admiration for the renunciation of the world and the celibacy of priests. The fathers of the

church are now very much studied by the German Protestants, and many parts of their works have been translated. We do not hesitate to say that they are too little studied in England, as well as in the U. States, containing, as they do, great stores of knowledge relating to the early history of Christianity, and elucidating its character. The work of doctor Neander, *Denkwürdigkeiten aus der Geschichte des Christenthums und des Christlichen Lebens* (Berlin, 1825—6), in which great use has been made of the writings of the fathers, affords abundant evidence of their value.

CHURCH MUSIC. (See *Music, Sacred.*)

CHURCH, STATES OF THE; the pope's dominions in Italy. They originated with the grant of Pepin, king of the Franks, in 754, who bestowed on Stephen II, bishop of Rome, some districts, which the Lombards, against whom Stephen II solicited Pepin's assistance, had taken from the exarchate. Charlemagne confirmed this grant in 774, and, in return, received the title of *Roman emperor* from Leo III, in 800. The suspicious charters of Louis-le-Débonnaire, Otho I and Henry II, the genuineness of which the papal chamberlain, Marino Marini, has lately (Rome, 1822) endeavored to establish, are the only proofs of these grants of Pepin and Charlemagne to the popes. The temporal power of the popes over the States of the Church, or the dominion of St. Peter, is founded on these documents, of which there only exists a copy, received of the papal chamberlain Cancio, towards the end of the 12th century. The wise policy of the popes, in conferring favors on the Normans in Lower Italy, secured to them, in these vassals, stanch protectors of the holy see. The structure of the papal power was fully completed in 1075, under Gregory VII. The crusades contributed more to promote the views of the popes in the commencement than in the sequel. The dominions of Mathilda (q. v.) were added to the States of the Church, and the popes maintained possession of them against all the claims of the German emperors. The papal chair removed a dangerous neighbor belonging to the house of Hohenstaufen, by raising the house of Anjou to the throne of Naples, in the year 1265. The tyranny of the heads of the church, added to their corrupt life, at last provoked the Romans to opposition, and the popes were obliged to transfer their residence, from 1305 till 1376, to Avignon, which Clement VI bought of Joanna, queen of Naples and countess of Provençe, in 1348. As the choice of the popes made under the influence of the king of France seldom or never obtained the assent of the Romans and Germans, antipopes were elected by the latter, and the welfare of the church, as well as of the state, suffered by their mutual hostilities. The return of the popes to Rome was favorable to the aggrandizement of their power, although the German councils often expressed themselves in bold and independent language. Julius II added Bologna to the papal dominions in 1513, and Ancona in 1532. The Venetians were obliged to cede Ravenna. Ferrara was wrested from Modena in 1598, and Urbino was bequeathed to the papal chair, in 1626, by its last duke, Francis Maria, of the house of Rovera. At the same time, the popes lost a great part of their temporal and spiritual influence, to the diminution of which the rapid progress of the reformation from the year 1517, greatly contributed. The wise administration of Sixtus V restored internal order towards the end of the 16th century; but the extravagance and family partialities of his successors created fresh disorder. Clement XIV was forced to abolish the order of the Jesuits, in 1773. Subsequently, Naples renounced her feudal obligations to the papal chair, and even the journey of Pius VI to Vienna, in 1782, could not prevent the great changes which Joseph II was making in the ecclesiastical affairs of his kingdom. After the successes of the French in Italy, the pope was forced, at the peace of Tolentino, Feb. 13, 1797, to cede Avignon to France, and Romagna, Bologna and Ferrara to the Cisalpine republic. An insurrection in Rome against the French, Dec. 28, 1797, caused the occupation of the city, Feb. 10, 1798, and the annexation of the States of the Church to the Roman republic. Pius VI died in France. The victories of the Russians and Austrians in Italy favored the election of pope Pius VII, March 14, 1800, who, under the protection of Austrian troops, took possession of Rome. By the concordat concluded, in 1801, with the first consul of the French republic, the pope again lost a great part of his temporal power. In 1807, the holy father was urged to introduce the *Code Napoléon*, and to declare war against England. He refused; and, on the 3d of April, France was declared to be at war with the pope, and the provinces of Ancona, Urbino, Macerata and Camerino were added to the kingdom of Italy. The possessions of the church beyond the Apennines were all that remained to the pope. (See the correspondence of Pius

VII with Napoleon, in Staudlin's *Historical Archives of the States of the Church*, 1 vol., 1815.) Feb. 2, 1808, a French corps of 8000 men entered Rome; the remainder of the papal states were added to France, and a pension of 2,000,000 of francs settled on the pope, whose ecclesiastical power was to continue. The decree of May 17, 1809, at length put an end to the ecclesiastical state. The pope was detained in France until the events of 1814 again permitted him to take possession of his states. (See *Pius VII*.) The States of the Church (*Stato della Chiesa*)—17,185 square miles, with 2,460,000 inhabitants, occupying 90 towns, 212 market-places, and 3500 villages—are situated in the centre of Italy, between Lombardy, Tuscany, Naples, and the Tuscan and Adriatic seas. The Apennines (which include the Somma, 6800 ft., and Velino, 7872 ft. high) traverse the country from N. W. to S. E. The rivers are small, with the exception of the Po (which touches the northern boundary, and forms the marshes of Commachio) and its branches. The most considerable is the Tiber, navigable from Perugia. Pope Leo XII (Genga) reigned from 1823 till Feb. 15, 1829. Pius VIII (cardinal Castiglione) succeeded him. The revenue is estimated at 12 millions, and the national debt at 200 millions of florins. There is a standing army of 9000 men. The navy consists of 2 frigates and a few small vessels. The emperor of Austria has the right to garrison the citadel of Ferrara. Internal tranquillity is not yet restored. In 1816, the States of the Church, with the exception of Rome, Tivoli and Subiaco, which are under the immediate administration of the pope, were divided into 17 delegations, which, when under the government of cardinals, are called *legations*. Protestants, Greeks and Jews are tolerated. The religious orders and the Jesuits have been reëstablished, as was also, in 1826, the university of Urbino. This fertile country is not very well governed. It produces all kinds of corn, the finest fruits, such as oranges, lemons, figs, dates, &c.; a great quantity of oil, good wines, and mulberries, &c. The hills are covered with thick forests; the finest marble is found here; and there are, likewise, traces of various metals; but these advantages are not sufficiently estimated. Mining is not known; agriculture is neglected; but the breeding of cattle and sheep is more carefully attended to. Manufactures are limited to Rome, Bologna, Ancona and Norcia. In 1824, 3630 vessels entered the five ports, Rome, Cività Vecchia, Ancio, Terracino and Ancona, of which 1052 belonged to the papal, and 2267 to the other Italian states. The fair of Sinigaglia is much frequented.

Church, Benjamin, who distinguished himself in the Indian wars of New England, was born at Duxbury, Massachusetts, in 1639. He was one of the most active and indefatigable opponents of the Indian king Philip, and was once very near losing his life, while in pursuit of him. He commanded the party which killed Philip, in August, 1676. In 1704, the spirit of the old warrior was roused by the burning of Deerfield, and he immediately rode 70 miles on horseback, to tender his services to governor Dudley. The offer being accepted, he undertook an expedition against the eastern shore of New England, and inflicted considerable injury upon the French and Indians. The rupture of a blood-vessel, occasioned by a fall from his horse, put an end to his life, Jan. 17, 1718, in the 78th year of his age. He published a narrative of king Philip's war, 1716; and left a character of great integrity and piety.

Churchill, John, duke of Marlborough, a distinguished general and statesman, was the son of sir Winston Churchill, and was born at Ashe, in Devonshire, in 1650. He received his education at home, under a clergyman, from whom he derived little instruction, but imbibed a strong attachment for the church of England. At the age of 12, he was taken to court, and became page to the duke of York, and, at 16, received from him a pair of colors. The first engagement at which he was present was the siege of Tangier, which seems to have decided him in his choice of a profession. On his return, he remained for some time about the court, and, being very handsome, was a great favorite with the ladies there. The king's mistress, the duchess of Cleveland, in particular, was much attached to him, and presented him with £5,000, with which he purchased a life annuity. In 1672, he accompanied the duke of Monmouth, as captain of grenadiers, when the duke went with a body of auxiliaries to the continent, to assist the French against the Dutch. He there fought under the great Turenne, with whom he went by the name of the *handsome Englishman*. At the siege of Maestricht, he distinguished himself so highly as to obtain the public thanks of the king of France. On his return to England, he was made lieutenant-colonel; also gentleman of the bed-chamber and master of the robes to the duke

of York, whom, in 1679, he accompanied to the Netherlands, and afterwards, in 1680, to Scotland, where he was much noticed by those who wished to pay their court to the duke. In 1680, he had a regiment of dragoons presented to him, and married miss Sarah Jennings, a lady of great beauty and good family, an attendant upon the princess, afterwards queen, Anne. By this union he materially strengthened his interest at court, his lady proving a valuable helpmate in all his schemes for advancement. In 1682, he was shipwrecked, with the duke of York, in their passage to Scotland; on which event he received a great proof of the duke's regard, who used every effort to save him, while many persons of quality perished. In the same year, through the interest of his master, he obtained the title of *baron of Eyemouth*, and a colonelcy in the guards. On the accession of James II, he was sent ambassador to France, and, soon after his return, was created baron Churchill of Sundridge, and, the same year, suppressed the rebellion of the duke of Monmouth. During the remainder of this reign, he acted with great prudence and a strict attention to his own interest, and, on the arrival of the prince of Orange, joined him at Axminster, with the duke of Grafton, and some other officers. His conduct in this affair has been severely censured as ungrateful; but his own apology (and there is no reason to dispute it) was his attachment to the Protestant cause, and the dictates of his conscience. On the accession of William and Mary, in 1689, he was rewarded for his zeal in their cause by the earldom of Marlborough, and appointed commander-in-chief of the English army in the Low Countries. The following year, he served in Ireland, where he reduced Cork, and other places. In 1692, he experienced a great reverse in his sudden dismissal from all his employments, followed by his commitment to the Tower on the charge of high treason. He soon obtained his release; but the evidence against him was never legally produced, and the author of the accusations, then a prisoner, being convicted of perjury, he was entirely acquitted. By the publication of Mr. Macpherson's state-papers, however, it appears that the suspicions were not altogether without foundation, and that a correspondence probably existed between the earl of Marlborough and lord Godolphin, having for its object the restoration of the banished king. However this may have been, during the life of queen Mary, the earl seems to have kept away from court; and, aided by his countess, exerted great influence over the princess Anne, which circumstance, perhaps, prevented his intrigues from being strictly examined. On the death of queen Mary, he was made a privy counsellor, and appointed governor to the young duke of Gloucester; and, in 1700, was created by king William commander-in-chief of the English forces in Holland, and also ambassador plenipotentiary to the States-General. Still greater honors awaited him on the accession of queen Anne, in 1702, when he was created captain-general of all the forces at home and abroad, and sent plenipotentiary to the Hague, where he was also made captain-general by the States. In the campaign of the same year, he took several strong towns, among which was Liege, for which he received the thanks of both houses, and was created duke of Marlborough, with a pension granted, by the queen, for his life; and, moreover, carried a motion for the augmentation of the army abroad, by taking 10,000 foreign soldiers into British pay. The famous battle of Hochstädt, or Blenheim, was fought on the 2d of August, 1704, between the allied army, commanded by the duke of Marlborough and prince Eugene, and the French and Bavarians, headed by marshal Tallard and the elector of Bavaria. The victory was complete; Tallard was taken prisoner, and the electorate of Bavaria became the prize of the conquerors. The nation testified its gratitude to the duke by the gifts of the honor of Woodstock and hundred of Wotton, and erected a palace for him, one of the finest seats in the kingdom. Medals were struck in honor of the event, which Addison also celebrated in his poem of the Campaign. After the next campaign, which was inactive, he visited the courts of Berlin, Hanover and Venice, and his conciliating manners, great prudence, and perfect command of himself, contributed to render him as successful in his negotiations as in the field. The new emperor, Joseph, invested him with the title of *prince of the empire*, which was accompanied by a present of the principality of Mindelheim. On the victory of Ramillies, a bill was passed to settle his honors upon the male and female issue of his daughters. He next visited the German courts in the alliance, and waited upon Charles XII of Sweden, then in Saxony. His reception was cold and reserved, yet he had sufficient penetration to perceive that the king would not interfere with the allied powers. In the campaign

of 1707, his antagonist was the famous duke de Vendôme, over whom he gained no advantage. He was also disappointed in his endeavors to rouse the confederacy into more activity. On his return to England, he found that the duchess was out of favor with the queen; and though he was received with the usual attentions, yet it was evident his popularity at court was on the decline. In 1708, in conjunction with prince Eugene, he gained the battle of Oudenard, and pushed the victory so far, that the French king entered into a negotiation for peace, which was of no effect. In 1709, he defeated marshal Villars at Malplaquet; but this action was attended with great slaughter on both sides, the allies losing 18,000 men, which loss was but ill repaid by the capture of Mons. The prevalence of the tories in England rendered the French war unpopular, and the preaching and prosecution of Sacheverel created a sensation unfavorable to its continuance. On the next visit of the duke to England, he found that the duchess, by her great arrogance, had so disgusted the queen, that a total breach had ensued; and though he was still received with public honors, he could by no means boast of his former influence. Early in 1710, he returned to the army, and, with prince Eugene, gained another victory over Villars, and took the towns of Douay, Aire and St. Venant. During his absence, a new ministry was chosen, composed of men hostile to him and his views, and, on his return, he was consequently expected to resign; but this he would not do, and, dissembling his indignation, again repaired to the field, and signalized himself by the capture of Bouchain. Finding that he would not resign his command, it was taken from him; and a prosecution was even commenced against him for applying the public money to private purposes. Disgusted by this gross ingratitude, he repaired to the Low Countries, where he was received with the greatest honor. He returned a short time before the queen's death, and, on the accession of George I, was restored to favor, and reinstated in the supreme military command. The last public transaction, in which he took a part, was the defeat of the rebellion, in 1715, in which his advice was taken. Retiring from all public employments, his mental faculties gradually decayed, and, falling into second childhood, he died at Windsor Lodge, in 1722, in the 73d year of his age, leaving four daughters, who married into families of the first distinction. He was rather a man of solid sense than of genius, and was gifted with great coolness and self-possession. He was not even moderately conversant in literature, but so well versed in all courtly arts, that he always acquitted himself with honor in the delicate negotiations in which he was employed. His proficiency in the graces is said by lord Chesterfield to have been the chief cause of these successes. But his fame rests chiefly upon his military talents, of which he gave most illustrious proofs. As regards his morals, he seems to have been much guided by interest; and it does not appear that he ever ceased intriguing with the Stuart family, whose restoration seemed at one time far from improbable. Neither does his connexion with the whigs appear to have been sincere, for, according to Macpherson, he held a correspondence with lord Bolingbroke, hoping to be restored to power through the influence of the tory ministry. His avarice was equally notorious with his ambition; yet it does not appear that he ever made an unjust use of his ascendency. His political enemy, the celebrated earl of Peterborough, pronounced his eulogy in these words: "He was so great a man that I have forgotten his faults"—a sentence which, upon the whole, tolerably well conveys the judgment of posterity. His duchess has been almost equally celebrated for her boundless ambition and avarice. She died in 1744, having amassed immense riches. She presented Mr. Hooke with £5,000 to write a book, entitled *An Account of the Conduct of the Dowager Duchess of Marlborough*, and bequeathed £500 to Mallet to write the life of the duke! In 1788, a selection of curious papers was published by lord Hailes, under the title of *The Opinions of Sarah Duchess of Marlborough*. The duchess was the *Atossa* in Pope's Satire on Women.

Churchill, Charles, a poet and satirist of great temporary fame, was the son of the curate of St. John's, Westminster, in which parish he was born, in 1731. He was educated at Westminster school, but made so bad a use of his time, that he was refused admission at the university of Oxford, from his want of classical knowledge. He accordingly returned to school, but soon closed his education by an imprudent marriage with a young lady in the neighborhood. He, however, studied in private, and was at length admitted into holy orders by the bishop of London, and received a Welsh curacy of £30 a year. In order to increase this scanty in-

come, he engaged in the sale of cider, but, being little adapted for trade, soon became insolvent. Returning to London, on the death of his father, he obtained his curacy; but, owing to the smallness of his income, and, most likely, to his fondness for theatrical amusements and the company of the wits of the day, he was soon overwhelmed with debt. A composition with his creditors being effected by the humane mediation of doctor Lloyd, the second master of Westminster school, he began to think of seriously exerting the talents which he was conscious that he possessed. Under the title of the *Rosciad*, a poem, published first in March, 1761, without a name, he examined the excellences and defects of the actors in the two houses in London, with equal spirit, judgment and vivacity. The language and versification too, although sometimes careless and unequal, were far superior to the ordinary strain of current poetry in strength and energy, and the entire production bore the stamp of no common talents. The celebrity of this poem was very great, and the players very weakly increased it by the impatience with which they resented its censures. Pamphlets abounded on both sides of the question; and the author justified himself in a new satire, entitled the *Apology*, in which the profession of a player was treated with humorous contempt. These works made him many enemies, for which he cared very little, as they brought him the far more dangerous intimacy and applause of the men of wit and pleasure about the town. A course of dissipation and intemperance followed, which excited much animadversion, and elicited from him his next satire, entitled *Night*. The Cock-lane imposture, also, formed a topic for his muse, and he hesitated not to satirize doctor Johnson, in the piece entitled the *Ghost*. He next fell in with the national ill humor against the Scotch, which originated in the political occurrences of the commencement of the reign of George III, by his *Prophecy of Famine*, a Scotch pastoral, being a most acrimonious, yet strongly-drawn caricature of Scottish disadvantages. This poem was received with great avidity, and he immediately took that rank as a political satirist, which he long maintained, at the expense of candor and decorum, and to the deterioration of both his poetical and moral character. Of the latter, indeed, he now became utterly careless; and, dropping the clerical habit, he parted from his wife, and even distinguished himself in the fashionable art of seduction. Being now a party writer by profession, he cultivated an acquaintance with Mr. Wilkes, and employed his pen assiduously in the cause of opposition, and for his own emolument. Besides the works already mentioned, he published, within three or four years, an Epistle to Hogarth, the Conference, the Duellist, the Author, Gotham, the Candidate, the Times, Independence, and the Journey. Most of these pieces contain detached pictures, which display a vigorous fancy and forcible sentiments, expressed with great occasional energy. In versification, Churchill avowedly imitated Dryden; and when he writes with care, he well exemplifies his appreciation of his model; but he wrote too hastily not to injure his composition by prosaic lines, and he frequently passed off his carelessness for design. Towards the end of the year 1764, he was seized with a fever, and died on the 4th of November, the same year, at the age of 34.

Church-Yard. (See *Burying-Places* and *Cemetery*.)

Chyle. (See *Chyme*.)

Chyme, in animal economy. In the process of digestion, the food is subjected to a temperature usually above 90° of Fahrenheit. It is mixed with the gastric juice, a liquor secreted by the glands of the stomach, and is made to undergo a moderate and alternate pressure, by the contraction of the stomach itself. It is thus converted into a soft, uniform mass, of a grayish color, in which the previous texture or nature of the aliment can be no longer distinguished. The *chyme*, as this pulpy mass into which the food in the stomach is resolved is termed, passes by the pylorus into the intestinal canal, where it is mixed with the pancreatic juice and the bile, and is still exposed to the same temperature and alternating pressure. The thinner parts of it are absorbed by the slender tubes termed the *lacteals*. The liquor thus absorbed is of a white color: it passes through the glands of the mesentery, and is at length conveyed by the thoracic duct into the blood. This part of the process is termed *chylification*, and the white liquor thus formed, *chyle*. It is an opaque, milky fluid, mild to the taste. By standing for some time, one part of it coagulates; another portion is coagulated by heat. The chyle, after mixing with the lymph conveyed by the absorbent vessels, is received into the blood, which has returned from the extreme vessels, before this passes to the heart. All traces of it are very soon lost in the blood, as it mixes perfectly with that fluid. It is probable, however, that its nature is not immediately

completely altered. The blood passing from the heart is conveyed to the lungs, where it circulates over a very extensive surface presented to the atmospheric air, with the intervention of a very thin membrane, which does not prevent their mutual action. During this circulation, the blood loses a considerable quantity of carbon, part of which, it is probable, is derived from the imperfectly assimilated chyle, as this, originating in part from vegetable matter, must contain carbon in larger proportion than even the blood itself.

Cibber, Colley, a dramatic writer and actor, born in London, 1671, served under the duke of Devonshire, in the revolution which placed the prince of Orange on the throne, and then made his appearance at Drury-lane theatre. He was not at first very successful; but, at length, the talent which he displayed in the character of Fondlewife, in the Old Bachelor of Congreve, brought him into notice. In 1695, appeared his first comedy, Love's last Shift, which met with great success. In this piece, he played the part of Novelty, a fashionable fop. This character is found in most of his pieces, and in the representation of it he was likewise distinguished. His dramatic celebrity is founded chiefly on the Careless Husband, which even obtained the approbation of his declared enemy, Pope. This piece is, indeed, without novelty in the characters, and without invention in the plot, but it is a good picture of the manners and follies of the time. His comedy the Nonjuror, an imitation of *Tartuffe*, adapted to English manners, appeared in 1717, and was directed against the Jacobites. It was very successful, and procured him a pension from the court, but drew upon him many enemies, whose number he increased by his conduct as director of Drury-lane theatre, from 1711. His appointment as poet-laureate, 1730, gave full play to the raillery of his enemies. Cibber had the good sense to join in the laugh against his own verses, and thus to disarm them. Pope, however, did not cease to ridicule him on every opportunity. In 1750, he quitted the theatre, and published the Apology for the Life of Colley Cibber, &c., written with spirit and candor, and containing many entertaining anecdotes and judicious remarks. He died in 1757.

Cibber, Theophilus, son of the subject of the preceding article, was born in 1703, and embraced the profession of an actor. With respect to personal appearance, nature had not been more favorable to him than to his father; but his intelligence and vivacity in his performances compensated for his deficiencies, and he would have been successful on the stage if his extravagance had not continually involved him in difficulties. He was engaged, in 1757, to play at a Dublin theatre, but was shipwrecked on his passage, and drowned. The Biography of English and Irish Poets, which appeared under his name, was from the pen of Robert Shiels, a Scotchman, who purchased, for 10 guineas, the right of prefixing to the work the name of Cibber, then in prison for debt.—Cibber's wife, Susanna Maria, born 1716, was one of the best actresses on the English stage. She was sister of the celebrated doctor Arne (composer of Rule Britannia), who taught her music, and introduced her, in one of his operas, at the Haymarket theatre. In 1734, she married Theophilus Cibber, but was soon after separated from him. She subsequently made her appearance in tragedy. Her beauty and her talents gained her universal admiration. She died in 1766.

Ciborium; originally, a drinking-vessel made from an Egyptian plant. In the Roman church, it is the vessel in which the consecrated host (the *venerabile*) is preserved.

Cicada. (See *Grasshopper*.)

Cicero, Marcus Tullius. This celebrated Roman was born in the year of Rome 647 (106 B. C.), at Arpinum. His family belonged to the order of *equites*, but had always kept themselves aloof from public business and office. His father, who lived in retirement, devoted to science, was the friend of the first citizens of the republic. Amongst this number was the celebrated orator Crassus, who himself attended to the education of the young Cicero and his brother Quintus, selected teachers for them, and directed their studies. The perusal of the Greek authors, together with poetry, oratory and philosophy, occupied the first years of Cicero's youth. He wrote a great deal in Greek. His versification was good, but his poetical merits, on the whole, only moderate. His destination was, to be the first orator of Rome. In his youth, he made one campaign under Sylla, in the Marsic war. After his return, he availed himself of the instruction of the academician Philo, and of the celebrated orator Molo, and employed several years in acquiring the knowledge requisite for an orator. He witnessed the barbarities of Marius and Cinna, and the proscriptions of Sylla,

after which the exhausted, blood-stained republic remained undisturbed under the yoke of its dictator. Cicero, at that time 26 years old, endowed with knowledge and genius, appeared before the tribunals, at first in civil suits, afterwards in a criminal process, in which he defended Roscius Amerinus, who was accused of parricide by Chrysogonus, a freedman of Sylla. He conducted this defence with courage, confuted the accusers, and obliged the judges to acquit the accused. After this brilliant display, he remained a year in Rome, and undertook another suit. His conduct, in both instances, must have displeased the dictator. But his debilitated health obliged him to travel; and he went to Athens, which was still the centre of science. Here he resided in the house of an academician, was visited by the philosophers of all the schools, and profited by the instruction of the masters of oratory. Thus he passed six months with his friend Atticus, in the enjoyment of literary pursuits. His initiation into the mysteries of Eleusis is supposed to have taken place about this time. He also undertook a journey to Asia, and remained some time at Rhodes, where he likewise visited the most distinguished orators, and partook in their exercises. On his return to Rome, his displays of eloquence proved the value of his Grecian instruction. Among others, he defended the celebrated actor Roscius, his friend, and master in the art of elocution. At last, at the age of 30, he engaged in public business. He became questor of Sicily, during the prevalence of a great scarcity at Rome, and managed to convey a large quantity of corn from thence to the capital, though it was difficult for him so to do without exciting the displeasure of the Sicilians. He afterwards returned to Rome, and appeared as an orator, defending the causes of private individuals, merely for the sake of fame. It was an honorable day for Cicero, when the ambassadors from Sicily appeared before him, with the request that he would conduct their suit against their governor Verres. He showed himself worthy of the confidence of an oppressed people, and appeared against this powerful robber, after having himself collected proofs of his crimes in Sicily. He was opposed by the celebrated Hortensius. The crimes of Verres are painted in the liveliest colors in his immortal speeches. Seven are preserved, but only two of them were delivered. Hortensius was struck dumb by the force of truth, and Verres went into voluntary exile. After this suit, Cicero was elected to the office of edile. Though possessed of only a moderate fortune, he managed, by well-timed liberality, to gain the affections of the people whilst he held this office. But, for the execution of his plans, he was likewise in need of the friendship of the great, to obtain which he joined the party of Pompey, the head of the nobility and the first citizens of Rome. He became his panegyrist and most zealous adherent. Catiline at that time began to plan his conspiracy against the republic. He was accused of extortion in his government of Africa, and Cicero was on the point of undertaking his defence, when they became rivals, being both candidates for the consulship. Cicero's merit prevailed over Catiline's intrigues and the envy of his enemies. He was chosen consul unanimously; and now commences the most splendid period of his political life. He succeeded in defeating the conspiracy of Catiline. (q. v.) At the same time, he conducted a private suit, in a masterly speech defending Murena, consul elect for the ensuing year, against the accusations of the Stoic Cato. After Catiline's fall, the Romans greeted Cicero as the father of his country. But a factious tribune would not consent to his rendering an account of his administration; and, on retiring from the consulate, Cicero was only able to pronounce the celebrated oath, "I swear that I have saved the republic." Cæsar was always his opponent, and Pompey feared a citizen who loved liberty too much to be favorable to the triumvirs. Cicero saw his credit gradually decreasing, and even his safety threatened. He therefore occupied himself more than ever with science, wrote the history of his consulate, in Greek, and composed a Latin poem on the same subject, in three books. At last the storm broke out. Clodius, Cicero's enemy, caused a law to be renewed, declaring every one guilty of treason, who commanded the execution of a Roman citizen before the people had condemned him. The illustrious ex-consul put on mourning, and appeared, accompanied by the *equites* and many young patricians, demanding the protection of the people. Clodius, at the head of armed adherents, insulted them repeatedly, and ventured even to besiege the senate. Cicero, upon this, went into voluntary exile, travelled through Italy, and ultimately took refuge in Thessalonica, with Plancus. Clodius, in the mean time, procured new decrees, in consequence of which Cicero's country-seats were torn down, and a tem-

ple of freedom built on the site of his house at Rome. Cicero's wife and children were exposed to ill treatment.—Whilst the accounts of these occurrences drove the unhappy man almost to despair, a change favorable to him was preparing in Rome. The audacity of Clodius became equally insupportable to all. Pompey encouraged Cicero's friends to get him recalled to Rome. The senate declared that it would not attend to any business until the decree which ordered his banishment was revoked. Through the zeal of the consul Lentulus, and at the proposition of several tribunes, the decree of recall passed the assembly of the people, in the following year, in spite of a bloody tumult, in which Cicero's brother Quintus was dangerously wounded. In this honorable manner Cicero returned, after an absence of ten months. The assembled senate received him at the gates of the city, and his entry resembled a triumph. The republic undertook the charge of rebuilding his houses. From this period, a new epoch commences in Cicero's life. His republican zeal diminished in proportion as his attachment to Pompey increased, whom he declared his benefactor. Clodius opposed with arms the rebuilding of Cicero's houses, and often attacked him personally. Milo repelled his attacks, and accused him, at the same time, before the tribunal. Rome became frequently a field of battle. Cicero, meanwhile, passed several years with little public employment, occupied with his rhetorical works. To oblige Pompey, he defended Vatinius and Gabinius, two citizens of bad character, who had shown themselves his implacable enemies. At the age of 54, he entered the college of the augurs. The death of the turbulent Clodius, who was slain by Milo, delivered him from his most dangerous opponent. He defended the perpetrator of this act, who was his friend and avenger, in a beautiful speech; but the presence of Pompey's soldiers, and the tumult of the friends of Clodius, confused him whilst delivering it. At this period, the senate appointed him governor of Cilicia. Cicero conducted a war, while in this office, with good success, repulsed the Parthians, and was greeted by the soldiers with the title of *imperator*. But he was not allowed the honor of a triumph. As soon as his term of office had expired, he returned to Rome, which was threatened with serious disturbances, owing to the rupture between Cæsar and Pompey. Dreading the horrors of a civil war, he endeavored in vain to reconcile the rivals. Cæsar advanced towards Rome, and Pompey was forced to fly with the consuls and the senate. Cicero, not anticipating this sudden approach of Cæsar, was still in Italy. Cæsar saw him at Formiæ, but was not able to gain him over; for, although convinced that the party of Cæsar was likely to prevail, and although his son-in-law, Dolabella, was one of Cæsar's confidants, he was prompted by his sense of honor to return to Pompey. After the battle of Pharsalia and the flight of Pompey, he refused to take the command of some troops who had remained at Dyrrhachium, but returned to Italy, which was governed by Cæsar's representative, Antony. This return was attended with several unpleasant circumstances, until the conqueror wrote to him, and soon after received him graciously. Cicero now devoted himself entirely to literature and philosophy. He was divorced from his wife Terentia, to enable him to marry a beautiful and rich heiress, whose guardian he was. But the pecuniary considerations which induced him to take this step could never prevail on him to flatter power: on the contrary, he purposely kept aloof, and ridiculed the flatterers of Cæsar, priding himself on his panegyric of Cato. But his disaffection was overcome by the liberality of Cæsar, when he pardoned Marcellus. Enraptured by this act of favor, which restored his friend to him, Cicero broke silence, and delivered a famous oration, which contained as much instruction as panegyric for the dictator. Soon after, he spoke in defence of Ligarius, and Cæsar, relenting, gave up his purpose of condemning the accused to death. Cicero now regained a part of his former consideration, when the death of his daughter Tullia occurred, and affected him very painfully. The assassination of Cæsar opened a new career to the orator. He hoped to regain great political influence. The conspirators shared with him the honor of an enterprise in which no part had been assigned him; and the less he had contributed to it himself, the more anxious was he to justify the deed, and pursue the advantages which it offered. But Antony took Cæsar's place. Even in this turbulent year, Cicero found leisure for literary occupations, and, among other labors, completed his work *De Gloria*, which was lost as late as in the 14th century. He determined on going to Greece, where he could live in safety; but he soon returned to Rome, and composed those admirable orations against Antony, which are known to us by

the name of *Philippics*, and which are equally distinguished for eloquence and patriotism. His implacable enmity towards Antony induced him to favor young Octavius, although the pretended moderation of the latter did not deceive him. With him originated all the energetic resolutions of the senate in favor of the war which the consuls and the young Cæsar were conducting, in the name of the republic, against Antony. Octavius having possessed himself of the consulate, and formed an alliance with Antony and Lepidus, after the death of the two consuls, the power of the senate and of the orator yielded to the arms of the triumvirs. Cicero, who had always spared Octavius, and even proposed to Brutus to be reconciled with him, was at last convinced that liberty was at an end. At Tusculum, whither he had retired with his brother and nephew, he learnt that his name, at Antony's demand, had been added to the list of the proscribed. He repaired, in a state of indecision, to the sea-coast, and embarked. Contrary winds drove him back to the shore. At the request of his slaves, he embarked a second time, but soon returned again to await his fate at his country-seat near Formiæ. "I will die," exclaimed he, "in my country, which I have more than once saved." His slaves, seeing the neighborhood already disturbed by the soldiers of the triumvirs, endeavored to convey him away in a litter, but soon discovered the murderers at their heels. They prepared for combat; but Cicero, who felt that death was unavoidable, ordered them to make no resistance, bent his head before Popilius, the commander of the murderers, who had once been saved by his eloquence, and suffered death more courageously than he had borne misfortune. He died in his 64th year, A. U. C. 711 (B. C. 43). His head and hands were, by the orders of Antony, affixed to the same rostrum from which the orator, as Livy says, had poured forth eloquence unequalled by any human voice. Cicero merited the character which Augustus gave him in these words: "He was a good citizen, who loved his country sincerely." He was (particularly considering the spirit of his times) a virtuous man, for his faults were only weaknesses of character, not vices, and he always pursued good for its own sake, or (what, if a fault, is easily forgiven) for the sake of fame. His heart was open to all noble impressions, to all great and fine feelings, to patriotism, friendship, gratitude, and love of science. Cicero's eloquence has always remained a model. After the revival of learning, he was the most admired of the ancient writers; and the purity and elegance of his style will always place him in the first rank of Roman classics. The style of his philosophical writings, without oratorical ostentation, breathes that pure Attic elegance which some of his contemporaries wished also to see in his orations. The orator is seen, however, in his prolix and comparatively unanimated dialogues. His philosophical works, the principal part of the contents of which is taken from the Greek, and which combine academic and Stoic doctrines and principles, possess very unequal interest for us. Thus, for example, his work *De Natura Deorum* is, for us, only a collection of errors: the *Tusculanæ Quæstiones* are full of the subtilties of the Athenian school: his work *De Finibus Bonorum et Malorum* likewise belongs to this somewhat dry, dogmatic philosophy. On the other hand, his works on practical morals have maintained their full value. The book *De Officiis* is to this day the finest treatise on virtue, inspired by pure human wisdom. The pleasures of friendship and old age have likewise been excellently set forth in Cicero's *De Amicitia* and *De Senectute*. Of his political work *De Republica*, a considerable part was brought to light by Maio, and published in Rome in 1822. Cicero wrote the six books *De Rep.* in his 54th year. In these he endeavored to show by what policy, what resources and what morals Rome had obtained the dominion of the world. Steinacker published these fragments at Leipsic, in 1823. Villemain translated and explained them (Paris, 1823). The work has also been translated in the United States (New York, 1829). Professor Gust. Münnich, in Cracow, gives an account of the Sarmatian copy of Cicero *De Rep.*, which, in 1581, was in the possession of a Volhynian nobleman, and has since disappeared, in his work, *M. Tull. Ciceronis Libri De Republica notit. Codicis Sarmat.* (Göttingen, 1825). According to him, Goslicki used this copy in his work *De perfecto Senatore*. Cicero's works *De Divinatione* and *De Legibus* are instructive monuments of antiquity. The same philosophical spirit is evident in all his oratorical treatises, particularly in the most important of them, *De Oratore*, although this contains as little of utility for us as the *Claris Oratoribus*, *Topicis*, *De Partitione Oratoria*, &c. The most interesting of all Cicero's works, for posterity, are his *Epistolæ familiares* and

Ad Atticum, which give a more exact and lively idea of the state of the republic than any of his other works, and display most strongly the characteristic traits of the author. They are translated, in a masterly style, by Wieland. The life of Cicero was written, of old, by Plutarch, and has been also, in modern times, by Middleton and Morabin. In the publication and explanation of his works, Paulus and Aldus Manutius, Lambinus, the two Gruters, the two Gronovii, &c., have distinguished themselves. We possess late editions of his entire works, by J. A. Ernesti, Beck and Schütz. Cicero's life, interesting on many accounts, is particularly so to the historical politician, as showing the consequences of the deplorable state of the Roman republic, in the case of so distinguished an individual, as well as the impossibility of preserving its liberty. Cato, Cicero, and some others, were worthy of having lived in a better age of the republic, to the corruption of which they fell martyrs.—In 1828 appeared a highly important work, edited by Maio (q. v.), *Classicorum Auctorum e Vaticanis Codicibus Editorum: Tomus I et II, curante Angelo Majo, Vaticanæ Bibliothecæ Præfecto. Romæ, Typis Vaticanis*, 1828, 8vo. The second volume contains all the fragments of Cicero's orations which have been discovered by Maio, Niebuhr and Peyron.

Cicerone; the title of the person who, in Italy, and particularly in Rome, shows and explains to strangers curiosities and antiquities. The talkativeness of such persons has procured them the name of *cicerone*, in jocular allusion to Cicero. A good cicerone must possess extensive and accurate information; and several distinguished archæologists have pursued this business, as it gives them an opportunity, while serving others, to make repeated examinations of the works of art, and thus to become continually more familiar with them. Signore Nibbi is the most distinguished cicerone. He explains antiquities on the spot, in Rome, in a very interesting manner.

Cicisbeo; a name given, since the 17th century, in Italy, to the professed gallant of a married lady. It is the fashion, among the higher ranks in Italy, for the husband, from the day of marriage, to associate with his wife in his own house only. In society, or places of public amusement, she is accompanied by the *cicisbeo*, who even attends at her toilet, to receive her commands for the day. This custom is the more extraordinary, from the natural jealousy of the Italian, who seems to change his character completely after marriage. Father Barri has made the *Cicisbeatura* the subject of a moral work, and divides it into *larga* and *stretta*; the first kind he thinks pardonable, but the latter he regards with repugnance. This custom is much on the decline in Italy.

Cicognara, Leopold, count of, born at Ferrara, about 1780. He early showed a great taste for the fine arts. His first work was *Memorie Storiche dei Letterati ed Artisti Ferraresi* (Ferrara, 1811). Napoleon made him president of the academy of fine arts at Venice, where his house became a central point for the lovers of the fine arts. The French emperor also assisted him in his enterprises, and made him knight of the iron crown. After the emperor's fall, the Austrian government allowed Cicognara to retain his place as president of the academy of fine arts. In 1818, he accompanied the works of art sent by the government of Venice to Vienna as a present for the empress Caroline of Austria. At the same time, he presented her 100 copies of his *Omaggio delle Provincie Venete alla Maestà di Carolina Augusta* (Venice, 1818, fol.), with 18 engravings. The work is splendidly executed. Besides the 100 copies presented to the empress, only 500 were struck off, which never came into the book trade. This *Omaggio*, therefore, belongs to the great bibliographical rarities. (See the count's *Lettera sulla Statua rappresentante Polimnia di Canova*, Venice, 1817, p. 101.) Cicognara, having long entertained the idea of continuing Winckelmann's History of Art to the latest times, and having collected copious materials for this purpose, at length produced a work which has been violently attacked, both on account of its prolixity and its deficiencies. It is, however, one which cannot be dispensed with. Its title is, *Storia della Scultura dal suo Risorgimento in Italia sino al Secolo di Canova*, of which vol. 1, fol., with 43 copperplates, was published in Venice, at the expense of the author. It was followed, in 1816, by vol. 2, containing 90 engravings. This volume had on its title, *Sino al Secolo XIX*. Vol. 3 was published in 1818, with 48 plates. Of the 2d edition, the 5th vol. appeared at Prato in 1824. When the first volume was completed, Cicognara presented it himself to Napoleon, to whom it is dedicated. On his visit to Paris for this purpose, he was elected a member of the institute. He had received assistance from the French government

in the execution of his work; but this was withdrawn on the restoration of the Bourbons, and the author became much embarrassed, as he had spent a great part of his private fortune in the undertaking. In consequence of having been confounded with another Cicognara, who was imprisoned in Italy as a member of the Carbonari, he published a letter, while at Paris, on the subject of the political persecutions in his country, and expressed his opinion very freely. On his return from Paris, he was received at Venice very coolly, and, in consequence, went to Rome. Having spent his fortune in his literary enterprises, he was obliged to sell his library, which he had been 30 years in collecting. For this purpose he published a *Catalogo ragionato dei Libri d'Arti e d'Antichità posseduti dal Conte Cicognara* (Pisa, 2 vols.). This catalogue is a work of value, as the titles are accompanied with bibliographical notices. Among the smaller works of the count, of which there are many, is *Le Fabbriche più cospicue di Venezia, misurate, illustrate ed intagliate dei Membri della Veneta R. Accademia delle belle Arti* (Venice, 1820, 2 vols. fol.) The work contains 250 engravings, and the greater part of the critical observations are by Cicognara himself.

Cicuta. The cicuta, or common American hemlock (*conium maculatum*), is one of the most valuable and important of medicinal vegetables. It is a plant indigenous in most temperate climates, and is found commonly along walls and fences, and about old ruins and buildings. It is an annual plant, of four or five feet in height, having very fine double pinnate leaves, of a pale-green color, and bearing flowers of a greenish-white, in large, flat heads. It was first introduced to general notice, together with other vegetables of the same kind, by baron Storck of Vienna. The most common form in which it is administered, is the extract, which is given in pills. Of this, from 12 to 60 grains per day may be taken for a long time. It is invaluable in all chronic inflammations, and enlargements of glandular parts, as the liver, the womb, &c., tumors of which it will sometimes remove in a space of time surprisingly short. Its use may be continued, if necessary, for a long time, and it is not found to debilitate or injure the system in the manner that mercury always does when long used. Its green leaves, stirred into a soft poultice, form an excellent application for painful sores and ulcers; and the same leaves, dried and rubbed fine, make, when mixed with cerate or lard, a capital ointment for irritable sores, with which a poultice does not agree.

Cid. Don Rodrigo (Ruy) Diaz, count of Bivar, surnamed the *Cid*, born in 1026, the model of the heroic virtues of his age, and the flower of Spanish chivalry, styled by his enemies (the ambassadors of the Moorish kings) *el mio Cid* (my lord), and by his king and countrymen *Campeador* (hero without an equal), continues to live in the poetry of his country. We were made acquainted with the history of his life by the play of the great Corneille. Rodrigo loved and was beloved by Ximene, daughter of Lozano, count of Gormaz, who, with Diego, the father of Rodrigo, excelled all the knights at the court of Ferdinand I of Castile. The envy of Gormaz at Diego's superior estimation at court produced a dispute between the two, which led to a duel. Gormaz vanquished the old Diego, and, insult being added to this disgrace, Diego demanded from his son the blood of the offender. In the contest between honor and love, the former prevailed in the breast of the youth, and Gormaz fell. Ximene, unfortunate as a daughter and a mistress, could no longer listen to the voice of love: it became necessary for her to demand vengeance on the object of her affections, and Rodrigo would willingly have rushed to the combat, if by so doing he could have alleviated the torments of a lacerated heart. But no champion was found to meet the young hero; and nothing but the discharge of the important duties which devolved upon him could preserve him from sinking under his despair. Five Moorish kings appeared in Castile: devastation and death accompanied their progress. Rodrigo, who was not yet 20 years of age, threw himself upon his noble horse Babieca, and, at the head of his vassals, went to meet the enemy, who soon ceased to be the terror of the country. The young hero sent the five captive kings to Ferdinand, who, as a reward for his bravery, gave him Ximene, and united those whom the decrees of fate seemed to have separated forever. They were married in Valencia. Ferdinand afterwards added Galicia, Leon and Oviedo to Castile, and posterity calls him the *Great;* but it was Rodrigo who gained him the name. A quarrel having arisen between Ferdinand and king Ramiro of Arragon concerning the possession of Calahorra, the latter challenged him to a single combat, and appointed for his substitute the knight Martin Gonzalez. Ferdinand

chose the Cid for his champion, and, by his means, obtained Calahorra. Ferdinand, in his will, divided his dominions among his sons: to Sancho he gave Castile, to Alfonso he gave Leon and Oviedo, and to Garcia, Galicia, together with the conquered part of Portugal. This division caused a war between the brothers, in which Sancho was victorious: this success was owing to the Cid, to whom he had given the command of his forces. Alfonso was taken prisoner, Garcia brought ruin upon himself by his own imprudence, and it remained only to overcome the obstinate resistance of Zamora, where Sancho's sister Urraca ruled. Before the walls of this city Sancho was assassinated, and Alfonso, who, eight months before, was vanquished by the Cid, was called to the throne. It is related, in the ballads, that the Cid read the oath of purification, in the name of the states of Castile, before the new king, on account of the murder of Sancho, with such impressive solemnity, that Alfonso shuddered, but was also offended. It is certain that he spared nothing to gain over the Cid. The story of this warrior requires a critical examination, especially what relates to his marriage. According to history, Alfonso married him to donna Ximene, his niece (in 1074); and consequently it seems we must consider him twice married. John von Müller, the German historian, supposes that the daughter of the proud Gormaz may have been his first Ximene. However that may be, it is certain that the Cid, notwithstanding the important services which he rendered to his king, often experienced the inconstancy of royal favor. A man like him, of strict integrity and virtue, of an inflexible and lofty spirit, who despised an effeminate life, was not fitted for courts. His true friend and brother in arms, Alvaro Hanez Minaya, his wife and child, were his world. The gravity of his countenance excited respect and reverence; his retired life afforded room for the slanders of the courtiers; and he was exposed to frequent reproaches. But, in times of necessity, his assistance was again sought, and he was too generous to remember past offences. The king finally took from him all that he had given him, wife and treasures; but, from shame or fear, he afterwards restored Ximene. Disgraced, plundered, forced to depend on himself alone, Rodrigo was now happier and greater than before. Ever true to his country and his religion, he raised an army by the reputation of his name alone, to subdue the Moors in Valencia. In the midst of his career of conquest, he hastened to the assistance of his king, who was hard pressed by Joseph, the founder of Morocco; but the only return for this generosity was new ingratitude. He therefore departed by night, with his most trusty followers, and, forsaken and ill provided, fled from the king. He, however, remained true to himself, and fortune to him. His magnanimity again overcame the king. Permission was given to all to join the forces of the Cid, who still maintained the cause of Spain, and always with distinguished success. Alfonso declared aloud, in the presence of the envious courtiers, "This Cid serves me much better than you," and could no longer be prevented from visiting him. From this time, he was never estranged from him, although he unintentionally promoted the machinations of his enemies. Two brothers, counts of Carrion, had resolved, by a marriage with the daughters of the Cid, to obtain possession of his wealth. The king himself promoted their suit, and the Cid yielded to his wishes. With donna Elvira and donna Sol, they received likewise the great treasures which the arms of the Cid had won. But scarcely had they dismissed their attendants, when, in a wild, mountainous desert, they stripped the garments from the persons of the ladies, bound and beat them till pain choked their cries, and departed with the money. A trusty servant, whom the Cid had sent after them, delivered the ladies from their wretched situation, and the vile deed was brought to light. The Cid demanded justice. Alfonso summoned all the vassals of Leon and Castile to a high court of justice at the city of Toledo. The Cid demanded the restoration of his treasures, and opportunity to take vengeance for the insult, by a combat between the counts of Carrion and the champions whom he should name. They sought to avoid the combat, but the king insisted on it. With ill-concealed fear, they rode to the lists; the knights of the Cid overcame both them and their uncle; their dishonored lives were spared. The last exploit of the Cid was the capture of Saguntum (Murviedro), after which he died at Valencia, in the 74th year of his age (1099). What this hero won, and for many years defended, the united power of Leon and Castile was scarcely able to preserve against the encroachments of the infidels. His widow, therefore, went with the dead body of the hero to Castile. He was buried at the convent of St. Peter of Cardena, in a

tomb which was honored by emperors and kings. There rests the noble Ximene, and under the trees before the convent lies the faithful horse Babieca. The adventures of the Cid, particularly his banishment and return, are the subjects of the oldest Castilian poem, probably composed at the end of the 12th century, *Poema del Cid el Campeador*, which was published in the *Coleccion de Poesias Castellanas anteriores al Siglo XV*, of Sanchez, in 1775, and has been reprinted in Schubert's *Biblioteca Castellana Portugues y Provenzal*. The later ballads, which commemorate the hero, were, at the beginning of the 16th century, collected by Fernando del Castillo, and, in 1614, again published by Pedro de Florez in the *Romancero General*. There has also been published a collection by Escobar—*Historia del muy noble y valeroso Caballero el Cid Ruy Diaz, en Romances* (Lisbon, 1615; Seville, 1632). A great number have been published in the Collection of the best Ancient Spanish Historical, Chivalrous and Moorish Poems, by Depping (Altenburg and Leipsic, 1817). There are, in all, above a hundred of these ballads extant. Herder, in his beautiful *Cid* (Tübingen, 1806), has translated into German 70 of these ballads (probably some of the collection of Escobar). John von Müller has written the life of the Cid (in the 8th volume of his works) from Spanish sources, mostly from an old chronicle printed in Risco's *Historia del Cid* (Madrid, 1792). Whatever chronicles and songs have conveyed to us of the history of the Cid, is collected in the Chronicle of the Cid, from the Spanish, by Robert Southey (London, 1808, 4to.).

Cider; a liquor made from the juice of apples. The quality of this popular beverage depends principally on the following particulars, viz.—1. kind of fruit; 2. condition of the fruit when ground; 3. manner of grinding and pressing; 4. method of conducting the requisite fermentation, and precautions to be taken against its excess.—1. The characteristics of a good cider-apple (according to Mr. Buel of Albany) are, a red skin, yellow and often tough and fibrous pulp, astringency, dryness, and ripeness at the cider-making season. Mr. Knight, a famous English horticulturist, asserts, that, "when the rind and pulp are green, the cider will always be thin, weak and colorless; and when these are deeply tinged with yellow, it will, however manufactured, or in whatever soil the fruit may have grown, almost always possess color and either strength or richness." It is observed by Crocker, in his tract on The Art of making and managing Cider, that the most certain indications of the ripeness of apples are the fragrance of their smell, and their spontaneously dropping from the trees. When they are in this state of maturity, in a dry day, the limbs may, he says, be slightly shaken, and partly disburthened of their golden store; thus taking such apples only as are ripe, and leaving the unripe longer on the trees, that they may also acquire a due degree of maturity. Mr. Buel observes, that "the only artificial criterion employed to ascertain the quality of an apple for cider, is the specific gravity of its *must*, or unfermented juice; or the weight compared with that of water. This, says Knight, indicates, with very considerable accuracy, the strength of the future cider. Its weight and consequent value are supposed to be increased in the ratio of the increase of saccharine matter." Mr. Knight says that the strongest and most highly-flavored cider which has been obtained from the apple, was produced from fruit growing on a shallow loam, on a limestone basis. All the writers on the subject seem to agree that calcareous earth should form a component part of the soil of a cider-orchard. Coxe says the soil which yields good wheat and clover is best for a cider-orchard. Mr. Buel states, "My own observation would induce me also to prefer a dry and somewhat loose soil, in which the roots destined to furnish food for the tree and fruit may penetrate freely, and range extensively in search of nutriment."—2. *Condition of the fruit.* Fruit should be used when it has attained full maturity, and before it begins to decay. The indications of ripeness we have above stated. Each kind of apple should be manufactured separately, or, at least, those kinds only should be mixed which ripen about the same time. Mr. Buel says, "The apples should ripen on the tree, be gathered when dry, in a cleanly manner, spread in an airy, covered situation, if practicable, for a time, to induce an evaporation of aqueous matter, which will increase the strength and flavor of the liquor, and be separated from rotten fruit, and every kind of filth, before they are ground."—3. *Grinding*, &c. The apples should be reduced, by the mill, as nearly as possible to a uniform mass, in which the rind and seeds are scarcely discoverable, and the pomace should be exposed to the air. Knight ascertained, by experiments, that, by exposing the reduced pulp to the operation of the atmosphere for a few hours, the spe-

cific gravity of the juice increased from 1,064 to 1,078; and, from the experiment being repeated in a closed vessel with atmospheric air, he ascertained the accession to be oxygen, which, according to Lavoisier, constitutes 64 per cent. of sugar. For fine cider, he recommends that the fruit be ground and pressed imperfectly, and that the pulp be then exposed 24 hours to the air, being spread and once or twice turned, to facilitate the absorption of oxygen; that it be then ground again, and the expressed juice be added to it before it is again pressed. A grater cider-mill was presented by J. R. Newell, of Boston, at an exhibition of the Massachusetts agricultural society, in the autumn of 1828, for which he received a premium of 12 dollars. It is thus described by the committee who awarded the premium: "It has a wooden cylinder, upon the surface of which nails are fixed: the heads are sharp upon the edges, and project above the cylinder about one eighth of an inch. The apples are filled into a hopper placed over the cylinder, and led into a narrow cavity at the upper side of it. The cylinder is mounted on a high frame, its axes being placed in composition boxes. A rapid revolution is produced by connecting it with a horse-mill by belts or bands. The apples are reduced to a fine pomace, grated, not pressed. It performed well in the presence of the committee, and grated a barrel of russet apples in 1 minute 34 seconds."—4. *Fermentation.* The vinous fermentation commences and terminates at different periods, according to the condition and quality of the fruit, and the state of the weather. According to Knight, the best criterion to judge of the proper moment to rack off (or draw the liquor from the scum and sediment), will be the brightness of the liquor which takes place after the discharge of fixed air has ceased, and a thick crust is collected on the surface. The clear liquor should then be drawn off into another cask. If it remains bright and quiet, nothing more need be done to it till the succeeding spring; but if a scum collects on the surface, it must immediately be racked off again, as this would produce bad effects if suffered to sink.—Among the precautions used to prevent excessive fermentation is *stumming*, which is fuming the cask with burning sulphur. This is done by burning a rag impregnated with sulphur in the cask in which the liquor is to be decanted, after it has been partly filled, and rolling it, so as to incorporate the liquor with the gas. A bottle of French brandy, or half a gallon of cider-brandy, added to a barrel, is likewise recommended, to be added as soon as the vinous fermentation is completed. The best cider manufactured in the U. States is said to be that of Newark, New Jersey, and that produced from an apple mostly cultivated in Virginia, called the *Virginia crab-apple.*

CIGAR. (See *Tobacco*, and *Cuba.*)

CIGNANI, Carlo; a celebrated painter, born at Bologna in 1628; a pupil of Albano. He frequently commenced new works, but was seldom sufficiently satisfied with his productions to consider them as finished. His *Flight to Egypt* was the work of six months. He knew how to compose, like the Caracci, and to distribute his figures in such a way that his paintings appear larger than they really are. His finest fresco paintings are at St. Michael *in Bosco*, at Bologna, in ovals supported by angels, and in the saloon of the Farnese palace, where he represented Francis I of France touching for the king's-evil. At Parma, in the ducal garden, he painted several pieces expressive of the power of love, which lose nothing at the side of the paintings of Augustino Caracci. In his painting of the *Assumption*, at Forli, he has imitated the beautiful *Michael* of Guido in the cupola at Ravenna, and other fine conceptions of this painter; but in his other pieces he made Correggio his model. He does not so often introduce fore-shortenings as the Lombards; and, in his outlines and drapery, he possesses a finish peculiar to himself. His pencil is powerful, and his coloring lively. Clement XI conferred on him several marks of distinction. Being commissioned to paint the cupola of the church of Madonna del Fuoco, at Forli, he repaired to Forli with his numerous pupils, where he died in 1719. His paintings have been engraved by various artists. Of his pupils, the most distinguished were Crespi, Franceschini, Quaini, count Felix Cignani, his son, and count Paul Cignani, his nephew.

CILICIA, in ancient geography; the region between Pamphylia and Syria, lying S. of mount Taurus. The inhabitants of the coasts were formidable as pirates, and even disturbed the Ægæan and Ionian seas. The inhabitants of the northern portion lived in part a nomadic life; those in the east were devoted to agriculture. Alexander made Cilicia a Macedonian province; it then passed to the Syrians. Pompey subdued its piratical inhabitants. It was governed by kings

under some of the Roman emperors, but was made a Roman province in the time of Vespasian.

CILICIUM; originally, a coarse, rough garment of goat's-hair, made in Cilicia, the usual habit of the soldiers and seamen of that country. It has since been used to denote a garment of penance, made of horse-hair, which monks and hermits wear. This name is also given, in the convents, to a belt of wire, with sharp points, which press upon the body, and are intended for penance.

CIMABUE, Giovanni, one of the restorers of the art of painting in the middle ages, born at Florence in 1240, renounced his studies to follow his inclination for painting. Two Greek artists, who were invited to Florence by the senate, to paint a chapel in the church of Santa Maria Novella, were his first masters. Although these artists handled the pencil awkwardly, they however taught him, according to ancient tradition, the proportions which the Greek artists had observed in their imitations of the human figure. Attentive to their instructions, Cimabue studied principally the fine antique statues. He was the first to point out to succeeding painters the elements of the *beau idéal*, the memory of which had been extinguished during several centuries of disorder. It is true the paintings of Cimabue do not exhibit that harmonious distribution of light and shade which forms the *chiaro oscuro*. His coloring is dry, flat and cold: the outlines of his figures intersect each other on a blue, green or yellow ground, according to the effect which he had in view. He had no idea of linear and aërial perspective. His paintings are, properly speaking, only monochromes. But these faults, which are to be attributed to the infancy of the art, are compensated for by beauties of a high order—a grand style, accurate drawing, natural expression, noble grouping, and a fine disposition of his drapery. His best paintings are in the church of Santa Maria Novella at Florence, and in the Sacro Convento, at Assisi. He is said to have died in 1300. He may be considered the link between the ancient and modern schools of painting. Cimabue was equally successful in painting on glass and in fresco. He was also a distinguished architect. He prepared the way for Massacio, Pietro Perugino, Giovanni Bellino, Leonardo da Vinci, Titian, Michael Angelo and Raphael. (See *Italian Art.*)

CIMAROSA, Domenico, a composer, born at Naples, in 1755, received his first musical instruction from Sacchini, entered the conservatory of Loretto, where he imbibed the principles of the school of Durante, and studied with great assiduity. He soon displayed his superiority in the *Sacrificio di Abramo*, the *Olimpiade*, and other compositions. At the age of 25, he had already gained the applause of the principal theatres of Italy. He was invited to St. Petersburg (where he remained four years) and to several German courts, to compose heroic and comic operas. In the latter, he particularly distinguished himself by the novelty, warmth, humor and liveliness of his ideas, and by a thorough acquaintance with stage effect. Among his 120 operas, the most celebrated are, *Penelope*, *Gli Orazj e Curiazj*, and *Artaserse*, among the *opere serie*; and among the *opere buffe*, *L'Italiano in Londra*, *L'Amor costante*, *Il pittore Parigino*, and many others. His comic opera *Il Matrimonio segreto* excited general enthusiasm, and received the signal honor of being performed twice on the same evening, at the desire of the emperor Leopold. From Vienna he went to Naples, and became involved there in the revolutionary commotions. He died at Venice, in 1801, from the effects of the ill-treatment which he had been subjected to in prison. His bust, by Canova, was placed in the Pantheon at Rome, in 1816, at the side of those of Sacchini and Paesiello.

CIMBRI, or CIMMERIANS, were the first German tribe known to the Greeks. Their acquaintance with them was acquired soon after the Trojan war, when the Cimbri sallied forth out of their dwellings in Tauris and European Tartary, and entered Asia Minor. At that time, the Scythians were forced to give way to the Massagetæ, and retire from the east of the Caspian sea towards the country of the Cimbri to the west. This tribe now split into parties on the question whether they should comply with the wishes of their kings, and oppose the strangers with arms, or, as another party advised, emigrate. The dispute was decided by a battle, in which the royal party was overcome. After the dead had been buried on the shores of the Tyras (Dniester), where Herodotus saw their sepulchres, the vanquished party fled to the north and east side of the Pontus, and entered Asia, where they became known to the Greeks; the other party withdrew to the Vistula, and even beyond it. The Greeks retained no knowledge of these Cimmerians but the tradition that they had proceeded to the north-west.

On this account, the Greeks, when they reached the north-western ocean, considered the nations of that quarter Cimmerians; and, for the same reason, the name of *Cimbria* or *Cimmeria* was given to the Danish peninsula. Homer was acquainted with a tradition, according to which the Cimmerians were to be found among the wild inhabitants of the caves round the Avernus; and Pytheas took a race which he found on the Danish peninsula for Cimmerians. These fables only serve to create confusion in history. The real Cimmerians had never proceeded so far north, but dwelt on the Vistula, from whence, under the name of *Cimbri*, they sallied, together with the Teutones, and made themselves formidable to the Romans. In the year 114 B. C., when the Romans were already masters of a part of the eastern Alps, in the present Carniola, Istria, &c., and had established themselves in Dalmatia and Illyria, along the coast, immense bodies of barbarians suddenly made their appearance, who overcame the consul Papirius Carbo in the country now called *Stiria;* but, instead of entering Italy, they proceeded to the north, and, soon after, jointly with the Tigurians, entered the territory of the Allobroges. The Romans sent two armies, commanded by the consuls L. Cassius and M. Aurelius Scaurus, to oppose them, but both were defeated; the former by the Tigurians, the latter by the Cimbri. Even after this success, the victors did not enter Italy, but overran Gaul with three bodies, consisting of Teutones, Cimbri and Ambrones. Two new armies, with which the consul C. Manlius and the proconsul Q. Servilius Cæpio hastened to oppose them, were likewise defeated, beyond the Rhodanus. The Romans lost, according to Aëtius, 80,000 men. Whilst Rome placed her last hope in Marius, the barbarians overran the other western countries of Europe. Gaul suffered severely, but the Iberians and Belgians repulsed the invaders. Upon this, they resolved to descend into Italy. The Teutones and Ambrones were to enter on the western side of the Alps, the Cimbri and Tigurians on the east. After Marius had waited the approach of the first during three entire years, and had accustomed his troops to their appearance, he routed them completely (102 B. C.), in two days—on the first day the Ambrones, on the second the Teutones—at Aix, in Provence. The Cimbri, on the other hand, who had driven back the consul Catullus on the Adige, and had spread themselves along the Po, demanded land of the Romans, but were totally routed by Marius at Vercelli, 101 B. C. After this period, the Cimbri and Teutones disappear from history. A part of them had remained behind in Belgia with the baggage. These are the Advatici. At a later period, the Romans recognised the Cimbri to be a German nation. For a long time, deceived by their appearance, they took them for Celts. The Celtic exterior of the Cimbri may be explained by their connexion and mixture with the Celts on their march from the Danube and the Carpathian mountains.

Cimon, son of Miltiades and Hegesipyle, daughter of a Thracian prince, Olorus, was, according to Plutarch, educated in a very negligent manner, and indulged in every species of excess. In the Persian war, he began to make himself known. When Themistocles proposed to abandon the city and take refuge in the ships, in order to carry on the war by sea, Cimon, in company with several other young men, ascended the citadel, deposited the bridle of his horse in the temple, and took from the wall one of the shields, with which he went down to the fleet. He displayed great courage in the battle of Salamis, and attracted the attention of Aristides, who attached himself to him, as he considered him fit to counteract the dangerous influence of Themistocles. When the Athenians, in concert with the other Greeks, sent a fleet to Asia for the purpose of delivering their colonies from the Persian yoke, they gave Aristides and Cimon the chief command; and the return of Aristides to Athens, soon after, left Cimon at the head of the whole naval force of Greece. He distinguished himself by his splendid achievements in Thrace, defeated the Persians on the banks of the Strymon, and made himself master of the country. He conquered the island of Scyros, the inhabitants of which were addicted to piracy, and founded an Athenian colony there. Here he found the remains of Theseus, and transported them to Athens, where a temple was then built, for the first time, to this hero. He next subdued all the cities on the coast of Asia Minor, and went against the Persian fleet, which lay at the mouth of the Eurymedon. The Persians, although superior in number, did not dare to abide an engagement, but sailed up the river, to place themselves under the protection of their land-forces. Cimon pursued and attacked them, and took or destroyed more than 200 of their

ships. He then landed, and entirely defeated their army. These two victories, achieved in one day (B. C. 469), delivered Greece from the Persians. Cimon returned to Athens, in the embellishment of which he employed the spoils which he had taken. He removed the walls from his fields and gardens, that every one might be at liberty to take whatever he pleased. His table was spread for all the citizens of his *curia*. He never appeared in public without being attended by several slaves bearing garments, which he distributed to the poor. He adorned the city with elegant walks, caused the market-place to be planted with plane-trees, transferred the academy to the beautiful gardens of Athens, all at his own expense. This generosity was the more noble, as it could hardly be attributed to a desire of courting the people; for he constantly opposed Themistocles, and, at a subsequent period, Pericles and Ephialtes, who endeavored to extend the power of the people. Cimon used his influence to preserve a good understanding between the Athenians and Lacedæmonians, by the latter of whom he was much beloved, and whom he sought to imitate. About 466 B. C., the Thasians having revolted, he defeated them, took possession of their city, and of their gold mines on the neighboring continent, and founded the city of Amphipolis. Scarcely had he returned to Athens, when Pericles, and the other popular leaders, accused him of being corrupted by the king of Macedon, because he had refrained from seizing the possessions of that prince in time of peace. But the people rejected so groundless an accusation. An insurrection of the Helots having broken out during the enterprise against Thasos, the Lacedæmonians sought the assistance of the Athenians, who were induced by Cimon to send them aid. The Lacedæmonians, however, fearing the inconstancy of the Athenians, sent back their troops, and thus excited their displeasure. Pericles and Ephialtes had also profited by Cimon's absence to take the jurisdiction, in a multitude of cases, from the Areopagus, and transfer it to the Heliasts; thus giving an immense power to the inferior classes. Cimon endeavored, in vain, on his return, to place matters on the old footing. His enemies, therefore, took advantage of the popular discontent, to which that subject had given rise, to procure his banishment. He retired into Bœotia. Soon after, when the Athenians advanced to Tanagra, in order to dispute the passage of the Lacedæmonians, who were returning from Delphi, which they had freed from the Phocians, he appeared, prepared to fight, with his tribe. He urged his friends to show, by their conduct, the groundlessness of the accusation brought against him of favoring the Lacedæmonians, and nearly all of them fell, fighting with the greatest bravery. Although the Athenians lost this battle, they still continued the war till 456 B. C., when, the Helots being entirely subdued, the Athenians feared that the whole power of Lacedæmon would be turned against them. They recalled Cimon, who concluded a peace, but, at the same time, to afford employment to the restless spirit of the Athenians, undertook an expedition against Egypt and Cyprus. He sailed against Cyprus with 200 ships, whence he sent 60 to Egypt. With the remainder he defeated the Persian fleet and army on the Phœnician coast (450). The *peace of Cimon* (B. C. 449), of which Isocrates, Demosthenes, Diodorus and Plutarch speak, but which Thucydides does not mention, probably never took place. Those authors were deceived by the report of a treaty which was not concluded. In 449, Cimon besieged the city of Citium, but died before it was taken, and after his death the Athenians retired. Athens lost, in him, one of her most distinguished citizens. The popular party, which he had opposed, now gained the superiority.

Cinaloa; a province on the west side of Mexico, comprehended under the intendancy of Sonora, lying between New Biscay and the gulf of California; 300 miles long, and 150 broad. The air is pure and healthy, the land good and fertile, producing abundance of maize, legumes, fruits and cotton. The natives are robust and warlike, and were with difficulty brought to submit to the Spaniards. They make use of bows with poisoned arrows, clubs of red-wood, and bucklers. Population, 60,000.

Cinaloa, or St. Felipe y St. Jago; a town of Mexico, in a province of the same name, 630 miles N. W. Mexico; lon. 106° 40′ W.; lat. 26° 26′ N.; population, 9500.

Cinchona. (See *Bark, Peruvian.*)

Cincinnati (the Cincinnatuses); a society established by the officers of the revolutionary army of the U. States, in 1783, to perpetuate their friendship, and to raise a fund for relieving the widows and orphans of those who had fallen during the war. The name of *Cincinnatus* (q. v.) was adopted, as emblematic of the civic character of the American army. The

honors of the society were to be hereditary in the eldest male line of the original members, and, in default of male issue, in the collateral male line. This association excited the fears of the republicans in America, and, among them, of Franklin: they saw in it the germ of a future aristocracy. At the first general meeting of the order, at Philadelphia, 1784, some modifications were, therefore, made in the constitution, and, in some of the states, it was silently abandoned. At present, there are seven state societies, which hold a general meeting by delegates triennially. The badge of the society is a bald eagle suspended by a blue ribbon edged with white, emblematic of the union of France and America. On the breast of the eagle, Cincinnatus is receiving the military ensigns from the three senators; the implements of husbandry are seen in the background; round the whole, *Omnia reliquit servare rempublicam.* On the reverse, Fame is crowning Cincinnatus with a wreath, inscribed *Virtutis præmium*, with other emblems; round the whole, *Societas Cincinnatorum, instituta A. D.* 1783.

Cincinnati; a city of the state of Ohio, in Hamilton county, on the north bank of the river Ohio; 20 miles above the mouth of the Great Miami, 122 above Louisville; 455 below Pittsburg by the river, and 300 by land; 109 S. W. of Columbus; lat. 39° 6′ N.; lon. 84° 27′ W.: population, in 1805, 750; in 1810, 2540; in 1820, 9642; and, in 1829, 24,148. Cincinnati was first laid out in 1789, and began to flourish after the year 1794, since which time its growth in population, wealth and trade has been exceedingly rapid. It is a great emporium of the western country, and, next to New Orleans, much the largest town in the U. States west of the Alleghany mountains. The city is advantageously and pleasantly situated. It stands partly on the first and partly on the second bank of the river, the upper part being elevated 50 or 60 feet above the lower. The central part of the town is very compact, and a great proportion of the houses are handsomely built of brick. The principal public buildings and institutions in 1829 were a court-house, a jail, the medical college, the Cincinnati college, an hospital, a museum, a city library, the apprentices' library, 3 market-houses, 5 insurance companies, 23 places of public worship, 5 classical schools, and 47 common schools. There were published, at the same period, 2 daily newspapers, 2 semi-weekly, and 5 weekly, besides other periodical publications. In 1826, there belonged to the city 28 clergymen, 34 attorneys, and 35 physicians. The number of students in the medical college, in 1825, was 82. The Cincinnati college was incorporated in 1819. Cincinnati is a place of great trade and extensive manufactures. The exports, of which the most considerable articles are flour and pork, amounted, in 1826, to 1,063,560 dollars; and the imports, in the same year, to 2,528,590 dollars. A considerable portion of the imports is brought here for re-exportation. There are between 30 and 40 manufacturing establishments, some of which are on a very extensive scale; and their works are, to a great extent, moved by steam power. The whole value of the manufactures, in all the departments, was estimated, in 1828, at 1,850,000 dollars. The markets of Cincinnati are abundantly supplied with various kinds of provisions, which are furnished at a low price.

Cincinnatus, Lucius Quinctius, a patrician belonging to the earliest period of the Roman republic, equally distinguished by heroism, magnanimity, contentment and disinterestedness, was chosen consul 460 B. C. The messengers charged with the information of his election found him at the plough in the fields. He accepted the office, and only regretted that his little farm would be neglected. He behaved, while in the consulship, disinterestedly and honorably, but refused it when it was offered to him the following year, and afterwards received the dictatorship for six months, to terminate the unhappy war with the neighboring Æqui. The messengers again found him at his plough. He immediately joined and assisted the consul Minutius, surprised the enemies during the night, made prisoners of all their army, and divided the booty amongst his soldiers, only retaining for himself a golden crown, which his army had presented to him to express their gratitude. After having celebrated a triumph, he resigned his office, which he had held only during 16 days, and returned to his rural retirement. At an advanced age, he was again elected dictator to restrain the power of Spurius Mælius, a dangerous and turbulent man: he proposed the most effectual arrangements, and, after the principal mutineer had been killed by a certain Ahala, dispersed his adherents. Thus Cincinnatus was twice the deliverer of his country, which revered him as a father.

Cinna, Lucius Cornelius, an adherent of Marius, who, when Sylla had made himself odious by the proscription of Marius, obtained the consulship, and accused Sylla,

who was just going as proconsul to Asia, of mal-administration. Sylla thought it not advisable to take notice of this complaint. When Cinna afterwards wished to carry by force a new law in favor of the allies, a bloody battle commenced in the forum between his party and the party of the senate, at the head of which stood Octavius, the other consul. Cinna and his party were conquered, and, with a loss of 10,000 men, were driven from the city. He flew to the allies, collected 30 legions, called the proscribed to his support, and, among these, Marius, made himself master of Rome, and assented to the plan of Marius to put to death all the senators who were opposed to the people. This massacre continued for five days. The following year, he, together with Marius, arbitrarily assumed the consulship. Sylla now appeared, and Cinna wished to march against him, but his soldiers refused, and put him to death.

Cinna, Cornelius, a grandson of Pompey, was at the head of a conspiracy against Augustus, who generously forgave him, and even transferred to him the consulship. Cinna was, therefore, devoted to the emperor, till his death, with inviolable fidelity.

Cinnabar. (See *Mercury*.)

Cinnamon is the under bark of the branches of a tree of the bay tribe (*laurus cinnamomum*), which is chiefly found in the island of Ceylon, but which grows in Malabar, and other parts of the East Indies. This tree attains the height of 20 or 30 feet. Its leaves are oval, each from 4 to 6 inches long, and marked with three principal nerves. The flowers stand on slender footstalks, and are of a pale-yellow color; and the fruit is shaped somewhat like an acorn. There are two principal seasons of the year, in which the Ceylonese enter their woods for the purpose of barking the cinnamon-trees. The first of these commences in April, and the last in November; the former being that in which the great crop is obtained. In this operation, the branches of three years' growth are cut down, and the outside pellicle of the bark is scraped away. The twigs are then ripped up lengthwise with a knife, and the bark is gradually loosened, till it can be entirely taken off. It is then cut into slices, and, on being exposed to the sun, curls up in drying. The smaller pieces, or *quills*, as they are called, are inserted into the larger ones, and these are afterwards tied into bundles. Cinnamon is examined and arranged according to its quality, by persons who, for this purpose, are obliged to taste and chew it. This is a very troublesome and disagreeable office, few persons being able to hold out more than two or three days successively, as the cinnamon deprives the tongue and lips of all the mucus with which they are covered. After this examination, the bundles are made up to the length of about 4 feet, and weigh about 88 pounds each. From the roots of the trees numerous off-sets shoot up. These, when they have attained the height of about 10 feet, are cut down and barked, being then about the thickness of a common walking stick. The cinnamon which they yield is much finer than any other. A French ship, bound, in 1782, from the island of Bourbon to cape François, in St. Domingo, and having on board various Oriental productions, the cinnamon-tree among the rest, was taken by admiral Rodney, who presented the trees to the assembly of Jamaica; and from this parent stock, different parts of that island were afterwards supplied. In Ceylon, the cinnamon-trees are said to be so common as to be used for fuel and other domestic purposes. The smell of cinnamon, particularly of the thinnest pieces, is delightfully fragrant, and its taste pungent and aromatic, with considerable sweetness and astringency. If infused in boiling water, in a covered vessel, it gives out much of its grateful flavor, and forms an agreeable liquid. An oil is extracted from cinnamon, which is heavier than water. This is prepared in Ceylon, and almost wholly from the small and broken pieces. It is made, however, in such small quantity, that the oil of cassia is generally substituted for it: indeed, the cassia bark is often substituted for cinnamon, to which it has considerable resemblance, although in its qualities it is much weaker, and though it is immediately distinguishable by its slimy taste. The virtues of cinnamon are not confined to the bark. The leaves, the fruit and the root, all yield oil of considerable value. That from the fruit is highly fragrant, of thick consistence, and, at Ceylon, was formerly made into candles, for the sole use of the king.

Cino da Pistoia; a juris-consult and poet; born in 1270, at Pistoia, of the family of Sinibuldi, or Sinibaldi. His proper name was *Guittone*, which the Florentines changed to *Guittoncino*, and then abbreviated it to *Cino*. He finished his studies at Bologna, and subsequently acted as judge in Pistoia till 1307, when the civil war, known by the name of the *contest between the Neri and Bianchi*, obliged him to flee. He first took refuge with a friend

on the borders of Lombardy, who also belonged to the party of the Bianchi, and whose daughter, Selvaggia, had gained his affection; but her death soon followed. Cino then travelled through Lombardy and France, and remained some time at Paris, but returned to Italy before 1314; for in that year he published, at Bologna, his commentary on the Justinian code, which he had completed in two years, and which excited universal admiration on account of its extent and the difficulty of the subject. In consequence of this, he received the diploma of doctor of law. Several universities were anxious to secure his services. He lived three years at Treviso, and still longer at Perugia, where the famous Bartolo was his scholar. It is doubtful whether, as some assert, he actually instructed at Bologna, Sienna, and even at Paris; but he certainly was professor, in 1334, at the university of Florence. He taught the civil law. Petrarca and Boccaccio were not his scholars, as it has been said. Cino returned to Pistoia in 1336, where he died in the same or the beginning of the following year. His commentary surpassed every thing of the kind which had appeared before, and went through several editions. He ranks amongst the best of the early Italian poets, and resembles Petrarca more than any of the other predecessors of this poet. His poems, the principal subject of which is the above-mentioned Selvaggia, were first published at Rome, in 1558, by Pilli. They afterwards appeared in Venice, increased by a second volume, which, however, was not considered genuine. The most complete edition is that of Ciampi (Florence, 1812, 2d ed.) with the author's life.

Cinque Ports; eight seaports of England, on the coasts of Kent and Sussex—Dover, Sandwich, Hastings, Hithe, Romney, Winchelsea, Rye and Seaford. They were originally only five, the three latter having been declared ports subsequent to the first institution. They are under a lord warden, and are endowed with considerable privileges. They are all borough towns, sending each two members to parliament, under the title of *barons of the cinque ports.* Though the above-mentioned cities have long since lost their importance, their harbors being filled with mud, so as not to admit men-of-war, most of their privileges continue, as does the office of the warden, a mere sinecure, of £3000 annual income.

Ciphers are the signs for numbers. (q. v.) They are either borrowed signs, as letters, with which, for instance, the Greeks and several tribes of the north of Europe designated their numbers; or peculiar characters, as the Roman and modern or Arabic ones. As the decimal system must be considered one of the grandest inventions of man, we must also acknowledge the system of numbers which we now use to be a proof of extraordinary genius and a deep, philosophical mind; and it cannot be doubted, that our progress in mathematical science, abstract and applied, would have been much slower without the Arabic ciphers, which, in fact, are indispensable to the great calculations which occur daily in modern astronomy. The ciphers, such as they are at present, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 0, did not attain their present character till a pretty late period. We have them from the Arabians, who, according to Abulpharagius (*Dynast* 1, p. 16), say that they received the invention from the Indians. According to a recent discovery of professor Seyffarth of Leipsic, in Turin, on a papyrus manuscript, it seems probable that the Egyptians were acquainted with the present system of ciphers, at least in its principles. As early as the 9th century, ciphers were used, though seldom, in France. Not until the 11th century did their use become, in any degree, common in Europe. According to de Matthæis, the Roman ciphers are derived from the nails which the Etruscans, and after them the Romans, annually drove into their temples, in order to express their divisions of time. Probably the eldest trace of Roman ciphers is that in the inscription upon the *colonna rostrata.*

Cipher is also the name given to various methods of writing in secret characters, chiefly used in the correspondence of diplomatic agents with their courts. (See *Cryptography* and *Deciphering.*) A kind of monogram, in which the initial letters of the Christian and family names of a person are entwined within each other, has the same name.

Cipriani, Giambattista; a painter and engraver, born at Pistoia, in 1732, died at London in 1785. His teacher is not known, but it is certain that Correggio was his model. At the age of 18, he went to Rome, to perfect himself in his art. His talents soon gained him reputation. Some Englishmen, who met him there, induced him to go to London. He was one of the first fellows of the royal academy, instituted in 1769. His drawing is correct, his heads have grace and loveliness, his coloring is harmonious, and

the general impression of his composition charming. For Ariosto's *Orlando Furioso* he executed a number of copperplate illustrations, in which he displays all the beauty of his genius. Many fine engravings of Bartolozzi are from the designs of Cipriani.

Circassia; a country of Asia, on the north side of the Caucasus, extending from the Black to the Caspian sea. The inhabitants call themselves *Adige;* by the Turks and Tartars they are called *Tcherkas* (i. e. highway robbers); by the Arabs, *Memalik;* by the Ossetes, likewise a nation dwelling on mount Caucasus, they are called *Kasachi.* They inhabit the districts, 1. Great Kabarda; 2. Little Kabarda; 3. Beslen, on the greater Laba, which flows into the Kuban; 4. Temirgoi on the Schagwascha; 5. Abassia, chiefly on the river Pschaha; 6. Bseduch, in the lower districts of the Rhuasch; 7. Hadukai; 8. Bschana. This powerful and warlike nation might become extremely formidable, if, instead of being subject to numerous little princes, it were united under one head. The most important of the Circassian branches of the Kuban are the Temirgoi: they inhabit more than 40 fortified villages, and can send 2000 men into the field. The Schagacki, below the Russian fortress Anapa, have a prince, who formerly maintained vessels on the Black sea. The Kabarda Circassians, a half-civilized nation, inhabit a fertile country on the northern frontier of the Terek, and are distinguished from all the other nations of the Caucasus by their beauty. The men are of lofty stature, regular features, and unequalled in the use of the sabre. The women have delicate figures, light complexions, dark hair, regular features, and full bosoms. They are considered the principal ornaments of the Turkish harams. The Circassian prince or nobleman, that is, every one who does not serve, and possesses a horse, is constantly armed with a dagger and pistols, and seldom leaves his house without his sabre and quiver. A helmet and a coat of mail cover his head and his breast. Kabarda furnishes 1500 noblemen, or *uzdens*, and 10,000 peasants, or serving-men, capable of bearing arms. But the princes of Kabarda destroy each other by constant hostilities. The soil of Kabarda is excellent for agriculture; but the winter is severe, and the warm season not of long duration. The inhabitants neglect the gifts of nature, viz. the mines, from which they might extract the most useful metals, such as iron and copper, for the manufacture of their weapons. A great part of their wealth consists in goats, sheep, oxen and horses. They sell wool and wax. Their horses are distinguished for beauty, strength and fleetness. They burn a mark on the colts of a good breed. Their feudal system is worthy of notice. The subject is the property of the prince: although he cannot be sold, he is compelled to perform all personal services, but pays no taxes. The nobleman maintains order among the people, and serves the prince in war. The latter keeps an open table, and all those who own herds contribute to it. Marriages are concluded with reference to riches and birth. Immediately after the birth of a princely child, it is taken from the parental house, and its education confided to a nobleman. The boys are instructed in hunting, plundering and fighting; the girls in embroidering, sewing and plaiting straw. There is a law of hospitality among the Circassians, called *kunadi:* the life of the host is responsible for its observance to the stranger on whom it has been conferred. If a murder is committed, the relations of the deceased take the life of the murderer: no money can conciliate them. Formerly, these people were Christians. At present, they are Mohammedans, but by no means zealous observers of the precepts of the Koran. After the downfall of the Chazaric empire, the Circassians appear to have been subject to the Arabians, Tartars, and perhaps, likewise, to the Georgians. Towards the end of the 16th century, they became vassals to the Russians. The czar Iwan Wasiliewitsch, in 1565, sent a small army, under general Daschkow, to the aid of Temruk, a Circassian prince; but, after the death of Iwan, the Russian court neglected these distant subjects, and they became tributary to the khans of the Crimea, until, tired of the ill-treatment of their officers, they took up arms, and overcame an army of 30,000 men. At present, Tcherkassia (Circassia) —containing 31,785 sq. miles, and 550,000 inhabitants—is a province under the protection of Russia.

Circe; a powerful sorceress; according to some, the daughter of Sol and Perseis, one of the Oceanides; according to others, of Hyperion and Asterope; the sister of Aëtes and Pasiphaë. She lived in a valley situated in an island on the western coast of Italy. Her palace was built of shining stones, in an open place, surrounded by tame lions and wolves. Her employment was weaving; and, during her work, she amused herself with singing: her servants

were four mountain and river nymphs. Ulysses, in his wanderings, landed on her island, and sent out Eurylochus with a party to explore the country. They arrived at the palace of Circe, who gave them food and wine, and with her magic wand changed them into swine. Eurylochus only, by cautiously abstaining from the magical potion, escaped the transformation, and informed Ulysses of the event. He immediately proceeded himself into the country to free his companions. On the way, Mercury met him, informed him how to conduct himself before the sorceress, and gave him the plant called *moly*, as a means of delivering his companions. Thus armed, he appeared before Circe, whose potion had no effect upon him. Following Mercury's advice, he then ran upon her with his drawn sword, threatening her with death, and compelled her to bind herself by an oath to do him no injury, and deliver his companions. Ulysses remained with her a whole year, and had by her two sons—Adrius, or Agrius, and Latinus. Before his departure, she told him that, in order to secure a safe return to his country, he must visit the infernal regions, and ask advice of Tiresias.

Circle (Latin *circulus*); a plane figure comprehended under a single line which returns into itself, having a point in the middle, from which all the lines drawn to its circumference are equal. This point is called the *centre*, and these lines the *radii*. Although, properly speaking, it is the space included within the periphery or circumference, yet, in the popular use of the word, *circle* is frequently used for the periphery alone. From the geometrical definition of the circle, it appears that its magnitude is dependent upon the magnitude of its radius or its diameter, i. e., a line which touches two points of the circumference, and passes, at the same time, through the centre, or, which is the same thing, a line equal to twice the length of the radius. The surface of the circle is equal to the product of the circumference and half the radius. If there existed a rational proportion, that is, a proportion to be expressed in whole numbers, of the surface of the circle to a square surface, there would be, at the same time, a rational proportion between the diameter and the circumference. But, from geometrical reasons, no rational proportion of the diameter to the circumference is possible; it can be expressed only by approximation. However, the proportion thus obtained is quite as accurate as is necessary for any purpose in the applied mathematics. Yet there have always been instances, and some of a very late date, of men laboring long and intensely in searching for the square equal to the surface of the circle, and who often believed that they had actually solved the problem. Very recently, the newspapers were full of such a solution by a boy in England. In the approximate proportion, if the diameter is called 1, the circumference will be equal to 3.1415926535.... Francis Vieta obtained the proportion to this number of figures. Afterwards it was further determined by Adrianus Romanus to 15, by Ludolphus of Cologne (often improperly called *von Keulen*) to 35 (from him it is often called the *Ludolphic number*), by Sharp to 72, by Machin to 100, by Lagny to 126, and lastly, in an Oxford manuscript, it was obtained up to 156 decimals. Archimedes first estimated the proportion of the diameter to the circumference to be as 7 to 22, or as 1 to 3.142.....; after him, Metius, as 113 to 355, or as 1 to 3.1415929, which is correct to 6 decimals, and sufficiently accurate for most purposes. Every circle is divided into 360 degrees, and by its arcs all angles are measured. The circle, therefore, is one of the most important geometrical figures, and an accurate division of it is requisite for measuring the angles under which distant objects appear (upon which surveying, astronomical observations, &c. rest)—a very desirable object, for which many prizes have been offered by learned societies. (See *Degree*.)—*Circle*, in logic; the fault of an argument that supposes the principle it should prove, and afterwards proves the principle by the thing which it seemed to have proved. The same fault takes place in definitions, when an idea is defined by others which suppose the knowledge of the first. Arguing in a circle is a fault into which men are very liable to fall, particularly in theological discussions.

Circuits; in England, divisions of the kingdom appointed for the judges to pass through twice in the course of a year for the purpose of administering justice in the several counties. The counties of England are divided into six circuits, and two judges go on each circuit.—In the U. States, the same name is given to the divisions of the country traversed annually by the judges of the supreme court of the U. States, for the purpose of trying causes which fall within the jurisdiction of the national courts. (For the circuit courts of the U. States, see *Courts of the U. States*.)

Circular Motion. A body in motion,

which is continually impelled by some power towards a fixed point out of its original direction, is obliged to describe a curvilinear path round this point. A stone, slung round by a string, moves in a circle, because it is drawn toward the hand in every point of its path. The moon moves in a circle round the earth, because it gravitates towards the earth, and is thus drawn from the rectilinear direction, which it would otherwise pursue. In such cases, the point to which the body constantly tends, is called the *centre of the forces;* the force itself, by which it is impelled, is called the *centripetal force;* that by which it strives to fly from the centre is called the *centrifugal force;* and the motion which is produced by these two forces, the *circular motion.* All the planets in the solar system are carried round the sun, and the satellites round their planets, by these forces. (See *Central Forces.*)—The theory of circular motion is a subject of celestial mechanics, on which Newton composed his *Principia Mathematica Philosoph. Natural.* and Laplace his *Mécanique Céleste*, &c. As the model of a concise and beautiful exposition, we recommend the article under this head in Gehler's *Physikalisches Wörterbuch* (Dictionary of Natural Philosophy).

Circular Saws, which revolve upon an axis, are preferable to straight saws, because they act continually in the same direction, and no force is lost by a backward stroke. At the same time, they can work with greater velocity, and, therefore, cut more smoothly. Their size, however, is limited, because they waver and bend out of the proper plane if made too large, and if they were made so as not to waver, they would be too thick. Slitting of timber, therefore, is not often performed with them, but they are much used for cutting thin layers of mahogany for veneering, for, in this case, the saw can be sufficiently strengthened towards the centre. Great velocity increases much the steadiness of a circular saw.

Circulating Medium. The expression *circulating medium* is now much more frequently used than formerly. It means the medium of exchanges, or purchases and sales, whether this medium be gold or silver coin, paper, or any other article, as oxen, tobacco, iron, slaves, usually employed in any place as the measure of the values of other articles, and is thus of a more comprehensive signification than the term *money*, which, though it applies to gold and silver coin, paper currency, and some other of the various articles used for the above purpose, does not comprehend them all, since oxen, which have, by some nations, at some periods, been adopted as the measure of the comparative values of articles of commerce, would hardly be considered as coming under the denomination of *money.* It is hardly possible to imagine a people to be without a circulating medium of some description; and, accordingly, we find all the tribes of savages hitherto discovered referring to some article in estimating the value of the various commodities which compose their capital. Captain Franklin says, the Krees Indians use beaver skins as their medium, and estimate the value of things by a certain number of their skins. The people of Virginia, in the earlier periods of their colonial history, estimated value by pounds of tobacco. In some parts of Africa, a species of small shells, cowries, are the medium of exchanges. But from the earliest times, the precious metals, where they could be had, have been preferred for this purpose, because their weight, fineness, and, consequently, value, could be more accurately ascertained than those of any other article, and thus comprise a sufficient value in a small compass and weight to be a convenient medium. Many species of precious stones comprise a greater value in the same bulk and weight than either gold or silver, but their value cannot be so precisely estimated, nor are they found in sufficient quantities. Platina would be as convenient a medium as either gold or silver, provided it should continue to retain its present value; but it has not as yet been produced in sufficient abundance. It is one essential quality of a circulating medium, that it should have an intrinsic marketable value. Gold and silver, for instance, besides answering as a medium, have as positive a market value as iron, tin, leather or corn. This value is derived from their utility in the useful and ornamental arts; and it may be more precisely ascertained than the value of most other articles, since an agreement for a certain number of beaver skins, a certain quantity of tobacco, and still more for a certain number of cattle, admits of some doubt and dispute as to the quality; but an agreement for a certain weight of gold, of given fineness, admits of no dispute; it can be reduced to the utmost certainty. But we see other kinds of currency, which apparently answer the purpose of a circulating medium, and which have very little value. A small piece of paper, not worth intrinsically one cent, passes for many

thousand dollars; and this sometimes leads people into the mistaken notion that intrinsic value is not an essential quality in the public currency. But we must look at what is printed or written on this paper, to learn why it passes for currency. It bears a promise that the holder shall be entitled to a certain number of dollars; of course, a certain quantity of gold and silver, of a certain fineness. If this promise is valid, and will be kept, then the real medium is gold and silver, though this gold and silver may be locked up in a bank. But it may be said, that there is not, in the banks, where bank paper circulates, and, perhaps, not in the community, more than one dollar in silver or gold for four dollars promised in the paper in circulation. How then can four dollars of paper be redeemed by one of silver? This is very easy. One holder of a paper dollar demands the silver at the bank, and passes it off, or keeps it in his purse. Now if the bank can induce this person, or the one to whom he passes the dollar, to let them have it again, that is, to loan it to them, or to take something in exchange for it, they can then, with the same silver dollar, redeem the second paper one, and so on. Thus a bank that has capital, and a good credit, will be always able to reclaim and use the same specie successively to redeem its paper, and, if it be skilfully conducted, it will always be able to command it as fast as its bills can be collected and presented for payment. A community, therefore, which only uses specie and redeemable paper as currency, has, to all practical purposes, a specie medium. The paper is, in short, so much specie, for all practical purposes, for it will command gold and silver. Here, then, is evidently an advantage gained; for, if a bank, by putting one dollar in its vaults, can loan out four dollars on interest, it makes a great income on its capital, while the community loses nothing, but gains, rather; for this paper is much more convenient for transportation, and equally convenient in all other respects. It is a great object in every community to gain this advantage, arising from multiplication of money. Individuals, if not prohibited by the laws, will soon issue their paper money, and many of them make promises of paying dollars, which they cannot fulfil, and thus the public be defrauded. On the other hand, the government often makes the bubble by the issue of paper money, or promises of payment never to be fulfilled. There has rarely, if ever, been an instance of a government issuing paper money, and redeeming it punctually, and to its full nominal amount. Innumerable issues of this sort of circulating medium were made by the American colonies before the establishment of the independence of the U. States; and, during the war of independence, the country was inundated with what was called *continental money*, which was never redeemed. Russia and Austria have this species of currency in circulation, always depreciated, as is usual with such money. Formerly, the sovereigns of Europe had a practice of debasing the current coin, when they wished to levy a tax in disguise, so as to make the copper, with which they alloyed the silver, pass as of the value of silver. But, in modern times, instead of debasing the coin, the usual resort is to a government bank or to government paper. Government paper, issued as the ordinary currency, usually proves to be a bubble. And it may be taken for a general rule, that no currency is safe which is not of an intrinsic value, or is not based upon capital sacredly pledged to its redemption. The question then recurs, why the government may not pledge a certain amount of capital for the redemption of its paper. The reason is, that this capital must be managed, and a vast deal of skill and economy is requisite in managing a redeemable paper currency; and of all managers, the agents of a government are the least thrifty and economical. Besides, the government will ruin the credit of its own paper by excessive issues in its exigencies in times of war, when the effects of a destruction of its credit are the most disastrous. The government, therefore, ought never to trust itself to be a banker, or to issue paper money, except in desperate circumstances or pressing exigences, when no other measure can be resorted to, and when what would otherwise be wrong and dishonest is excused for the sake of preventing the greatest national calamities. If, then, neither the government nor individuals can safely supply a circulating medium of promises, what system can be safely adopted, which shall afford all the advantages of a multiplication, in effect, of the medium of intrinsic value, namely, the gold and silver? Undoubtedly the system of bank circulation, whereby a certain capital is sacredly pledged to the redemption of the promises of payment of money made in the circulating bills. A well contrived, skilfully conducted system of banking, connected with one of circulation, is one of the greatest triumphs of national economy. The

interest, as well as the reputation of individuals, is thus pledged in support of the system, and in furtherance of the general industry and prosperity. But shall individuals reap all the advantages of the practical multiplication of capital in consequence of supplying a currency based upon, but not consisting exclusively of specie? By no means. The government may indirectly reap greater advantages from this system, than they possibly can from an attempt at becoming themselves bankers for the community, by sharing the profits with those who actually conduct the business. It is one of the proper and most important functions of the government to regulate the currency. It is bound to interfere, with proper restrictions, for preventing the frauds and bubbles to which individual enterprise and speculation inevitably lead if let loose in the career of credit; and it has a profit, in so doing, by reaping some of the advantages of a bank circulation, and thus gaining an income without, in fact, levying a tax. Thus, if, as in some of the U. States, the circulation of the notes of individuals, as a currency, is prohibited, and certain institutions have a right by charter to supply the currency by an issue of their bank notes, on paying to the government a certain *bonus*, as a certain per cent. on their capital, or the amount of the bills which they keep in circulation, or the amount of the dividends made on their stock, or on undertaking, as the bank of the U. States does, to render certain services in collecting the revenue and making remittances, the government derives a revenue from its right to regulate the currency; and yet no one, in fact, pays this amount to the government as a tax, for the banks which pay it receive a consideration in the privilege of supplying the currency. As long as the government does not bear oppressively upon this species of monopoly, by attempting to levy an excessive tax for the privilege, and thus discouraging it, a liberal income may be derived from the substitution of promises on paper, instead of gold and silver, for the ordinary purposes of circulation and exchange, and, at the same time, such guarantees may be provided as to prevent abuse and fraud, and render this currency as safe as that of specie.

Circulation of the Blood. (See *Physiology.*)

Circumcision; the custom prevailing among several Eastern nations of cutting off the prepuce of the virile member. The most ancient nation among whom this custom prevailed was the Egyptians; and we find it still among the aborigines of Egypt, even among the Christian Copts (q. v.), and the Abyssinians (q. v.), who profess Christianity, and other African nations, who seem to have received it, like the Abyssinians, from the Egyptians. The Jews perform this ancient ceremony, by which the descendants of Abraham were to be distinguished from other nations, as a rite instituted by God, on the eighth day after the birth. The circumcised person is, as it were, naturalized by this ceremony, or introduced among the people of God. Moses found it among the nation, and confirmed it. The Mohammedan circumcision is probably an ancient Ishmaelite custom, which the Ishmaelites and the Israelites received from their common father, Abraham. The Koran of Mohammed did not introduce circumcision; it was already in use among his nation, and was introduced by them, with Islamism, as a sacred rite, into all countries where their religion was received. The original object of this custom was probably the promotion of cleanliness, which is doubly necessary among the inhabitants of hot countries, for the prevention of many diseases; but it is a mistake to suppose that it increases fertility. There is also a kind of circumcision, or excision, performed on the female sex. In Egypt, Mohammedan maidens are often circumcised; and the Abyssinians circumcise both sexes. The word *circumcised* is often used in the Old Testament to denote the Jews.

Circumcision is also the name of a feast, celebrated on the first of January, in commemoration of the circumcision of our Savior. The day was anciently celebrated as a fast, in opposition to the customs of the pagans, who feasted on it in honor of the god Janus.

Circumnavigators. Magellan, a Portuguese, was the first of those intrepid men, who, following in the path of Columbus, traversed the ocean from the east to the west, and, pursuing this direction, at last returned to their country. He circumnavigated the world in 1519—21. In his passage through the straits of Magellan, or round cape Horn, into the southern seas, he was followed by the Spaniards (Fuca, Mendaina, Quiros, and others, down to Malaspina), by the French (Bougainville, La Peyrouse, q. v., and others, down to Freycinet, q. v.), by the Dutch (Baarents, Heemskerk, Hertoge, Tasman, Roggewein), by Englishmen and Russians (from Deschneff to Krusenstern,

and Otto von Kotzebue, q. v.), and, lastly, by North Americans. The English, as was to have been expected, have made the most numerous and important voyages round the world. Fifty years after Cabot, Hugh Willoughby (1553) reached Nova Zembla, on his northern expedition. All attempts since made to enter the Pacific by a north-eastern or north-western passage have been fruitless. (See *Expeditions to the North Pole.*)—But the 11 voyages to the north-east and north-west by Frobisher, Gilbert, Davis, Weymouth (1591), and several other navigators, were important from the discoveries of new lands and productive fisheries, to which they led. At the same time, Francis Drake made a voyage round the earth. Cavendish, Chidley and Hawkins followed their great predecessors to the south, but less successfully. Amongst the bold navigators who undertook great expeditions in the 17th century, Hudson, Baffin, Dampier, Halley and Woods Rogers, were distinguished by the importance of their discoveries. Woods Rogers proceeded to 62° 53′ S., and the Russian captain Bellinghausen to 70°, in the year 1820. (Rogers brought Alex. Selkirk, the reputed Crusoe, home with him.) 30 years after Rogers, lord Anson (1741—44) made a voyage round the world. With him commences a great era in the discoveries in the South seas, embracing the entire Polynesia. Then followed the voyages of discovery by Carteret and Wallis (1767). The voyages of Cook, beginning in 1770, made a new era in circumnavigation. At last, Vancouver made geographers and navigators well acquainted with the north-western coast of America. (See *Kotzebue, Otto von; Krusenstern*, and *Voyages.*) The latest *Voy. autour du Monde* is that of captain Duperrai, in the Coquille, made by command of Louis XVIII, in 1822—25 (6 vols. 4to., with an atlas of 375 pages, published in numbers, Paris, 1828).

Circumvallation, or Line of Circumvallation, in military affairs, implies a fortification of earth, consisting of a parapet and trench, made round the town intended to be besieged, when any molestation is apprehended from parties of the enemy which may march to relieve the place.

Circus, among the Romans; an oblong building without a roof, in which public chariot-races and exhibitions of pugilism and wrestling took place. It was rectangular, except that one short side formed a half circle; the entrance was at the opposite end. Within, on each side of the entrance, were six arcades (*carceres*), where the chariots stood. On both the sides, and on the semicircular end, were the seats of the spectators, rising gradually one above another, like steps, and resting on strong arches. At the foot of the seats there was a broad ditch, called *euripus*, to prevent the wild beasts from leaping among the spectators. Within was an open space (*arena*), covered with sand, where the games were exhibited. This space was divided lengthwise into two parts by a wall (*spina*), 12 feet thick and 6 high, adorned with little temples, altars, statues, obelisks, pyramids and conical towers. Of these last (*metæ*) there were three at each end, which served as goals, round which the circuits were made. By the first *meta*, opposite the curved end of the circus, there were seven other pillars, with oval balls (*ova*) on their summits. One of these balls was taken down for every circuit. On the outside, the circus was surrounded with colonnades, galleries, shops and public places. The largest of these buildings in Rome, the *circus maximus*, was situated in the 11th district of the city, which was thence sometimes called *circus maximus*, and on the spot where Romulus exhibited the games at which the Sabine women were carried off. Tarquinius Priscus projected the plan of this building, and some of the wealthy senators completed it. The *ludi magni* were celebrated in it. Dionysius of Halicarnassus gives its length at 9331⅓ feet, and the breadth at 2187 feet. According to Pliny, it was capable of containing 260,000, and according to Aurelius Victor, 385,000 spectators. Julius Cæsar enlarged and ornamented it. Under Nero, it was burnt, and under Antoninus Pius pulled down. Trajan rebuilt it, and Constantine made further additions to it. At present, but few vestiges of it remain. The circus of Caracalla, in the first district of the city, is in the best preservation. (See *Hippodrome.*)

Circus, Games of the (so called from the circus (q. v.), particularly the *circus maximus*, where they were exhibited). Romulus celebrated similar games in honor of Neptune. Afterwards, by the mutual rivalry of the *ædiles*, their splendor was increased. Under the emperors, they attained the greatest magnificence. The principal games of the circus were the *ludi Romani* or *magni*, called, also, from an epithet of Cybele, *megalenses*, which were celebrated from the 4th to the 14th of September, in honor of the *great gods*, so called. The passion of the people for

these shows appears from the cry with which they addressed their rulers—*Panem et circenses!* (Bread and the games!) A splendid procession, or *pompa*, opened the festival. The images of the *great gods* were carried to the temple of Jupiter, on the Capitoline mount; the procession moved from this temple through the forum, and the street called *Velabrum*, to the *circus maximus*. The chief magistrate led the procession. Before him was carried the image of the winged goddess of Fortune (*Fortuna alata*). Then came the images of Jupiter, Juno, Minerva, Neptune, Ceres, Apollo, Diana; after the death of Julius Cæsar, his image was introduced, and in later times, perhaps, those of the deified emperors also. These images were in splendid covered chariots, drawn by horses or mules, stags, camels, elephants, also sometimes by lions, panthers or tigers. After the pompous procession of gods followed rows of boys, who had lost either father or mother, and who led the horses to be used in the races. After these followed the sons of the patricians, from 15 to 16 years of age, armed, part on horseback, part on foot. After these came the magistrates of the city and the senate. The sons of knights, on horseback and on foot, brought up the rear. Then followed the chariots and horses destined for the races, and the different *athletæ*, as pugilists, wrestlers, runners, all naked, except a covering about the loins. In this procession were included the dancers, youths and boys, arranged in rows, according to their age. They wore violet-colored garments, with brass belts, and carried swords and short spears. The men wore helmets. Each division was preceded by a man who led the windings of the dance. The musicians followed, including a number of persons dressed like Sileni and Satyrs, who, with large wreaths of flowers in their hands, exhibited various sportive dances, with a company of musicians behind them. To this exhibition of wild, unrestrained joy, succeeded the religious pomp. First came the *Camilli*,—boys whom the priest employed in the sacrifices,—then the servants who took part in it; after these the *haruspices*, with their knives, and the butchers, who led the victims to the altar; the different orders of priests, with their servants; first, the high priest (*pontifex maximus*), and the other *pontifices*; then the *flamines*, then the augurs, the *quindecimviri* with the Sybilline books, the vestal virgins, then the remaining inferior orders of priests, according to their rank. The images of the gods brought up the rear; sometimes, also, a pompous show of treasures, the spoils of war. In the circus, the procession went round once in a circle, and the sacrifices were then performed. The spectators took their places, the music struck up, and the games commenced. These were, 1. Races with horses and chariots. These were so honorable, that men of the highest rank engaged in them. The whole race, in which the competitors were divided into 4 parties, consisted of 24 courses, and each course of 7 circuits, making about seven miles. Each party performed six courses, three in the forenoon and three in the afternoon. The chariots were very light, and commonly had two or four horses (abreast) attached to them. 2. The gymnastic contests. 3. The Trojan games, prize contests on horseback, which Æneas was said to have first instituted, and Julius Cæsar revived. 4. The combats with wild beasts, in which beasts fought with beasts or with men (criminals or volunteers). The expense of these games was often immense. Pompey, in his second consulship, brought forward 500 lions at one combat of wild beasts, which, with 18 elephants, were slain in five days. 5. Representations of naval engagements (*naumachiæ*), for which purpose the circus could be laid under water.

Cisalpine Republic. After the battle of Lodi (May 10, 1796), Bonaparte, on the 20th of May, proclaimed the freedom of Lombardy, and formed of it the Transpadane republic; at the same time, Bologna and Ferrara were erected into the Cispadane republic, to which Modena and Reggio were soon after added. February 19, 1797, by the peace of Tolentino, the pope ceded Bologna and Ferrara, together with Romagna, and the province of Mesola, to the French; the latter were also added to the Cispadane republic. This republic received its constitution March 17, 1797, and was united with the Transpadane, under the name of the *Cisalpine republic*. By this name the emperor of Germany recognised it as an independent power, at the peace of Campo-Formio (Oct. 17). It comprised Austrian Lombardy, together with the Mantuan and the Venetian provinces, Bergamo, Brescia, Crema, Verona and Rovigo, the duchy of Modena, the principality of Massa and Carrara, and the three ecclesiastical delegations—Bologna, Ferrara with Mesola, and Romagna. Oct. 22, in the same year, the Valteline or Veltlin, Worms and Cleves, belonging to the Grisons, were added; so that the new republic, which was divided into 10 depart-

ments, comprised 16,337 square miles and 3½ millions of inhabitants. The legislative body, composed of a council of 80 elders, together with another council of 160 members, and the directory (*directorium*), held their sessions in Milan. The army (French troops in the pay of the republic) amounted to 20,000 men. In March, 1798, it was more closely connected with France by a defensive and offensive alliance, and a commercial treaty. On the renewal of the war between Austria and France, in March, 1799, it was disunited, for a short time, by the successes of the Austrians and Russians, but soon restored by Bonaparte's victory at Marengo (June 14, 1800). The republic then received a deliberative body (*consulta*) of 50, and an executive council (*governo*) of 9 members. On the 6th of September, it was enlarged by the addition of the Novarese and Tortonese, and, at the peace of Lunéville (Feb. 9, 1801), was again acknowledged by Austria. Jan. 25, 1802, it received the name of the *Italian republic*, and elected Bonaparte president, and Francis Melzi d'Erile vice-president. It was then divided into 13 departments; but, in 1805 (March 17), a deputation of the Italian republic conferred on the French emperor the dignity of *king of Italy* (see *Italy*), after which Napoleon was styled *empereur des Français et roi d'Italie.*

Cispadane Republic. (See *Cisalpine Republic.*)

Cisplatana, with Monte-Video. (See *Paraguay*, and *Plata, Republic of.*)

Cisrhenish Republic. Several towns on the Rhine, particularly Cologne, Aix-la-Chapelle and Bonn, at the time when so many republics were created, declared themselves independent, under French protection, and took the title of *Cisrhenish republic*, in September, 1797. But at the peace of Campo-Formio (Oct. 17, 1797), the left bank of the Rhine, including the Cisrhenish republic, was ceded to France, by a secret article, and the confederation bearing this name is, in consequence, hardly known.

Cistercians; a religious order, which takes its name from its original convent, *Citeaux*, not far from Dijon, where the society was formed, in 1099. Through the exertions of St. Bernard de Clairvaux (q. v.), it had increased so much, 100 years after its origin, as to embrace 800 rich abbeys, in different countries of Europe. The Cistercians dedicated themselves to a contemplative life. Their rule was severe. They succeeded in freeing themselves from the superintendence of the bishops, and formed a kind of spiritual republic. A high council, consisting of the abbot of Citeaux as superior, the abbots of Clairvaux, La Ferte, Pontigni and Morimond, all in France, and 20 other *definitores*, governed the body, under the immediate superintendence of the pope. In France, they called themselves *Bernardines*, in honor of St. Bernard. Among the fraternities emanating from them, the most remarkable are, the Barefooted monks, or Feuillans (q. v.), and the nuns of Portroyal (q. v.), in France, the Recollets, reformed Cistercians, in Spain, and the monks of La Trappe (see *Trappists*). Riches and indolence brought on the decline of this order. Many of their convents ceased to exist before the reformation, still more afterwards, partly by gradual decay, partly by falling into other hands. The general fate of the religious orders, during the period of the French revolution, reduced the Cistercians to a few convents in Spain, Poland, the Austrian dominions, and the Saxon part of Upper Lusatia. They wear white robes, with black scapularies.

Citadel, or Cittadel (a diminutive of the Italian *città*, city; signifying *little city*), in fortification; a kind of fort, consisting of four, five or six sides, with bastions, commonly joined to towns, and sometimes erected on commanding eminences within them. It is distinguished from a castle by having bastions.

Citric Acid (*acidum citricum*) exists, in variable proportions, in the lemon, orange, and the red acid fruits. This acid is white, crystallizes in rhomboidal prisms, unalterable in the air, inodorous, of a very acid taste. Specific gravity, 1.034. According to Messrs. Gay-Lussac and Thénard, it is composed of carbon, 33.81, oxygen, 59.859, and hydrogen, 6.330. Heated, it is decomposed, and is partly changed into a new acid, called *pyro-citric*. It is very soluble in boiling water, and in three-fourths of its weight of cold water. Alcohol dissolves a smaller proportion. The aqueous solution, concentrated in a small degree, is easily altered on exposure to the air. It is obtained by saturating the lemon juice with pulverized chalk, and treating the insoluble citrate which is formed, by diluted sulphuric acid. It is employed instead of lemon juice for making lemonade, and it acts then like the other refrigerant medicines. In large doses, and concentrated, it might produce serious accidents, on account of its caustic action.

Citron. The citron, lime and lemon

are different varieties of the fruit of a small evergreen shrub, the original or parent stock of which (*citrus medica*) was imported from Asia into the southern parts of Europe. The citron is oblong, with a very thick rind; the lemon is oblong, with a small lump or protuberance at the end; and the lime has no protuberance, has a very thin rind, and is about the size of a small egg. These are the principal marks of difference betwixt these fruits, but they are not quite constant. The lemon shrub has large and slightly-indented shining leaves, of somewhat oval shape, but pointed, and on the footstalks of the leaves there is no remarkable appendage. The flowers are large and white, but purplish on the outside of the petals.—It is generally supposed that the citron-tree was first introduced from Assyria and Media into Greece, and thence into the southern parts of Europe, where it is now cultivated to considerable extent. It is also raised in the islands of the West Indies. The fruit, partaking of the same quality as the lemon, with the exception of being somewhat less acid, is seldom eaten raw, but, preserved in sugar, as a sweetmeat, is much used by confectioners and others. It is also occasionally employed in medicine. The lemon is a native of Upper Asia, from whence, like the citron, it was brought into Greece, and afterwards transplanted into Italy. The juice, which is one of the sharpest and most agreeable of all acids, is used in cookery, confectionary, medicine, and various other ways. By calico-printers, it is very extensively employed, as a discharger of color, to produce, with more clearness and effect, the white-figured part of colored patterns dyed with colors formed from iron. The juice is procured by simply squeezing the fruit, and straining it through linen or any loose filter; and in Sicily and other parts of the Mediterranean, it forms an important article of commerce. Being one of the most valuable remedies for the scurvy with which we are acquainted, it generally constitutes part of the sea-stores of ships that are destined for long voyages. Several different modes have been recommended for the preserving of lemon-juice. One of these is, to put it into bottles with a small quantity of oil, which, floating on the surface, prevents the immediate contact of the air, and retards the decomposition of the acid, though the original fresh taste soon gives place to one which is less grateful. In the East Indies, lemon-juice is sometimes evaporated, by a gentle heat, to the consistence of a thick extract. Sometimes it is crystallized into a white and acid salt; but what is sold in the shops under the name of *essential salt of lemons*, for taking out ink-stains and iron-mould-spots from linen, is only a preparation from the juice of sorel. The external part of the rind has a grateful aromatic and bitter taste, which renders it useful in cookery. When dried, it is considered a good stomachic, promotes the appetite, and is otherwise serviceable as a medicine. It is often candied and made into a sweetmeat, under the name of *lemon chips*. In distillation, it yields a light and almost colorless oil, which, in smell, is nearly as agreeable as the fresh peel, and is frequently employed as a perfume. Lemons are sometimes preserved in sirup. Small ones, with thick rinds, are converted into a grateful pickle. Marmalade and sirup are also made of them. For the purpose of keeping the fruit, it is recommended that a fine pack-thread, about a quarter of a yard long, should be run through the protuberance at the end of the lemon. The ends of the string are to be tied together, and suspended on a hook, in an airy situation, in such a manner that the lemon may hang perfectly free and detached.—The cultivation of the lime is much attended to in several parts of America and the West Indies. Its juice affords a more grateful acid than that of the lemon.

Città, in geography; the Italian word for *city*, which is used in many proper names of cities, as *Città Castellana*, *Città Ducale*, *Città Nuova*, &c.

City, in history. Mankind have been twice indebted for civilization and liberty to cities. With them civilization and political institutions began, and in them were developed the principles of democracy or of equal rights in the middle ages. The origin of cities belongs to the earliest period of history. According to Moses, Nimrod built three, among which Babylon was the most important. The Jews believe, though without foundation, that Shem erected the first city after the deluge. At the commencement of society, the form of government was patriarchal. The ruler was the head of the family or clan. Relationship, the innate wish of men to live in society, and, more, perhaps, than both these causes, the necessity of providing means of defence against more powerful clans, brought together separate families into one spot. The fertility of the East, also, was an inducement to men to give up the rambling life of nomades,

and to form permanent settlements. These settlers began to barter with those tribes who continued to wander with their herds from place to place. Thus cities sprung up. These were soon surrounded with walls, to prevent the inroads of the wandering tribes. The bond of connexion between their inhabitants thus became closer, and their organization more complete. As by degrees the chiefs of these family-states died away, the citizens began to elect the most able or most popular men for magistrates, without respect to birth or descent. Thus political institutions began to assume a systematic character. The earliest form of government succeeding the patriarchal state was probably monarchical. In this, the religious, paternal and political authority remained rudely mingled. The authority of the king was weak, his connexion with the different parts of his dominions imperfect, and the progress of civilization was promoted almost solely by the growth of the cities. These gave rise to the division of labor, the refinements of social intercourse, the developement of laws caused by the conflicting interests of many people living close together, the idea of equality of rights, the diminution of awe for a distant monarch, the growth of patriotism, springing from the sense of advantages enjoyed, and the exertions necessary to maintain them. These were the salutary consequences of the establishment of cities. Under the mild sky of Asia, Africa, Greece and Italy, cities were built first, and in the greatest number. The Phœnicians and Egyptians particularly distinguished themselves by the erection of cities, which soon attained a high degree of wealth, and consequently of civilization. The Egyptians considered their city Diospolis (Thebes) older than any of the Greek cities, and Pliny says that Cecropia (erected in Attica by Cecrops, 1582 B. C., and afterwards called *Athens*) was the oldest city of Greece. Heeren justly remarks, that the rise of cities was the most important source of the republicanism of antiquity. This is particularly true of Greece. In fact, cities are, by their very nature, of a republican tendency. Several confederations of cities existed in the ancient world; for instance, the Phœnician, consisting of the cities of Tyre, Sidon, &c., and the Achæan league, formed by the most important cities of Greece, in order to strengthen themselves against the power of Macedon. Under Augustus and his successors, the Romans began to establish colonial cities in Germany, having done the same long before in Gaul, Spain, Africa, &c. In Switzerland, they first erected cities about A. D. 70, which, however, were mostly laid waste by the Alemanni, and subsequently rebuilt under the government of the Franks (A. D. 496). The Germans, accustomed to a wild, rambling life, did not show any disposition to live in cities, until Charlemagne labored to collect them together in settled abodes, from his desire to civilize them. Henry I distinguished himself particularly in this way, and, on this account, has been called, by some, *Henry the City-builder* (*der Städteerbauer*). He gave the cities great privileges, in order to induce his subjects to live in them, and thus laid the foundation of that power, which, at a future period, contributed most to break down the feudal system. In many cities, imperial castles were erected to protect the inhabitants, and the insupportable oppressions and even cruelties exercised by the feudal lords upon their peasants, or by the wandering knights and robbers, drove many people into the cities. The attacks of the neighboring lords gave firmness to their union, and compelled them to cultivate their resources. Commerce and the various arts and trades were soon cultivated within their walls, and their wealth and respectability increased. They soon became sensible of the want of a better system of laws and political administration than prevailed around them, and the principle of equal rights and laws was quickly developed.

One of the most important remnants, if not the most important, of the great fabric of ancient civilization, was the cities of Italy. What the world would have become without them is not to be calculated. In spite of their bloody contests with each other, and the vices to which these gave rise, they must be considered as having lighted the torch of modern civilization. It was not the monarchies, it was not the courts of the great princes, it was the cities of Northern Italy, which opened the way for the progress of improvement; and the petty princes of Italy caught from them the spirit which prompted their efforts to promote it. Under the reign of Conrad III (1138—52), the cities of Lombardy, and particularly Milan, which stood at their head, had acquired a high degree of wealth and power, and had formed themselves into a confederation. The struggles between the emperors and these cities form one of the most important portions of the history of the German empire and of Italy. Frederic I in vain

demolished the powerful city of Milan. It was soon rebuilt, and the cities of Lombardy, in alliance with the pope, obliged the emperor to conclude with them a very disadvantageous peace at Constance. Two other confederations of cities, highly important, were formed during the *interregnum* of the German empire, between 1256 and 1272. One of them was the powerful Hansa, or Hanseatic league (q. v.); the other, the confederacy of the High German and Rhenish cities, from the foot of the Alps to the mouth of the Mayne, established by Walpode of Mentz, in 1255. A similar confederacy, and a very important one, was that of the Suabian cities, instituted in 1488, to repel the outrages of the feudal lords and knights. By degrees, the cities acquired, in the different countries of Europe, the right of representation in the legislative bodies; and wealth, industry, knowledge and equal laws, spread from them through Europe. But the cities of Lombardy, though still flourishing and wealthy, had fallen, for the most part, under the rule of single families; their republican governments vanished, and their confederation was dissolved. The associations of German cities experienced a similar fate. By the peace of Westphalia, the princes of the German empire were declared sovereign powers, and the more their authority increased, the more did the relative weight of the cities diminish. These had formerly suffered from the oppressions of the feudal lords. They were now the victims of the policy of the neighboring princes, whom envy often led to adopt the most unwarrantable measures against the cities, many of which had lost their independence before Napoleon dissolved the German empire. He took away the privileges of those which remained free; and the congress of Vienna restored freedom to Lübeck, Hamburg, Bremen and Frankfort only because the different powers could not agree to whom they should be assigned. At the same time, Cracow (q. v.) was declared an independent city, with a republican form of government. (For further information, see the articles *Germany* and *Italy*.) The following works contain much information on the rise and progress of cities:—Fr. Kortüm's History of the Origin of the Leagues of the Free Cities in the Middle Ages and in Modern Times (in German), Zürich, 1829; Eichhorn On the Origin of the Cities in Germany, in his periodical *Zeitschrift für geschichtliche Rechtswissenschaft*, vol. i, page 147 et seq. Von Savigny, Schott, and others, have written on this interesting subject.

Cities, considered in regard to politics. Cities, as we have already said, naturally develope the democratic principle, and, on this and several other accounts, are to be considered among the firmest supports of liberty. Well-organized municipal institutions, in which the government is in the hands of the citizens, afford continual nourishment to the spirit of freedom throughout a country, and, in fact, are more important, in this point of view, than the mere possession of legislative privileges. Wise nations, therefore, have bestowed the greatest attention on the establishment of free, well-organized municipalities, while others have neglected this, in their zeal to secure the right of representation to the people at large. The importance of cities, in this respect, makes it very difficult, in a constitutional monarchy, to combine the necessary liberty of municipalities with the prerogatives of the monarchs. In France, this has been a point of contest and legislation ever since the establishment of the charter.

Medical Statistics of Cities. [The following account of the comparative mortality in large European cities is given in the October number of the Medico-Chirurgical Review, London, 1829.] It is well known, that, in any given country, the deaths in a city are more numerous than those in the rural districts. This difference is principally felt in the first 5 years of life, when many more die in London than in the country. From 5 years of age to 20, the deaths in London are fewer. Between 20 and 50, many more die in London, on account of the large annual influx from the country. In all cities, a large portion of disease and death is to be assigned to the constant importation from the country of individuals who have attained to maturity, but, having been previously habituated to frequent exercise in a pure atmosphere, and to a simple, regular diet, are gradually sacrificed to confined air, sedentary habits, or a capricious and over-stimulating diet. These causes are not equally fatal to those who have passed their early years within the walls of a city; and, after the age of 50, the proportion of deaths in London is smaller than in the country. Jenner, and, very recently, doctor Baron, have made some curious experiments on animals, which indicate that a loss of their open range and natural nourishment has, with them also, a tendency to disorganize and to destroy. Doctor Baron placed a family

of young rabbits in a confined situation, and fed them with coarse green food, such as cabbage and grass. They were perfectly healthy when put up. In about a month, one of them died. The primary step of disorganization was evinced in a number of transparent vesicles, studded over the external surface of its liver. In another, which died 9 days after, the disease had advanced to the formation of tubercles on the liver. The liver of a third, which died 4 days later still, had nearly lost its true structure, so universally was it pervaded with tubercles. Two days subsequently, a fourth died. A considerable number of hydatids were attached to the lower surface of the liver. At this time, doctor Baron removed three young rabbits from the place where their companions had died to another situation, dry and clean, and to their proper and accustomed food. The lives of these remaining three were obviously saved by this change. He obtained similar results from experiments of the same nature performed on other animals.—In *Glasgow*, the average annual mortality is about 1 in 44 persons.—In *Paris*, the poor and the rich occupy the two extremities of the scale. The mortality in the one is nearly double that in the other. The average is 1 in 32. The number of violent deaths, in 1823, was 690, of which 390 were cases of suicide. Reviewing, on one side, the great political, moral and physical events which have occurred at Paris during a succession of years, and, on the other, the progress of its population, Villerme has ascertained, that whenever the people have suffered from any cause, the deaths have correspondingly increased, the births have decreased, and the mean duration of life has been shortened. In periods of prosperity, he has found results directly opposite to these. The mean duration of life in Paris is 32 years and some months. It was formerly estimated that one third of the inhabitants of Paris died in the hospitals; but Dupin has lately calculated that half the deaths in Paris take place in the hospitals and other asylums of charity. Not a fourth part of the inhabitants are buried at private cost.—In *Geneva*, the average mortality for the four years ending in 1823 was 1 in 43, which is a greater mortality than in some of the largest manufacturing towns, as Glasgow, Manchester and Birmingham.—*Petersburg*. It is curious that the burials exceed the births in the Russian capital, by 134 to 100. The Russians attempt to explain this by the annual influx of persons from the provinces. But this influx is not peculiar to St. Petersburg. The last-mentioned city and Stockholm are the only known metropolitan cities which present the preponderance of death over production. The annual mortality of the Russian capital is 1 in 37.—*Berlin*. From 1747 to 1755, the annual mortality of Berlin was 1 in 28. Between 1726 and 1799, it improved to 1 in $29\frac{1}{11}$. Here the beneficial change was retarded by the ravages, the losses, the disappointments of war, and, from 1802 to 1806, it had retrograded to 1 in 27; but from 1816 to 1822, a period of exultation and tranquillity to the Prussians, the value of life took a remarkable leap, and the annual deaths fell to less than 1 in 34.—*Vienna*. In the middle of the last century, the mortality of Vienna was 1 in 20, and it has not improved in proportion as other cities of Europe. According to the most recent calculations, it is, even now, as 1 in $22\frac{1}{2}$. Among 10,530 deaths, scarcely 38 persons are found to have attained the age of 90. The spirit of excessive regulation, the dread of novelty, the restrictions imposed on the medical profession, and political causes which need not be enumerated, appear to have retarded the natural progress of this city. The overweening paternity of the government interferes with the trivial concerns of the citizens, in the same manner in which an arbitrary and untaught father sometimes restrains the useful impulses of his children, while he permits an easy vent to their baser propensities.—*Prague*, the capital of Bohemia, has only one third the population of Vienna, and is much healthier. The superior longevity of the Jews is strongly marked in this city. One death is annually observed among 26 of the Israelites, and 1 in $22\frac{1}{2}$ among the Christians. Instances of considerable longevity, especially among the women, are not rare. Contrary to the usual observation, longevity is confined to poverty and married life. According to an average of several years, no nobleman, no wealthy person, no bachelor, and no unmarried woman, has passed the age of 95. This is an interesting fact, but it is an extreme and an insulated one, and does not militate against the general conservative tendency of prosperity, which a variety of evidence seems to establish.—*Palermo*. Mortality is here 1 in 31. January, October and November are the most fatal months; April, May and June the most healthy.—*Leghorn*. The average annual mortality here is 1 in 35. Among the

Protestants and Jews, it is only 1 in 48, which is attributed to their greater affluence.—*Rome.* From a recently discovered fragment of Cicero (*De Republica*), an intimation is conveyed that the neighborhood of Rome has been always unhealthy. Speaking of the choice of situation made by Romulus, he observes—*locum delegit in regione pestilente salubrem.* The population appears to have been gradually decreasing till the last peace, which has greatly revived it. In 1800, there were 150,000 souls; in 1810, only 123,000. Within a few years, it has gained 10,000. The annual mortality is about 1 in 25. There can be little doubt that the force of the aguish disposition of Rome might be considerably weakened by steady and well-directed efforts, supported by a proportionate capital; but it is to be feared that such a combination of circumstances will not readily meet at Rome. In 1816, 17 out of the 22 French students were attacked with intermittent fevers. The Villa Medici, in which they reside, was formerly healthy; but water, brought at a great expense to embellish the garden, had been suffered to stagnate there.—*Naples.* The annual mortality here is 1 in 23; a fact that one would not have expected in such a delightful situation, compared with pestilential Rome, where the mortality is less. The population of Naples is nearly three times that of the ancient mistress of the world.—*Brussels.* The average mortality is very great, being 1 in 26.—*Amsterdam.* The population of this once great city is decreased, in consequence of declining commerce and political changes. And it is not a little curious, as well as melancholy, to observe that its mortality has increased with the progress of decay. In 1777, the ratio of mortality was 1 in 27—a period when Amsterdam was one of the healthiest as well as one of the most flourishing cities of Europe. The deaths have now increased to 1 in 24, and Amsterdam is one of the least healthy as well as least prosperous seaports of Europe. A decree has been issued, that after the 1st of January, 1829, no burials shall be permitted in towns or churches throughout North Holland.—*Stockholm.* Drunkenness appears here, as at Berlin, to produce a large share of the mortality. In a recent year, this city exhibited a singular instance of an excess of 1439 more deaths than births—a symptom which it is painful to observe in a brave and industrious people. This disproportion existed particularly amongst the garrison, and is ascribed to the immoderate use of brandy. Our authority affirms that this vice destroys the happiness and prosperity of Sweden more effectually than any war has ever done.

The medical police of large cities deserves particular attention, because the health of multitudes depends upon the care which is taken by the magistrates to remove the causes of disease which originate in a great population. Knowledge of this branch of medical science can be obtained only by attentive observation, and the study of the different health-regulations of large cities under governments which have paid particular attention to it.

Cities, in geography. A late German publication gives a statement of the hundred most populous cities in the world. Among these are

	Inhab.
Jeddo, in Japan,	1,680,000
Pekin,	1,500,000
London,	1,300,000
Hang-tcheou,	1,100,000
Calcutta,	900,000
Madras,	817,000
Nankin,	800,000
Canton,	800,000
Paris,	717,000
Vou-tchang,	600,000
Constantinople,	597,000
Benares,	530,000
Kio,	520,000
Sou-tcheou,	500,000
Hoang-tcheou,	500,000

The 40th in the list is Berlin, with 193,000 inhabitants, and the last Bristol, with 87,000. Of the hundred cities, 2 contain 1,500,000; 2 upwards of 1,000,000; 9 from 500,000 to 1,000,000; 23 from 200,000 to 500,000; 56 from 100,000 to 200,000; and 6 from 87,000 to 100,000. 58 are in Asia, and 32 in Europe; of which 4 are in Germany, 4 in France, 5 in Italy, 8 in England, and 3 in Spain. The remaining 10 are divided between Africa and America.

Cities, in a moral point of view. Much has been said, written and preached against the immorality of large cities, and the fact cannot be denied; but immorality is not confined to them. The petty vices of small places, though less glaring, are, perhaps, equally injurious; making up in constant repetition for their comparatively less degree of noxiousness. It is much more difficult, moreover, to preserve one of the most important possessions, independence of character, in a small place than in a large one. The cry against the immorality of large cities

should not make us forget the many great and admirable things which mankind have been enabled to perform by means of the collected strength of talents and resources combined in large cities, and their influence in forming the character of great men, who could not have acquired, elsewhere, their variety of accomplishment, and the well-proportioned cultivation of their various faculties. At the same time, we must allow that it is a very injurious policy to strip a whole country of all which illustrates and ennobles it, in order to swell the treasures of the capital. (See *Capital.*)

Ciudad, and Cividad, in geography, the Spanish word for *city*, from the Latin *civitas*, appears in many names of Spanish places; as, *Ciudad-de-las-Palmas*, or *Palmas* (capital of the island of Grand Canary), *Cividad-Real*, &c.

Ciudad-Rodrigo (anciently, *Lancia*, or *Mirobriga*); a fortress in Spain, in Leon, on the river Aguada; 45 miles S. S. W. Salamanca; lon. 6° 33′ W.; lat. 40° 25′ N.: population, 11,000. It is a bishop's see. It was built by Ferdinand II, as a rampart against Portugal, from which it is only about eight miles distant. The fort, containing 6000 men, was surrendered to the French under Masséna, July 10, 1810, having been bombarded 25 days; and, Jan. 19, 1812, it was taken by storm by the British, under lord Wellington, after a siege of 11 days. The cortes gave Wellington the title of *duke of Ciudad-Rodrigo*, and the rank of a grandee of Spain, of the first class.

Civet (*viverra*, Lin.); a genus of carnivorous mammiferous quadrupeds, natives of the torrid regions of the ancient continent, particularly distinguished by having a secretory apparatus, which forms a powerfully odorous matter, known by the name of *civet*. In general appearance, the species of this genus remind one of the fox, which they also resemble in habits; but the tail is long, hairy and cylindrical, and the claws, though by no means so acute as those of the cat, are still partially retractile, or cat-like. The resemblance of the *viverra* to the feline race is increased by the pupils of the eyes, which contract in a straight line, and by the color of the skin, which most species have banded or spotted with black upon a deep yellow or dun-colored ground. The tongue is studded with stout, horny prickles, and the ears are of middling size, straight, and rounded at their tips. The pouch, situated near the genitals, is a deep bag, sometimes divided into two cavities, whence a thick, oily, and strongly musk-like fluid is poured out. They are nocturnal, and prey upon birds and small animals, and may be considered as forming the transition from the musteline or marten kind to the feline race. The genus has been divided into two sub-genera by naturalists, the first comprising the true *civets*, those having the pouch large and well marked; the second including the *genets*, in which there is a simple depression, instead of a pouch. Two species of the first, and eight of the second, are at present known. Their individual peculiarities may be seen in Desmarest's Mammalogy, p. 205. The odoriferous substance which these animals yield, called, from them, *civet*, when good, is of a clear yellowish or brown color, and of about the consistence of butter: when undiluted, the smell is powerful and very offensive, but, when largely diluted with oil or other materials, it becomes an agreeable perfume. At a time when perfumes were more fashionable than they are at present, civet was very highly esteemed, being, by many, even preferred to musk. Young civet cats were purchased by the drug dealers of Holland, England, &c., as we are informed by Lemery, and brought up tame for the sake of the civet, "so that a cat which is large and gentle may come to be valued at between four and eight pounds sterling." M. Pomet, in his history of drugs, relates that he was presented by a friend with a civet-cat, obtained in China in 1683. "Having kept this creature some days, I perceived that the walls and bars that enclosed it were covered with unctuous moisture, thick, and very brown, of a very strong and disagreeable smell, so that, during all the time I kept this animal, I took care to gather the civet out of the pouch every other day, not without some trouble and hazard, because it put the creature to some pain or apprehension of it; and, having done so for months, I had about the quantity of an ounce and a half; but it is certain, that, if the necessary care had been taken, and the beast could be hindered from rubbing itself, I might have got a great deal more." The medical virtues once attributed to the civet were numerous and various; but, in course of time, it has been entirely laid aside, even as a perfume; so that, at this time, the words of the dramatist, "Give me an ounce of civet, good apothecary, to sweeten my imagination," might be frequently repeated, even in our large cities, with slight probability of obtaining the article.

Civic Crown; among the Romans, the highest military reward, assigned to him who had preserved the life of a citizen. It bore the inscription *Ob civem servatum*,

and was made of oak leaves. He who was rescued offered it, at the command of his leader, to his preserver, whom he was bound to honor afterwards as a father. Under the emperors, it was bestowed only by them. Various marks of honor were also connected with it. The person who received the crown wore it in the theatre, and sat next the senators. When he came in, all the assembly rose up, as a mark of respect. The senate granted to Augustus, as a particular mark of honor, that a civic crown should be placed on the pediment of his house, between two wreaths of laurel, as a sign that he was the constant preserver of his fellow-citizens and the conqueror of his enemies. Similar honors were also granted to Claudius.

Civil Law.—I. The Romans understood by this term nearly the same as, in modern times, is implied by the phrase *positive law*, that is, the rules of right established by any government. They contradistinguished it from natural law (*jus naturale*), by which they meant a certain natural order, followed by all living beings (animals even not excepted), also from the general laws of mankind, established by the agreement of all nations and governments (*jus gentium*). In this sense, therefore, it embraced the whole system of Roman law, both the private law (*jus privatum*), which relates to the various legal relations of the different members of the state, the citizens, and the public law (*jus publicum*), that is, the rules respecting the limits, rights, obligations, &c., of the public authorities.—II. As, however, the laws of any state, particularly such a one as Rome, can rest only in part on positive and special decrees, and must always be developed, in a great measure, by the customs, and religious and philosophical opinions of the nation, and the decisions of the courts, further distinctions soon grew up. The supreme administration of justice in Rome was in the hands of the pretors; and these officers, on account of the paucity of positive enactments, soon acquired the power of supplying their deficiencies. To quote the words of Gibbon—"The art of respecting the name and eluding the efficacy of the laws was improved by successive pretors; and where the end was salutary, the means were frequently absurd. The secret or probable wish of the dead was suffered to prevail over the order of succession and the forms of testaments, and the claimant who was excluded from the character of heir, accepted, with equal pleasure, from an indulgent pretor, the possession of the goods of his late kinsman or benefactor. In the redress of private wrongs, compensations and fines were substituted for the obsolete rigor of the twelve tables, time and space were annihilated by fanciful suppositions, and the plea of youth, or fraud, or violence, annulled the obligation or excused the performance of an inconvenient contract. A jurisdiction thus vague and arbitrary was exposed to the most dangerous abuse. But the errors or vices of each pretor expired with his annual office; and such maxims alone as had been approved by reason and practice were copied by succeeding judges." The pretors made an annual declaration, at the commencement of their term of office, of the principles according to which they intended to administer justice (*edictum prætoris*). This was publicly exposed on a table (*album*), and uniformity was maintained in the series of pretorian edicts by the legal spirit of the nation. Under the emperor Adrian, a new publication of the pretorian edict, unalterable from that time (*edictum perpetuum*), took place, respecting the real extent of which scholars do not agree. The whole body of rules and remedies established by the pretors, whose jurisdiction resembled, in some respects, that of the courts of equity of England and the U. States, was called *jus honorarium*, and was opposed to the strict formal law (*jus civile*). (*See the next paragraph of this article.*)—III. The Roman law, in the shape which it assumed after the whole was digested in the 6th century A. D., under the emperor Justinian, was fully and formally admitted as binding in only a small part of Italy; but both here and in the other ancient portions of the empire, it retained great influence, even after the Teutonic tribes had established new governments in the territories which had been under the dominion of Rome. In the south of France, the collection of imperial decrees and decisions which Theodosius II (A. D. 438) had prepared, remained valid, also, under the Goths. Savigny's History of the Roman Law in the Middle Ages (Heidelberg, 1822 et seq., 4 vols.) exhibits great research into the subject of the continuance and the revival of this law. After the 11th century, Upper Italy, particularly the school of Bologna, became the point where the body of the Roman law, put together by the emperor Justinian, was formed by degrees into a system applicable to the wants of all nations. This system was introduced into almost all the countries of Europe, because the want of a well-di-

gested body of law was seriously felt. After this model the ecclesiastical and papal decrees were arranged, and, to a considerable degree, the native laws of the new Teutonic states. From all these the Roman law was distinguished, under the name of *civil law*. In this respect, therefore, *civil law* means (*ancient*) *Roman law;* it is contradistinguished from *canon law* (q. v.) and *feudal law*, though the feudal codes of the Lombards have been received into the *corpus juris civilis*. (Respecting the present form of the collections of Roman law, see the article *Corpus Juris*).—IV. As the Roman code exerted the greatest influence on the private law of modern Europe, the expression *civil law* is also used to embrace all the rules relating to the private rights of citizens. Under the term *civil law*, therefore, on the continent of Europe, is to be understood, not only the Roman law, but also the modern private law of the various countries; e. g., in Germany, *Das gemeine Deutsche Privatrecht;* in France, the *Code civil des Français*, or *Code Napoléon*. In this sense, it is chiefly opposed to *criminal law*, particularly in reference to the administration of justice, which is to be divided into *civil justice* and *criminal justice*. Having made these few remarks on the name and character of the civil law, we shall now proceed to a more particular account of its history.

The history of the Roman law, embracing its gradual developement, its final completion under the latter emperors, particularly under Justinian, and the great effects which it has exerted even down to the present period in Europe, is a most interesting and important subject. Rome may be said to have thrice conquered the world, namely, by its arms, by its laws, and by the decrees promulgated from the papal chair. The dominion of its laws has been the best founded and the most extensive. The Roman laws may be formally abolished, but their influence can never cease. Their effect is as permanent as that of Grecian art. At the same time, it is not to be denied, that the introduction of the civil law has, in the case of several nations, obstructed the developement of their own peculiar systems of law, and in this respect produced evil consequences; but such is the nature of great agents which are beyond the control of human power. An acquaintance with a more perfect language, a more beautiful style of art, and, we might even say, with a purer religion, has likewise prevented the growth or completion of many institutions and modes of action, which might have borne noble fruits.—In considering the history of the civil law, as, in fact, of any system of law which has sprung from the wants of the people among whom it grew up, we must take into view the public law and political history of the state, and the growth of its civilization. The commencement of the history of Rome offers little that is original. Its institutions were such as existed in all the neighboring states. Greek views predominated throughout. The royal authority fell in Rome, as it had fallen in all the Greek governments, and the division of the nation into a hereditary body of nobles, and a comparatively powerless community of citizens, gave rise to numerous and lasting struggles. The real character of the internal constitution of Rome will afford, even after the ingenious and deep researches of Niebuhr, in his Roman History, ample opportunity for learned investigation. If manly firmness (*virtus*) constituted the *beau ideal* of a genuine Roman, the same quality was the basis of the Roman laws. These laws did not consider the individual principally in his connexion with others, like the ancient German laws, which give a value to the individual chiefly as a member of a family or a community, but, at an early period, treated every one as an independent member of society, the head of a family, free from the restraints of relationship, or membership of corporations. Institutions like those of the Germans, recognising a property common to a family or a corporation, hereditary or entailed, a body of attendants attached to the lord, feudal services, unequal right of inheritance among children, &c., are not to be found in the civil law. The relation between patricians and plebeians, between patrons and clients, was very different from the feudal connexion. The expulsion of the kings was at first of advantage only to the higher classes of citizens (A. U. C. 245), but, only 15 years afterwards (A. U. C. 260), these were obliged to grant to the other citizens the college of the tribunes and the right of holding deliberative assemblies, which opened the way for the great compact of the twelve tables, drawn up by patrician decemvirs (A. U. C. 303, 304), which the ancients considered as establishing equality of rights, though it was not till some years afterwards, that the patricians and plebeians were allowed to conclude valid marriages with each other (*lex Canuleia*, A. U. C. 309); and not till a much later period were plebeians

capable of being elected consuls (A. U. C. 387). An important point of that fundamental law or charter, if we may give it a modern name, was the establishment of such an order of legal procedure, that the poorer class of citizens, and particularly those living without the city, should not, as had been too often the case, suffer from their causes being hurried through the courts. Another important point was the settlement of the legal independence of the individual. Eighty years after the plebeians had been made capable of being elected to the consulship, the senate was obliged to acknowledge the validity of the people's decrees (*plebis-scita*), by the *lex Hortensia* (A. U. C. 468); and, from the first appointment of a *prætor urbanus* (A. U. C. 367), it was customary, as we have already said, for this officer to give public notice, annually, at the beginning of his term of office, of the principles according to which he intended to decide the cases that should fall within his jurisdiction. These edicts of the pretors, in which the same rules, with few exceptions, were uniformly adopted, were a better means of keeping the system of laws in a constant state of developement, than special decrees would have been. By this means, there grew up, besides the positive law (*jus civile*, in the stricter sense of the word), a whole body of acknowledged principles, a common law (*jus honorarium*), which supplied the chasms of the positive ordinances, mitigated their severity, or paved the way for the necessary reforms. Though the ancients, e. g., Cicero, mention the great accumulation of these positive laws, yet their number, at least as far as respected private rights, appears very small, compared with the laws of modern times. It was only as it regarded the regulation of public relations that there existed in the time of the republic such a mass of laws, that Cæsar thought it a meritorious work to bring them into a system. But it ought not to be forgotten, that the necessity which existed at that time, of impressing the whole body of decisions on the memory of the lawyer, made the mass become troublesome much sooner than it would if there had been collections of laws, abridgments, digests, registers, &c. For the purpose of making legislative enactments, there existed in the republic two concurrent authorities—the meeting of the citizens (*plebs*, under the tribunes, *in comitiis tributis*, whose resolutions are called *plebis-scita*), and the senate (whose decrees are called *senatus consulta*). In the beginning, the provinces of the two were so separated, that each one passed decrees only upon its own affairs and relations; but very soon it became necessary to acknowledge mutually a common authority (*lex Hortensia*, A. U. C. 468). However, as long as Rome remained a republic, the interference of the senate in the enactment of laws was comparatively rare. After the great internal convulsions had broken out, the conquerors endeavored to establish their authority more firmly, and to gain the favor of the people, by making important reforms in the laws, particularly those which concerned the punishment of crimes and political offences, the regulation of legal processes, and some abuses in the public administration. This was done by Sylla (*leges Corneliæ*, A. U. C. 673), by Cæsar (A. U. C. 708—710), but much more by Augustus, in whom, from the year of Rome 723, the power of all the branches of government, and the direction of the senate and of the meetings of citizens were united (*leges Juliæ*). To the laws, strictly so called, previously customary (the *leges*, approved by the citizens), and the decrees of the senate, now were added the special ordinances (*constitutiones*) of the emperors, besides which the pretors in Rome and in the provinces still retained the right of contributing, by their edicts, to the developement of the legal system. As soon, however, as the monarchical government became settled, the forms of the republic gradually disappeared. In the reign of Tiberius (A. U. C. 767—790, A. D. 14—37), no *leges* are to be found after the year 777, and, 200 years later, the *senatus consulta*, also, merged entirely in the imperial decrees, constitutions and rescripts. The annual edicts of the pretors, till then customary, were collected under Adrian (A. U. C. 884, A. D. 131), by the jurisconsult Salvius Julianus, into a form which was made unchangeable, called the *edictum perpetuum*. It is worthy of remark, that though, after Augustus, the most absolute despotism had become established in all public relations, and the penal laws had been made mere instruments of despotism, this very time is the most brilliant period of the scientific developement of the civil law. This period begins with Augustus, but the brightest part of it falls under the Antonines (from 23 B. C. until 180 A. D.) and one or two succeeding emperors. The great names of Caius, Papinian, Ulpian, Paulus, belong to this last period. When the political privileges of the citizen had no guarantee but the good dispo-

sition of the emperors, which often proved a very imperfect security, the laws which regulated the relative rights of individuals, and protected them from mutual wrong, were continually approaching perfection. This subject deserves a more thorough investigation than it has yet received. All legal relations were expressed with admirable skill and consistency in distinct definitions, and the whole system was developed from a few principles, which run through the whole, and the distinctness and simplicity of which are proved by the adoption of the Roman law among so many different nations. The process of developement was in so far historical, as it was always connected with an adherence to the old forms, but it was entirely philosophical and rational, as it always strove to find out the real principles of rights and obligations, and to make the formal law dependent upon them. After the age of the Antonines (from 180 A. D.), such a political confusion took place, that the scientific spirit was lost. The judicial system was now continued only by the imperial constitutions, which treated but rarely of private law, while they entered much and often into the subject of public relations. The opinions of the ancient jurisconsults of the better period were regarded almost as legal authorities, and, to remedy the difficulties arising from their different views, it was provided by Valentinian III (426 A. D.), that the majority of opinions should decide. The number of the constitutions became such, that collections of them were made, first by private persons (*codex Gregorianus et Hermogenianus*, about 365 A. D.), then an official one by Theodosius II (*codex Theodosianus*, 438 A. D.), in 16 books, of which the 11 last have been preserved entire; of the 5 first, however, only fragments are extant. The latter have been recently discovered at Turin by Peyron, and at Milan by Clossius. (See *Hermes* (a German periodical), xxv. 314.) There was also an abridgment of this code, made in 506, for the use of the Visigoths (the *breviarium Alaricianum*). Far the greater part of these decrees relates to the public law. (Jac. Godefroi wrote an excellent commentary on this code, which, together with the commentary, was published by Ritter, Leipsic, 1736.) Injurious consequences necessarily resulted from the cessation in the developement of the Roman law after the time of the Antonines. It may be seen, from the expressions of Justinian, into what subtilties, what verbal and formal niceties, the lawyers had fallen in his time—a state of things, in some respects, not unlike the present state of law in England, from similar reasons. The public administration, at least as far as regarded its external form, had been reduced into tolerable order since the time of Diocletian and Constantine. Theodosius II (408—450) had conceived the idea of arranging the immense mass of rules and authorities relating to the private law, but the difficulties, on examination, were considered too great, and no sovereign till Justinian (527—565) had the courage to meet them. He first ordered the imperial constitutions, which still remained in force, to be put into a new collection (*codex Justinianus*, commenced in 527), and decided, in and after the year 530, 50 legal questions, which had been, till then, left doubtful. At the same time, a systematic abridgment of the writings of the jurisconsults was made by 17 commissioners, embracing 50 books of *digests* or *pandects*, and an introduction to the study of jurisprudence was prepared (*institutiones*): both works were published Dec. 30, 533, and invested with legal authority. In the following year, a new collection of imperial decrees (*codex repetitæ prælectionis*), in 12 books, was published, and from that time another series of single decrees (13 edicts and 159 *novellæ constitutiones*), by which the Roman law may be considered as completed, because it was deprived of its capacity of further developement, and left to mankind as a rich but lifeless treasure. The opinions respecting this work of Justinian are very various. If we consider merely the practical utility of his labors, as regards his age and people, it will not be denied, that he conferred a great benefit on his subjects, and the changes themselves, which were made in the existing regulations, proceeded mostly from a sound view of the higher objects of the law. The abolition of antiquated and useless forms, the simplification of legal relations and legal processes, must be acknowledged to have been the principal objects of the changes made; and these changes were executed with judgment. If there are decrees of little value among them, these imperfections are not greater than we find in all ancient and modern codes. Justinian has been particularly blamed by modern jurisconsults for combining into one mass, into a kind of code, all the existing works on law, which were acknowledged as authorities. These critics would prefer to have the writings themselves rather than the ex-

tracts, perhaps, in some cases, perverted from their original meaning. But it is very possible, that, if it had not been for the compilation of Justinian, no part of these writings would have been preserved; and it would seem that a beneficent providence sometimes allows large masses of historical knowledge to perish (as in the case of the Alexandrian collections), in order to compel mankind to revert to the resources of their own minds, and to lead them from knowledge to wisdom. However this may be, the undertaking of Justinian was demanded by the wants of his age; and it was better to satisfy such a demand, even at the expense of some imperfections, than to delay the necessary work under the pretext of educating competent men for the task, and making thorough inquiries; and all must admit the fruit of the labor to have been a treasure of legal wisdom for posterity. Our limits will not allow us to mention here the different editions, abridgments and translations of the work prepared for the Greek provinces (the Western provinces were soon lost forever). One Greek edition, of a much later date, was ordered by L. Basilius Macedo (867—886), and executed under his successor, Leo the Philosopher (886—912). This was called *libri Basilicorum*. Of the 60 books of which it consisted, we possess only a part; though, indeed, the greater part, published by C. Hann. Fabrot (Paris, 1647, 7 vols. fol.), and 4 books, which did not appear in this edition, were published by Reitz, in Meermann's *Thesaurus Jur.*, vol. v. p. 1.

Thus the Roman law is one original and independent whole, embracing a period of 1300 years to the time of Justinian, and of 1850 years to that of the Basilica. It stands, in this respect, unique in history. Perhaps China, if, at some future period, we learn more of its history, may afford some institution of similar duration. Even the downfall of the Roman empire has not destroyed the Roman law, but, in some respects, has enlarged its dominion. It was in force, before the modern governments were established, throughout the Roman empire in Europe, and when the Goths, Franks, Lombards, Burgundians, and other Teutonic tribes, erected new empires, not only a large part of the public law of Rome was incorporated into the new constitutions, but the private law, also, continued to be acknowledged as valid among the old inhabitants. The new rulers took care that, besides their different ordinances for the weal of the Germanic tribes, abridgments and modifications of the Roman law should be made, sometimes, it is true, rude and barbarous enough. Among these were the *breviarium Alaricianum* of the Visigoths, 506; the *lex Romana* of the Burgundians, or *Papiani Responsa*, between 517 and 534. For the Lombards, a *rifacciamento* of the Roman law was prepared in the 8th and 9th centuries, and thus, in the south of France and Italy, this law continued in authority uninterruptedly, as far as it was adapted to the new state of things. But this authority, of course, diminished in proportion as new forms of family relations and social connexions and new species and tenures of property sprang up, particularly under the feudal system, and in proportion as the internal disturbances in the different states unsettled the idea of law in general. But this idea was awakened again after the states had gained a degree of stability. People began to perceive that there was a nobler and firmer basis of right than mere power; national union gained consistency and true value by means of commerce and industry; the lower classes demanded the extension of their privileges; the increasing activity produced more solid distinctions than those of birth; the insufficiency of the old laws began to be felt, and the blessings of a scientific cultivation began to be diffused, borrowed, in a considerable degree, from the Arabians in Spain. In this state of things, men rose, in Upper Italy, in the 11th century, who freed the law-books of Justinian from the obscurity in which they had been buried till then, and by these means gave a new impulse to the science of law. Irnerius, towards the end of the 11th and in the 12th century, is mentioned as the first of them. All the nations on the European continent seized eagerly upon the treasure offered to them, after the model of which were now digested the papal decrees, the feudal law, and, at a later period, the Germanic laws. Thousands of scholars, from all parts of Europe, went to Bologna and other cities of Italy, to study law there. It was generally supposed, at first, that the Roman law was applicable to the whole of Christendom; but it was soon found out that there existed whole systems of laws and legal relations, with which the rules of the civil law would not harmonize; and the peculiarities in the organization of the tribunals of different countries were long an obstacle to the formal adoption of the civil law. This adoption, therefore, did not take place in the various countries at the same time,

nor to the same extent. In Italy and the south of France, it was introduced first and most completely; at a later period, and to a less degree, in the north of France (in the *pays de droit coutumier*), where it has never, in fact, been acknowledged as binding, but only as an authority in regard to general principles of natural law (*raison écrite*), and still retains this degree of influence, notwithstanding the establishment of the *Code civil*. In England, it never has been received in the ordinary civil courts (it is, to some extent, in Scotland), but the spiritual courts have always been guided by it. It is therefore in force in such cases as fall under the jurisdiction of these courts; e. g., such as relate to last wills. It is also in force in the admiralty courts, but in both with many modifications. In Germany, the idea that the emperors were the successors of the Roman sovereigns contributed much to obtain legal authority for the Roman law in that country; and this has been confirmed by several laws of the empire and of the different states composing it. But the native laws have every where prior authority, and the Roman law can only be applied in cases where these make no provision; but all those of its rules which relate to institutions confined to Rome have no force. It is not allowed, moreover, to be applied to cases growing out of modern institutions, such as fiefs, primogeniture, bills of exchange, nor in questions belonging to the public law. Many cases, therefore, can happen, in which there may be much doubt whether the Roman law is applicable or not. Prussia and Austria have codes; but in other German states, as in Saxony, there is a great confusion between the Roman and the native law. We have already observed that the effects of the Roman law never would cease, and its influence is perceivable in all the modern codes. We would not be understood as intimating an opinion that the Roman law supersedes the necessity of forming new codes. These are desirable in many nations, on many accounts, and, among others, because the Justinian code itself is not without obscurities, and the language in which it is written renders it inaccessible to the bulk of the people of every modern state; but the welfare of a citizen depends, in a great degree, upon correctly understanding his rights and obligations. Whether the principles of the Justinian code agree or not with those of the English law, it must be of great advantage to the common lawyer to study a digest which contains the recorded wisdom of many centuries, and furnishes abundantly both examples and warnings. We would recommend to the reader an article on civil law in the American Jurist, No. III, July, 1829 (Boston).

Civil List; an expression which formerly was customary only in England, but at present prevails also in Germany and France. As used in England, it signifies the sum which is granted to every king, at the beginning of his reign, for the support of his court and household, of ambassadors, and of the civil government in general. It was once a principle in England, as in other Teutonic nations, that the monarch was to pay all the expenses of government, even including those of the army, from the possessions of the crown, the domains (in German, *Fürstengüter*), and that the subjects were not obliged to contribute any thing more than they voluntarily engaged to. From this principle, which is proved by the history of the origin of the domains, it appears, that the domains, in general, cannot be considered the private property of the ruling family. On the contrary, they are, in general, the property of the state, and have been given to the prince to defray the expenses of government. The crown lands of the Saxon kings were very considerable. After the Norman conquest, they were much increased by confiscation, but were soon diminished by grants. Under Henry VIII, they were again much increased by the secularization of the convents (there existed, at that time, in England, 27 mitred abbots; there were also 2 priories, besides numerous other convents); but the greater part of the possessions of the religious orders was squandered by this prince. William III thought it necessary to strengthen his government by liberally rewarding his most faithful adherents, for which reason he made grants of the crown lands with such profusion that, under the government of his successor (in 1702), a law was passed, prohibiting the alienation of the domains. There exist, therefore, few crown lands in England, at present, and the income from them goes into the public treasury. Formerly, there were only certain annual contributions granted to the king for the support of the government. Under Charles II, the amount of the grant was first settled (£1,200,000). Under James II, this was increased to £1,900,000. The revenue from Scotland was not comprised in this sum. After the revolution of 1688, William's love of war being known and dreaded by his people, no appropriation

was made him for military expenses, and he received for defraying the expenses of the household, and the branches of the civil service immediately under the royal control, the sum of £700,000, and, at a later period, £800,000. This was called the *civil list*. Under queen Anne, the civil list amounted only to £691,000; under George I, at first, to £750,000, but was increased to £850,000. George II had £800,000. George III resigned all the hereditary crown taxes and revenues, appropriated to defray the expenses of the civil list, for the sum of £800,000, which, in 1777, was increased to £900,000, and at last, in 1812, to £1,028,000. Besides these grants, the debts of the civil list have been paid several times by parliament. From 1760 to 1784, they amounted to nearly £22,000,000. To the present king, the first session of parliament granted £850,000 for Great Britain, and £207,000 for Ireland. With this sum, the expenses of the household, for which £250,000 are assigned, of the ministers, the ambassadors, the justices of the high courts, &c., are paid, and £60,000 of it are appropriated for the king's privy purse. The royal princes, besides, receive incomes from the state. The sum allotted to the king himself would seem very small, if he had not, besides, revenues which amount (probably without including the revenue from Germany, formerly estimated at £100,000) to £300,000.—In France, during the revolution, certain sums were assigned for the support of the king and his family, which civil list differed from the English in so far as all the real expenses of government were separated from it. For the king, according to the law of Nov. 8, 1814, 25,000,000 livres (£1,041,000) were set apart, and for the princes and the princesses, 8,000,000. To these grants are to be added the royal palaces in Paris (the Louvre and the Tuileries), the castles and domains at Versailles, Marly, St. Cloud, Meudon, Rambouillet, Compiegne, St. Germain-en-Laye, Fontainebleau, &c., with all the valuables and works of art appertaining to them; likewise the manufactories of Sevres, Gobelins, La Savonnerie and Beauvais, which were declared inalienable possessions of the crown (*dotation de la couronne*). The enjoyment of these estates and manufactories belongs to the monarch, without being subject to taxes or any public burdens, and the administration of them belongs to the minister of the household. Distinct from the crown domains are the domains of the state (*domaine de l'état*), and the private possessions of the king (*domaine privé du roi*), which the king acquires like any other individual, pays taxes on, and can dispose of in his last will. If he, however, omits to do so, all his private property falls to the *domaine de l'état*. Also, all the private property which the king possessed before his accession to the throne, falls, at the moment of his accession, to the *domaine de l'état*.—In Prussia, the official statement of all the revenues and expenses to supply the ordinary wants of the state in 1821, does not mention the civil list. The expenses which fall under this head are defrayed by the domains, since a part of them, amounting to 2,500,000 Prussian dollars, has been added to the property of the crown. But the greater part of the domains, amounting to 5,600,000 Prussian dollars income annually, has been assigned to meet the public expenses. (*Bosse, Darstellung des staatswirthschaftlichen Zustandes in den deutschen Bundesstaaten*, 1820, p. 505.)—In Bavaria, the domains have been mostly sold and added to the public treasury, which furnishes to the king and his court 2,745,000 florins annually. The same plan has been followed in Würtemberg and Baden. In both states, the civil lists, according to the narrower sense in which this phrase is understood in France, amounts to nearly 1,200,000 florins, which, in Würtemberg, is increased by 200,000 florins income from the court domains. If we compare these sums with the amount of the finances of the different countries, we find that in

England, about	one 60th part,
France, ...	36th,
Prussia, ...	21st,
Bavaria, ...	11th,
Würtemberg and Baden, . .	one half,

of the revenue of the country is expended for the ruling house, and the proportion is still greater in the case of the smaller governments. It is worth while to compare these sums with the modest salaries of the American cabinet, and the revenue of the Union. In some small governments, the principle of despotism has gone so far as to assign to the court and the ruling family the income of all the domains, and to throw the whole public debt on the country.

Civilization is one of those comprehensive words which are most used and least understood. Most people take their own time, and, very often, their own country, as the standard whereby they judge the civilization of other ages and

other countries. Whether our age has reached a higher point of civilization than any preceding one, is, of course, a matter of very great doubt, but there is no doubt that it makes louder claims to superiority in this respect than any previous period. Such pretensions are generally the consequence of ignorance of other times and their productions. It is certainly a circumstance worthy of some consideration, that persons whose talents and acquirements have enabled them to take wide and penetrating views of the past and present, have shown the least disposition to echo the cry of the march of intellect. The different opinions respecting civilization may be comprised under a few heads: —1. Some people believe in the possibility of constant advancement, and the ultimate attainment of perfect civilization, a consequence of which will be perfect happiness. 2. Others believe that every nation, which arrives at a marked intellectual developement, goes through certain stages of civilization, and, after reaching the highest point which it is capable of attaining, declines; that, moreover, the march of improvement in different nations shows itself in different ways, e. g., by the progress of the fine arts and philosophy among the Greeks, by the advancement of the natural sciences and the construction of great works of architecture among the Egyptians, by the developement of the law among the Romans, &c. 3. Some believe in a general progress of the intellect to a certain point, after which an equally general decline commences, thus making the race subject to the same laws as the individual. 4. Some persons cannot discover any regularity in the march of civilization.—However these different opinions may appear, when measured by metaphysical theories, the second seems to be most conformable to history, with this qualification, however, that the increasing communication between nations has subjected many to similar influences, so that the opinion is applicable, at present, rather to families of nations than to single ones. Another subject, on which much difference of opinion exists, is, respecting the place where civilization originated. It is usually said, in Asia: some inquirers, however, make Ethiopia its first seat, in support of which opinion, various passages are cited from the Greek writers. Little doubt seems to exist, that the Greeks received their civilization from Egypt. Mr. Alexander Everett, in his work on America, goes so far as to maintain that it appears, from the historical sources we possess, that civilization commenced with the blacks; that "the blameless Ethiopians" of Homer were considered, by the Greeks, as superior beings to themselves; and that the Egyptians, before they became mingled with white races, were people of color, or Negroes—an opinion which the learned gentleman has recently advanced again in a public lecture. A further and highly important question respecting civilization, is, How far was it aided or produced by Christianity? Some persons contend that all the civilization which we enjoy is owing to Christianity, even our progress in science, &c. Others assert the contrary, and say that history shows that Christianity has hardly ever taken the lead in promoting civilization, which, in every stage of its progress since the birth of Christ, has been urged on by other causes, as the revival of learning, promoted by the conquest of Constantinople, the propagation of democratic notions by the disbelieving philosophers of France, &c., and that Christianity rather accommodated itself to the effects produced by these causes. A third class believe that Christianity had a great influence on civilization in former ages, but that its influence in this respect has become less, as that of science has become stronger. (See *Perfectibility*.)

Cività, in geography, the Latin *civitas*, truncated in the Italian way, appears in many names of cities, as *Cività Lavinia*.

Cività Vecchia (anciently, *Centum Cellæ*); a seaport of the popedom, in the patrimony of St. Peter, 27 miles N. W. Rome; lon. 11° 45′ E.; lat. 42° 5′ N.; population, 7,111. The port was enlarged and rendered commodious by Trajan. It is one of the best in the papal dominions, and next to Ancona in commercial importance. Here are about 6000 galley-slaves. It is the capital of the delegation Cività Vecchia.

Clairfait. (See *Clerfati*.)

Clairon, Claire-Josephe-Hippolyte-Legris de la Tude; a celebrated French actress. She evinced, when very young, a predilection for the stage, and, adopting the theatrical profession, soon became the first tragic performer of her age and country. Garrick, when he visited Paris, became acquainted with her, and afterwards testified the highest admiration of her talents. She long remained without a rival, and, having retired from the stage, died at an advanced age, in 1803. She published *Mémoires et Réflexions sur la Déclamation Théatrale*.

CLAN (*Erse*, a tribe or family), among the Highlanders of Scotland, consisted of the common descendants of the same progenitor, under the patriarchal control of a chief, who represented the common ancestor. The name of the clan was formed of that of the original progenitor with the affix *mac* (son): thus the MacDonalds were the sons of Donald, and every individual of this name was considered a descendant of the founder of the clan, and a brother of every one of its members. The chief exercised his authority by right of primogeniture, as the father of his clan: the clansmen revered and served the chief with the blind devotion of children. The appellation of the chiefs had, generally, a reference to the history of their ancestors, and denoted little more than that they were the descendants of the first father of the clan; thus the chief of the Macdonnells was *Mac Allister More* (the son of the great Allister). They were distinguished from the rest of the clan by a feather in their bonnets. Each clan was divided into two orders, the *tenants* or *taksmen*, the near relations of the chief, to whom portions of land were assigned, during pleasure or on short leases, and whose descendants were generally merged in the second class, or *commoners*, by the resumption of the land. The taksman usually had a subdivision of the clan under him, of which he was chieftain, subject, however, to the general head of the sept. The jurisdiction of the chiefs was not very accurately defined, but, as is generally the case in such a state of society, it was necessary to consult, in some measure, the opinions of the most influential clansmen, and the general wishes of the whole body. The rebellions of 1715 and 1745 induced the English government to break up the connexion which subsisted between the chiefs and the clansmen. The hereditary jurisdiction of the chiefs was, therefore, abolished, the people disarmed, and even compelled to relinquish their national dress; and but few traces of this institution now remain. (See Mrs. Grant's *Superstitions of the Highlanders*.)

CLAP, Thomas, president of Yale college, was born at Scituate, Massachusetts, June 26, 1703. He was graduated at Harvard college in 1722, and afterwards commenced the study of divinity. For his acquisitions in this and in various other branches of knowledge, particularly mathematics, astronomy, natural and moral philosophy, history, the civil and canon law, he was much distinguished, and possessed, also, a competent knowledge of Greek, Latin and Hebrew. He prosecuted his ecclesiastical labors at Windham, Connecticut, from 1726 to 1739, when he succeeded the reverend Elisha Williams in the presidency of Yale college. He was an impressive and powerful preacher, and a man of exemplary piety and singular industry. His religious sentiments were in accordance with the Calvinism of the Westminster assembly. He constructed the first orrery or planetarium made in America, and published a History of Yale College, a Brief History and Vindication of the Doctrines received and established in the Churches of New England, two Sermons, and Conjectures upon the Nature and Motion of Meteors which are above the Atmosphere. He had prepared also materials for a history of Connecticut, but his manuscripts were carried off in the expedition against New Haven under general Tryon. He died on the 7th of January, 1767, in the 64th year of his age, having resigned his station as president the year previous.

CLAPPERTON, captain Hugh, the African traveller, was born in Annan, Dumfriesshire, in 1788. After some elementary instruction in practical mathematics, he was bound apprentice, at the age of 13, to the owner of a vessel trading between Liverpool and North America, in which he made several voyages. He was then impressed into his Britannic majesty's service, was soon after made a midshipman, served on the American lakes in 1815, and, in 1816, received the commission of lieutenant. Having retired to Scotland, he became acquainted with doctor Oudney, who was about to embark for Africa, and requested permission to accompany him. Lieutenant (since colonel) Denham having volunteered his services, and it being intended that researches should be made, to the east and west, from Bornou, where doctor Oudney was to reside as British consul, his name was added to the expedition by lord Bathurst. In the Recent Discoveries in Africa, made in 1823 and 1824, by Major Denham, Captain Clapperton and Doctor Oudney (London, 1826), we have accounts of an excursion from Mourzouk to Ghraat, a town of the Tuarics, by doctor Oudney; of a journey across the desert to Bornou, of various expeditions to the southward and eastward, by major Denham; and of an excursion through Soudan to the capital of the Fellatahs, by captain Clapperton. The expedition set out from Mourzouk Nov. 29, 1822, and

arrived at lake Tchad, in the kingdom of Bornou, Feb. 4, after a journey of 800 miles. Six days after they entered the capital, Kouka, Clapperton, in company with doctor Oudney, who died on the way, set out on an expedition to Soccatoo, the capital of Houssa, more than 700 miles east of Kouka, which he reached in 90 days. He was not permitted to pursue his journey to the west, and returned to Kouka, and thence to England in 1825. The information which the travellers collected, in regard to the habits and commerce of the people of Central Africa, was important, as showing the existence in that quarter of a large population of a peaceable disposition, and possessed of a considerable civilization. The geographical information collected was not without its value, although it left undecided the disputed questions of the course and termination of the Niger. They proceeded south from Tripoli (lat. 32° 30′) to Musfeia (lat. 9° 10′), being 1400 miles in difference of latitude, and from Zangalia, on the east of lake Tchad (lon. 17° E.), to Soccatoo (lon. 6° E.), making a difference of longitude of 660 miles. They thus determined the position of the kingdoms of Mandara, Bornou and Houssa, their extent, and the position of their principal cities. On his return to England, lieutenant Clapperton received the rank of captain, and was immediately engaged, by lord Bathurst, for a second expedition, to start from the Bight of Benin. Leaving Badagry, Dec. 7, 1825, he pursued a north-easterly direction, with the intention of reaching Soccatoo and Bornou. Two of his companions, captain Pearce and doctor Morrison, perished, a short time after leaving the coast, and Clapperton pursued his way, accompanied by his faithful servant Lander. At Katunga, he was within 30 miles of the Quorra or Niger, but was not permitted to visit it. Continuing his journey north, he reached Kano, and then proceeded westward to Soccatoo, the residence of his old friend Bello. Bello refused to allow him to proceed to Bornou, and detained him a long time in his capital. This conduct appears to have arisen from the war then existing between Bello and the sheik of Bornou, and to the intrigues of the pacha of Tripoli, who had insinuated that the English meditated the conquest of Africa, as they had already conquered India. This disappointment preyed upon Clapperton's mind, and he died, April 13, 1827, at Chungary, a village four miles from Soccatoo, of a dysentery. (See *Journal of a Second Expedition from Kano to the Sea-coast, partly by a more eastern Route*, London, 1829; Philadelphia, 1829; *to which is added the Journal of Richard Lander* (the servant of Clapperton). Clapperton was the first European who traversed the whole of Central Africa, from the Bight of Benin to the Mediterranean. We have thus a continuous line from Tripoli to Badagry, which is of great importance from the assistance which it will afford to future researches. Clapperton was a man without education, but intelligent and impartial; of a robust frame and a happy temperament. He was capable of enduring great hardships. His knowledge of the habits and prejudices of the Central Africans, his frank, bold and cheerful manners, would have rendered him peculiarly useful in promoting the designs of the British government in that quarter.

Clare, John (called the *peasant of Northamptonshire*), a natural poet, born, July 13, 1793, at Helpstone, near Peterborough, in Northamptonshire, England, was obliged, when very young, to maintain his father, a day-laborer, who had become crippled, and his helpless family, by manual labor. The sufferings of the most abject poverty he has described with heart-rending truth, in his poem, Address to Plenty in Winter. The scanty assistance which the father received from the parish lightened the burden of supporting the family, and John succeeded in saving money, by means of extra labor, to enable him to learn to read. He now read, by night, Robinson Crusoe, and other books that were lent him. Thomson's Seasons first excited Clare's poetic talents in his 13th year, and suggested to him his first poem, the Morning Walk, to which he soon added the Evening Walk. John Turnhill of Helpstone, whose notice this attempt had attracted, now adopted the boy, and taught him writing and arithmetic. Clare made rapid progress, and succeeded, moreover, in acquiring considerable skill on the violin, though he was obliged to devote the whole day to labor, and had no instruction, except some advice from a village musician. This accomplishment he afterwards used as a means of support. He continued to write poetry for 13 years, with no other encouragement than the pleasure which he derived from it, and sung of God and the beauties of nature, while he labored with the hoe and spade. In December, 1818, one of his sonnets fell into the hands of Edward Drury, a bookseller at Hamford. The poem was upon the setting sun.

Encouraged by Drury, Clare prepared a collection of his poems, which soon excited public interest. These Poems, descriptive of Rural Life and Scenery, by John Clare, a Northamptonshire Peasant (London, 3d edition, 1820), consist of sonnets, songs, ballads and miscellaneous pieces, which describe rural life: they are simple, interesting by their truth and feeling, and full of original images, but somewhat disfigured by provincialisms. A new collection of Clare's poems appeared in 1821, under the title of the *Village Minstrel and other Poems*, &c., two volumes, with the author's portrait. Clare has acquired some property by his poetic productions, but continues warmly attached to his village and situation.

Clarence, earl of, William Henry, prince of England, second brother of king George IV, born Aug. 21, 1765, was educated for the navy, and passed through all the ranks, but received no command. In the chamber of peers, he constantly opposed the war policy of the ministers. Humanity is indebted to him for his exertions for the abolition of the slave-trade. His uniting with the opposition contributed to the overthrow of Pitt and Addington, but he still lived on the best terms with the royal family. He was passionately attached to the celebrated actress Mrs. Jordan, with whom he was connected many years, and had several children by her. She died at Bordeaux, in 1816. The duke of Clarence conducted Louis XVIII to the coasts of France in 1814. He married the princess Adelaide of Saxe-Meiningen, July 11, 1818, and was desirous of fixing his residence thenceforth at Osnabruck. He lives now with his wife in London. In 1827, under Canning's administration, the duke of Clarence was appointed lord high admiral of England (see *Admiral*); but he retired from that office soon after the duke of Wellington had been made premier.

Clarendon; a village three miles east of Salisbury, where Henry II summoned a council of the barons and prelates, in 1164, who enacted the laws called the *constitutions of Clarendon*, by which the power of the pope in England was checked.

Clarendon. Edward Hyde, earl of Clarendon, lord high chancellor of England, probably born at Dinton, in Wiltshire, 1608, was educated at Oxford, and afterwards studied law under his uncle Nicholas Hyde, chief justice of the king's bench. He was a member of the long parliament under Charles I; and the purity of his intentions, his attachment to the laws of his country, and the talents which he displayed, gained him the confidence of that body. Upon the breaking out of the civil war, he attached himself to the king's party; became chancellor of the exchequer and member of the privy council, and followed prince Charles (afterwards Charles II) to Jersey. Here he remained for two years, while the prince was in France, and during that time began his History of the Rebellion. He likewise composed at Jersey the various writings which appeared in the king's name, as answers to the manifestoes of the parliament. After Charles I was beheaded, the new king called him to France, and sent him to Madrid, to see if any assistance could be obtained from the Spanish court. From thence he went to Paris to reconcile the queen mother with the duke of York, and afterwards to the Hague, where Charles II appointed him lord chancellor of England, in 1657. After Cromwell's death, Edward Hyde contributed more than any other man to the happy termination of the measures which placed Charles II on the throne. He subsequently possessed the entire confidence of the king, who loaded him with favors. In 1660, he was elected chancellor of the university of Oxford; in 1661, he was made peer, and baron Hyde, viscount Cornbury, and earl of Clarendon. Many events occurred to disquiet him in the licentious court of Charles II; among these was the marriage of the duke of York, the king's brother, to his daughter. The duke, while at Breda, the residence of his sister, the princess of Orange, became acquainted with Anne Hyde, Clarendon's eldest daughter, maid of honor to the princess, and married her, Nov., 1659, without the knowledge of the king or the chancellor. Anne's pregnancy occasioned the disclosure of this union after Charles's restoration. As soon as the king had ascertained the validity of the marriage, he acknowledged Anne Hyde as duchess of York, commanded his brother to continue to love her, and, at the same time, declared that this event had not changed his sentiments towards the chancellor. Two daughters, Anne and Mary, were the fruit of this marriage, both of whom ascended the English throne. In 1663, lord Bristol made an attack upon the chancellor in the parliament. This body, however, disregarded his accusations. Attempts were also made to injure him in public opinion, while, on the other hand, his influence with the king was declining, as Charles

had now less regard for an able minister than for the instruments of his prodigality. The duke of Buckingham, moreover, was continually laboring to make the chancellor ridiculous in the eyes of the king, and his station as prime minister made the nation regard him as answerable for all the faults of the administration. The ill success of the war against Holland, the sale of Dunkirk, and other events, excited public indignation. The king's displeasure was changed into hatred, when he saw his plan of repudiating his wife, and marrying the beautiful lady Stuart, defeated by Clarendon, who effected a marriage between this lady and the duke of Richmond. The king deprived him of his offices, and an impeachment for high treason was commenced against him. Clarendon fled, and sent his apology from Calais to the house of lords. Both houses ordered this writing to be burnt by the common hangman, and Clarendon was banished forever. The hatred of the nation pursued him even to the continent. At Evreux, he was attacked by some English sailors, dangerously wounded, and with difficulty rescued from their hands. He lived six years at Montpellier, Moulins and Rouen, at which latter place he died, Dec., 1674. His remains were afterwards carried to England, and buried in Westminster abbey.—Lord Clarendon, as long as he was minister, was the friend and supporter of the king against the factious, and the defender of his country's freedom against the abuse of the royal power. Ingratitude and prejudice the more easily ruined him, as his stern and proud character prevented his gaining affection. Among his many writings, the most important is the History of the Rebellion, from 1641 down to the Restoration of Charles II. It is a very able work, although not free from prejudices." To this was added, in 1759, his Life and a Continuation of his History.

Claret. (See *Bordelais Wines.*)

Clarichord, or Clavichord. A keyed instrument, now out of use, somewhat in the form of a spinet, and the strings of which are supported by five bridges. One distinction in the clarichord is, that the strings are covered with pieces of cloth, which render the sound sweeter, and, at the same time, deaden it, so as to prevent its being heard at any considerable distance. On this account, it was formerly much used by the nuns, who could practise on it without disturbing the dormitory. It is sometimes called the *dumb spinet.*

Clarification, or the separation of the insoluble particles that prevent a liquid from being transparent, may be performed by *depuration, filtration* or *coagulation.* In the first of these operations, the liquid is permitted to subside, without being in the least disturbed, until all the particles which were in suspension are precipitated; it is then decanted. This mode of clarification can only be used when the substance on which we operate is in a large quantity, or is of a nature not to be altered during the time necessary to complete this operation, and finally when its specific gravity is less than that of the particles which render it turbid. *Filtration* is a process by which a liquid is strained through a body, the interstices of which are small enough to stop the solid particles contained in it. Filters of wool, linen, paper, powdered glass, sand or charcoal, may be used, according as the liquid is more or less dense, or of a nature to operate upon any one of these bodies. Finally, clarification by *coagulation* is performed with the assistance of albumen contained in the liquid, or some is added to it for this purpose, which, by the action of caloric, of acids, &c. becomes solid, forms a mass, and precipitates the extraneous substances. The white of eggs is generally used for this purpose.

Clarinet. A wind instrument of the reed kind, the scale of which, though it includes every semitone within its extremes, is virtually defective. Its lowest note is E below the F cliff, from which it is capable, in the hands of good performers, of ascending more than three octaves. Its powers, through this compass, are not every where equal; the player, therefore, has not a free choice in his keys, being generally confined to those of C and F, which, indeed, are the only keys in which the clarinet is heard to advantage. The music for this instrument is therefore usually written in those keys. There are, however, B flat clarinets, A clarinets, D clarinets, B clarinets, and G clarinets: the three latter are scarcely ever used in England.

Clark, John; an industrious critic and classical commentator, who published many useful works on education. He was the master of a grammar-school at Hull, in Yorkshire, where he died in May, 1734. Among his publications are an Introduction to making Latin, and editions of several Latin authors, with English translations.

Clarke, Edward Daniel, LL. D.; a celebrated traveller of our own times, pro-

fessor of mineralogy at Cambridge, which university he enriched with the fruits of his researches in foreign countries. He was the second son of the reverend Edward Clarke, author of Letters on the Spanish Nation, and various minor works, and was born in 1767. He received his education at Jesus college, Cambridge, of which society he became a fellow, having taken the degree of A. M. in 1794. Soon after, he accompanied lord Berwick to Italy, and, in 1799, set out with Mr. Cripps, on an extensive and laborious tour through Denmark, Sweden, Lapland, Finland, Russia, Tartary, Circassia, Asia Minor, Syria, Palestine, Egypt, Greece, and Turkey, returning, in 1802, through Germany and France. On his return, he obtained, from the university to which he belonged, the honorary degree of LL. D., as a distinguished mark of its approbation, and in consideration of the services rendered to its public libraries and institutions by his liberal contributions, among which the greatest, perhaps, in value, is the celebrated manuscript of Plato's works, with nearly 100 others, and a colossal statue of the Eleusinian Ceres. To him also the British nation is indebted for the acquisition of the famous sarcophagus of Alexander the Great, which he discovered in the possession of the French troops in Egypt, and was the means of its being surrendered to the English army. In 1806, he commenced a course of lectures on mineralogy, having brought a splendid collection of specimens to Europe; and, in 1808, a professorship being founded purposely for the encouragement of that branch of knowledge, he was elevated to the chair. A valuable collection of plants and medals proved, also, at once the correctness of his taste and the extent of his industry; while a curious model of mount Vesuvius, constructed by him, with the assistance of an Italian artist, from the materials of the mountain it represents, attests his great ingenuity. This piece of art is now in the possession of lord Berwick. Doctor Clarke published Testimony of different Authors respecting the colossal Statue of Ceres, placed in the Vestibule of the Public Library at Cambridge, with an account of its removal from Eleusis (8vo., 1801—1803); The Tomb of Alexander, a Dissertation on the Sarcophagus brought from Alexandria, and now in the British Museum (4to., 1805); A Description of the Greek Marbles brought from the Shores of the Euxine, Archipelago and Mediterranean, and deposited in the Vestibule of the University Library, Cambridge (8vo., 1809); Travels in various Countries of Europe, Asia and Africa, Part I, containing Russia, Tartary and Turkey (4to., 1810); Part II, containing Greece, Egypt and the Holy Land (Section 1st, 4to., 1812; Section 2d, 1814); and some other works. Doctor Clarke died March 9, 1821. After his death, a volume was published, containing his Travels through Denmark, Sweden, Lapland, Norway, Finland and Russia (London, 1823, 4to.). A complete edition of his works appeared, in 11 volumes, in 4to. and 8vo. (London, 1819—24), under the title of Travels in various Countries of Europe, Asia and Africa.

Clarke, Samuel, DD., a celebrated theological and philosophical writer, was born at Norwich, England, in the year 1675, of which city his father was an alderman. He was educated at Caius college, Cambridge. Whilst at the university, he diligently cultivated a knowledge of the Scriptures, in the original languages, and, before the age of 21, had largely contributed to diffuse the Newtonian system. Being of opinion that the vehicle of an established work, like that of Rohault, would be most convenient for the gradual introduction of true philosophy, he translated that author's Physics for the use of young students, whom he thereby familiarized with the language and reasonings of Newton. On entering into orders, he became chaplain to Moore, bishop of Norwich, and first became an author in his own profession in 1699, when he published Three practical Essays upon Baptism, Confirmation and Repentance. This work was followed by Reflections on a Book called Amyntor, by Toland, relating to the authenticity of writings not received into the canon of Scripture. In 1701, he published his Paraphrase on the Four Gospels, and, about the same time, received two small livings in and near Norwich. In 1704, he was appointed to preach the sermon at Boyle's lecture, when he chose for his subject the Being and Attributes of God, and gave so much satisfaction that he was appointed to the same office the next year, when he delivered a course of sermons on Evidences of Natural and Revealed Religion. These sermons exceedingly raised the author's reputation as a close and acute reasoner, although his argument *a priori*, for the existence of a God, was, by Pope and others, deemed too subtle and metaphysical. He, however, employed it only in opposition to Hobbes, Spinoza, and similar reasoners, who could

be no other way opposed. In 1706, he published A Letter to Mr. Dodwell, on the Immortality of the Soul, and, during the same year, gave an elegant Latin version of sir Isaac Newton's Optics, for which that great man presented him with £500. His friend, bishop Moore, now introduced him to queen Anne, who appointed him her chaplain, and presented him with the rectory of St. James's, Westminster, the highest preferment he ever obtained. On this occasion, he took his degree as D. D. In 1712, he appeared as a philologist, by editing a fine edition of Cæsar's Commentaries, which he dedicated to the great duke of Marlborough, and, in the same year, published a work which involved him in endless controversy, entitled The Scripture Doctrine of the Trinity. In this production, that mysterious tenet is, on critical principles, examined as deducible from the words of Scripture; and the result of the author's reasonings was so different from the opinion of the church of England, that it became a subject of complaint in the lower house of convocation. Several controversial pieces were written on this occasion, the chief champion of orthodoxy being doctor Waterland. In 1715 and 1716, a disputation was carried on between doctor Clarke and the celebrated Leibnitz, concerning the principles of natural philosophy and religion, the papers of which were collected and addressed to the princess of Wales, afterwards queen Caroline. In 1717, he published Remarks upon Collins's Enquiry concerning Human Liberty, and, soon after, gave much offence by altering the doxology of the singing psalms at St. James's; on which occasion the bishop of London sent a circular to the clergy forbidding the use of them. In 1724, he published a volume consisting of 17 sermons, and, on the death of sir Isaac Newton, in 1727, was offered the place of master of the mint. This office he declined accepting, as inconsistent with his profession, preferment in which had, however, now become hopeless. In 1728, he wrote a letter to Mr. Hoadley, On the Proportion of Velocity and Force in Bodies in Motion, and, the next year, published the first 12 books of Homer's Iliad, with a Latin version, the remaining books of which were published by his son in 1732. Doctor Clarke's reputation as a classical scholar is chiefly founded on this performance, which is held in high esteem. He had all his life enjoyed sound health; but, on Sunday, May 11, 1729, when going to preach before the judges at Serjeants' Inn, he was seized with a pleuritic complaint, which carried him off, after a few days' illness, in his 54th year. He left in manuscript, prepared for the press, An Exposition of the Catechism, which was published by his brother, with 10 posthumous volumes of sermons. The private character of doctor Clarke was extremely amiable, being upright, mild and unaffected. His intellectual eminence was founded on a strong cultivation of the reasoning faculty, without passion or enthusiasm. He closely pursued his object, with methodical accuracy and logical acuteness, aided by a strongly retentive memory and indefatigable attention.

Clarke, George Rogers, colonel in the service of Virginia against the Indians in the revolutionary war, distinguished himself greatly in that post, and, for some time, was the protector of the people of the frontiers of Virginia and Pennsylvania from the inroads of the savages. In 1778, he was appointed to command a regiment of infantry, and one troop of cavalry, raised for the defence of the country of Illinois, in which was comprehended the country claimed by Virginia that had been conquered by colonel Clarke. The families which came with him to the falls of the Ohio were the first settlers at that place. At first, their situation was very dangerous, in consequence of the proximity of several tribes of Indians, and some British posts; but, by the exertions of Clarke, it was soon rendered secure, and, in 1779, they were enabled to remove into Kentucky, where emigrants quickly flocked in great numbers. In the same year, colonel Clarke descended the Ohio, and built fort Jefferson, on the eastern bank of the Mississippi, and, in 1781, received a general's commission.—The following anecdote is related of Clarke, in a work published not very long since, called *Notes of an Old Officer*:—"The Indians came in to the treaty at fort Washington in the most friendly manner, except the Shawahanees, the most conceited and warlike of the aborigines, the first in at a battle, the last at a treaty. 300 of their finest warriors set off in all their paint and feathers, and filed into the council-house. Their number and demeanor, so unusual at an occasion of this sort, was altogether unexpected and suspicious. The United States' stockade mustered 70 men. In the centre of the hall, at a little table, sat the commissary-general Clarke, the indefatigable scourge of these very marauders, general Richard Butler and Mr. Parsons.

There was also present a captain Denny, who, I believe, is still alive, and can attest this story. On the part of the Indians, an old council-sachem and a war-chief took the lead. The latter, a tall, raw-boned fellow, with an impudent and villanous look, made a boisterous and threatening speech, which operated effectually on the passions of the Indians, who set up a prodigious whoop at every pause. He concluded by presenting a black and white wampum, to signify they were prepared for either event, peace or war. Clarke exhibited the same unaltered and careless countenance he had shown during the whole scene, his head leaning on his left hand, and his elbow resting on the table. He raised his little cane, and pushed the sacred wampum off the table, with very little ceremony. Every Indian, at the same time, started from his seat with one of those sudden, simultaneous, and peculiarly savage sounds, which startle and disconcert the stoutest heart, and can neither be described nor forgotten. At this juncture, Clarke rose. The scrutinizing eye cowered at his glance. He stamped his foot on the prostrate and insulted symbol, and ordered them to leave the hall. They did so, apparently involuntarily. They were heard all that night, debating in the bushes near the fort. The raw-boned chief was for war, the old sachem for peace. The latter prevailed, and the next morning they came back and sued for peace."—General Clarke died on the 13th of February, 1817, in the 66th year of his age, at his seat near Louisville, Kentucky.

Classic (from the Latin *classis*). The Roman people were divided into six *classes*, and *classici* was the name given to the citizens belonging to the first class. From this circumstance, the Greek and Roman authors have been, in modern times, called *classics*, that is, the excellent, the models. There is, of course, a great diversity of value among them; but their superiority to the writers of modern Europe, at the time of the revival of letters, was so great, that it was very natural for their admirers to give them, collectively, the name of *classics*. The Germans soon gave the word *klassisch* (classical) a wider sense, applying it more philosophically, and making it embrace, 1. the standard works of any nation, and, 2. ancient literature and art, in contradistinction to the modern or romantic. The English and French have followed this example, though but recently. The *Dictionnaire de l'Académie* gives no other definition to the word *classique* than *Auteur classique, c'est-à-dire un auteur ancien, approuvé, et qui fait autorité dans une certaine matière: Platon. Homère, Démosthène, Cicéron, Virgile, Tite-Live, &c. sont des auteurs classiques.*

As regards classical, by which we mean, in this place, ancient, literature, we observe a striking difference between it and modern literature. The Greek authors were the pupils of nature and an active, energetic life. These furnished their discipline rather than the pedantic forms of schools, which are impressed with painful labor upon the memory, and only half understood. They had, besides, a very keen sensibility for beauty, which was fully developed by the loveliness of surrounding nature, and by their active life, in which all their faculties were unfolded. They spent their lives in constant contests for liberty, and for superiority in physical or mental accomplishments. Every thing was public; every thing stimulated emulation. Nature and Liberty are the genii which presided over the labors of the Greeks; and their works are classical, that is, models, as far as they are the natural fruit of the circumstances in which they were placed. The successes of the Greeks over the slaves of Asia, and the overthrow of their own tyrants, first produced poets among them; and these continued, in an uninterrupted series, exerting a decisive influence upon rhetoric, history and the plastic arts, and receiving, in their turn, a corresponding influence, until degeneracy, over-refinement and political subjugation took the place of nature and liberty. The Macedonian and Roman dominion fixed the limits of Greek classical literature. From that time, Greece produced only learned inquirers and rich treasures of knowledge, but no works distinguished as models, such as had been composed in the time of her freedom, under the joint influence of her political constitution, religion, beautiful climate, and language, which contained the elements of the highest perfection in a far greater degree than most other languages.—The Romans, from their political constitution and national character, have become models only in history and rhetoric, and works on war, architecture and law. The most active element in their national character was always the military and legal spirit. But their language acquired, from the habits of the nation, such conciseness and precision, that they remain models in history, and, in fact, in every branch of composition, as far as concise expression is concerned, so difficult

and so valuable an attainment. The rapid growth of their power outstripped the developement of their literature, which attained its meridian soon after the overthrow of liberty and the establishment of despotism. Hence it speedily degenerated, and the time soon arrived when Roman literature consisted, in a great measure, of descriptions of the universal corruption and misery of the people, characterized either by a morose bitterness or by the complacency of deep-seated immorality.—The style of the ancient writers is very characteristic, and forms a striking distinction between them and the moderns. Their language is generally simple, natural, pure, and therefore expressive; whilst the modern writers, by reason of their greater erudition, and the refinements of our social life, are constantly tempted to sacrifice energy and conciseness to brilliancy and richness of illustration; so much so, that Rousseau was led into the paradox of declaring himself an enemy to all wit. Besides the style of the ancient writers, so many circumstances contributed to the excellence of their productions; the union of knowledge and ignorance, of rudeness and refinement, was fitted to exercise so beneficial an influence upon them, that the best works of the Greeks and Romans have secured to themselves a permanent place among the means of intellectual cultivation, throughout Europe and the nations of European descent. It has often been said, that the knowledge of the languages and literature of Greece and Rome can be of little value to us, as their condition and character, their principles, political and religious, were so different from ours. But, without mentioning the advantages to be derived from a knowledge of these languages by men devoted to certain particular pursuits, we do not hesitate to affirm, that the highest degree of intellectual accomplishment is not possible without classical attainments. We ought to be thankful that we are permitted to avail ourselves of the literary treasures of these glorious nations, without being obliged to participate in the sufferings and struggles which contributed so essentially to their richness and beauty. The very study of their languages has a most salutary influence on the intellectual developement of the students of modern times, whose native languages are of a much less philosophical construction. If it were necessary to bring forward examples, it would be easy to show, not only that most of the men of modern times, distinguished in the various branches of moral and political science, have had a classical education, but also that this education has exerted a most important influence on their minds. The beneficial effect of classical literature on the character of nations might also be easily shown. Undoubtedly a wrongly directed classical education has, in some instances, produced injurious consequences. So, too, has misdirected religious instruction; but the one is no more an argument against classical literature than the other is against religion.—We shall not, in this place, enter upon a statement of the characteristic differences of ancient and modern literature, as the subject has not been sufficiently discussed by English writers to give that precision to the requisite phraseology which would be necessary to make a condensed view of the subject intelligible. We will only remark, that the religion of the Greeks—to use the words of the celebrated Augustus William Schlegel—was the apotheosis of the powers of nature and of terrestrial life. Every thing, therefore, was positive, clear and finished in their religion and religious views. Such is also the predominating character of their literature. Modern literature, on the other hand, is marked with the character of the Christian religion, which directs the mind to the mysterious and the infinite. The Greek philosophy, moreover, sought for happiness in mental tranquillity and the well-balanced and harmonious action of the different faculties. The Christian encourages a struggle between the higher and lower powers of our nature. The influence of the Christian principle on modern writers is not, indeed, universal. Some productions of modern times are characterized by the Grecian element rather than the romantic, or, as it might properly be called, the *Teutonico-Christian*, for instance, some of the poems of Göthe. This cannot be said of Byron, notwithstanding the anti-Christian character of much which he has written. We will conclude our remarks respecting the difference between ancient and modern writers by another remark of Schlegel. He says that the genius of the ancient poets was of a plastic character; that their creations resembled those of the sculptor. Sculpture directs our attention exclusively to a particular object: it detaches the statue from all surrounding objects, or indicates them, if at all, very slightly. This is the character of the creations of the ancient dramatists, whilst the genius of the modern drama has much more resemblance to that which fills a picture with a

great variety of objects, operating, it is true, to produce a common effect, but having also much individuality of character.

The same difference which exists between ancient and modern or classical and romantic literature, prevails, to a great degree, between ancient and modern art. We may remark in general, respecting classical art, by which we mean especially Greek art (the Romans having always remained, in a great measure, imitators of the Greeks), that its productions are complete in themselves, expressing, in their beautiful forms, all which the artist intended to convey, while the genius of modern art is characterized by aiming at something infinite, beyond the power of precise conception and perfect representation. For this reason, the Greeks devoted themselves to sculpture more than to painting, and even gave to their productions in the latter branch of art something of a plastic character, whilst the moderns have directed their attention much more to painting, and have given to sculpture a character different from that which it had among the ancients. The same difference of feeling is apparent in the architecture of the two periods, and the music of modern times owes its excellence to causes similar to those which have carried painting to such perfection.

As regards the classical writers of any country, meaning, by this term, the standard writers in the different departments of literature, it would be difficult to give a precise definition of what entitles an author to the epithet *classical;* yet we find the judgment of nations (allowance being made for the peculiar tastes of each) pretty uniform and pretty correct. Still, however, there are considerable diversities of opinion as to the writers who are to be ranked as classics, in nations among whom the overwhelming authority of some great learned body has not determined who are entitled to this designation. We might instance the Germans, and even the French, as far as respects the writers who have appeared since the publication of the *Dictionnaire de l'Académie.*—Much information is contained on the French classics in La Harpe's *Cours de Littérature Française*, and in that of Levizac (Paris, 1807, 4 vols.); also in Bouterwek's extensive *Geschichte der Poesie und Beredtsamkeit.* For the English classics, Johnson and Warton are to be consulted. Bouterwek's work, also, is full of valuable information on this subject. The Italian classics are to be learned from the works of Tiraboschi, Ginguené, Sismondi and Bouterwek. An account of the best authors of Spanish literature is to be found in Velasquez and Nicolas Antonio, *Bibliotheca Vetus et Nova*, in Sismondi's *Littérature du Midi de l'Europe*, and in Bouterwek's work, of which the part relating to Spain has been lately translated into Spanish, under the following title: *Historia de la Literatura Española, escrita en Aleman por F. Bouterwek, traducida al Castellano y adicionada por D. José Gomez de la Cortina y D. Nicolás Hugalde y Mollinedo* (Madrid, 1829, 8vo. vol. i, pp. 276). Half of vol. i. consists of additions by the translators, which, however, do not add much to the value of the work. For Portuguese literature, Bouterwek, Sismondi, and, chiefly, don Barbosa Machado's *Bibliotheca Lusitana* (Lisbon, 1731, 4 vols. fol.), are to be recommended. The works of Ideler and Nolte, *Handbücher*, for French, Italian, Spanish and English literature, are highly valuable, containing judicious selections from the best prose writers and poets in these literatures, with short accounts of each author from whom extracts are made. These gentlemen are distinguished literati at Berlin, of whom the former is likewise known as one of the greatest chronologists of the age, and by his Arabian chrestomathy. For German literature, Ersch's *Handbuch der Deutschen Literatur* (new edition, 1822 et seq., 4 vols.) is to be consulted. For further information respecting the literature of different countries, see the articles on these countries respectively. Augustus William Schlegel's works must be considered as still unrivalled for profound and original criticism on the art and literature of the ancient and modern nations.

Claude Lorraine, so called, was one of the most distinguished landscape painters. His real name was *Claude Gellée:* he was called *Lorraine* from the province of this name, where he was born in the castle of *Champagne*, of poor parents, whom he lost early. His education was much neglected. When 12 years old, he went to live with his brother, an engraver in wood at Friburg. Afterwards, a relation of his took him to Rome, where he was employed by the landscape painter Agostino Tassi, as a color-grinder and a kitchen-boy. Here he received a little instruction in painting, having previously acquired some skill in drawing from his brother. The sight of some paintings of Godfrey Vals enchanted him so much, that, in spite of his poverty, he travelled to Naples to study with the artist. His

genius now unfolded itself with such rapidity, that he was soon considered one of the first landscape-painters of his time; particularly after he had studied, in Lombardy, the paintings of Giorgione and Titian, whereby his coloring and *chiaro scuro* were greatly improved. After making a journey into his native country, he settled, in 1627, in Rome, where his works were greatly sought for, so that he was enabled to live much at his ease, until 1682, when he died of the gout. The principal galleries of Italy, France, England, Spain and Germany are adorned with his productions. His best work, and the one on which he himself set the greatest value, is the painting of a small wood belonging to the villa Madama (in Rome). Clement XI offered to purchase it for as many pieces of gold as would cover its surface; but the artist would not part with it, since he used it as a study. Claude possessed the greatest power of invention, by which he gave an inexhaustible variety to his paintings, united with an ardent and persevering study of nature. The truth with which he portrays the effect of the sun in every part of the day, soft breezes playing through the tops of the trees, and all the delicate beauties of nature, is surprising; and no artist but Caspar Dughet comes near him in this particular. But all his rivals fell far short of equalling the dewy humidity which he threw over dark, shadowy places. His figures are poor, and he used to say—"I sell my landscapes, and give my figures into the bargain." In a great part of his paintings, the figures are the work of Lauri and Francesco Allegrini. Claude most frequently chooses agreeable views without fixed limits, in which the eye loses itself. He often introduces grand architectural structures, and makes his landscapes the scenes of mythological and historical events. As other artists frequently gave his name to their own productions, he made drawings of all his paintings, and called the books in which they were contained *Libri di verità*. Such a collection, containing 200 drawings, belongs to the duke of Devonshire; another, of 130 drawings, to lord Holland.

Claudianus (*Claudius*), a Latin poet, a native of Alexandria, lived under the emperor Theodosius and his sons, and was an experienced warrior, as well as a writer of merit. His poems gained him such renown, that, at the desire of the senate, the emperors Arcadius and Honorius erected a statue to his honor in the forum of Trajan, with the inscription, that he combined the genius of Virgil and of Homer. Besides several panegyrical poems on Honorius, Stilicho, and others, we possess two of his epic poems, the Rape of Proserpine, and an unfinished Gigantomachia, eclogues, epigrams and occasional poems. He exhibits a brilliant fancy, rich coloring, great variety and precision in his descriptions, but he is often deficient in taste and gracefulness of thought. The best editions of his works are those of Gessner, Leipsic, 1759, and of Burmann, Amsterdam, 1760, 4to.

Claudius (Tiberius) Drusus Cæsar, a Roman emperor, the youngest son of the elder Claudius Drusus Nero and Antonia the younger, the daughter of Augustus's sister, born at Lyons, grew up without any education, for the most part among slaves and women, and was an object of ridicule and scorn at court. He lived as an unimportant private man, and occupied himself with literature. Among other works, he wrote a Roman history, embracing the period from the death of Cæsar to his own time, in 43 volumes, and also his own life. After the murder of Caligula, the body-guard, who were ransacking the palace, discovered him secreted in a corner, dragged him out, and proclaimed him emperor (41 A. D.). The senate, who had determined on the restoration of the republic, were forced to confirm the appointment. Claudius, suddenly transferred from retirement and oppression to uncontrolled power, distinguished the beginning of his reign by some praiseworthy acts; he recalled the exiles, and restored their estates to them; embellished Rome, and erected several large buildings for the public good. He made Mauritania a Roman province; his armies fought successfully against the Germans, and kept possession of several strong places in Britain. But he soon sunk into debauchery and voluptuousness; and his wives, particularly the infamous Messalina (q. v.), together with his freedmen, administered the government, sold offices and places of honor, and committed the greatest atrocities unpunished. He died of poison administered by his second wife, Agrippina (mother of Nero), at the age of 63, A. D. 54. His deification was the cause of Seneca's pasquinade entitled *Apokolokynthosis*.

Claudius, Matthias (called *Asmus*, or the *Wandsbeck Messenger*), a German poet, whose prose and poetry bear a peculiar stamp of humor, frankness and cordiality, was born, in 1741, at Reinfeld, in Holstein, near Lübeck. In 1775, he made a

collection of his compositions which had appeared in the Wandsbeck Messenger, and other periodicals, with the addition of some which had not been printed, and gave the collection the title *Asmus omnia sua secum portans, or Complete Works of the Wandsbeck Messenger* (complete till 1812, in 8 vols.). He wrote on a great variety of subjects. All his works are of a popular character. They are written in a natural, intelligible, and often humorous style, and support the cause of good morals, benevolence, patriotism and piety, while they attack folly and vice with the weapons of ridicule and scorn. Many of his songs have been set to music by the first composers, and have become a part of the national melodies. In the latter part of his life, he became a convert to religious mysticism, and died at Hamburg, Jan. 21, 1815, after having filled several public offices.

Clausenburg, or Colosvar; a town in Transylvania, capital of the Land of the Hungarians and of a county of the same name, on the Samos; 145 miles N. N. E. Belgrade, 225 E. S. E. Vienna; lon. 23° 35′ E.; lat. 46° 44′ N.; population, 18,210; number of houses, 1200. It became the seat of government of Transylvania about 1790. It is situated in a romantic valley, surrounded on all sides by lofty mountains, and has a handsome public square, several elegant streets, fine gardens, and public walks. It contains 5 Catholic churches, 2 Calvinist, 1 Lutheran, 1 Unitarian, 2 hospitals, a Catholic college containing, in 1814, 232 students; a Reformed college with 636 students; and a Unitarian college with 206 students.

Clausewitz, Charles von, Prussian major-general, director of the general military school at Berlin, born, June 1, 1780, at Burg, entered the military service in 1792, and took part in the campaigns of 1793 and 1794. He was also active in the war against Napoleon, in the service of Russia and Prussia, and has distinguished himself by his *Uebersicht des Feldzugs von* 1813 (Survey of the Campaign of 1813).

Clavichord. (See *Clarichord.*)

Clavicimbalum; the name originally given to the harpsichord.

Clavi-cylinder. (See *Chladni.*)

Clavigero, Francesco Saverio; a Spanish historian, who was a native of Vera Cruz, in Mexico. He was educated as an ecclesiastic, and resided nearly 40 years in the provinces of New Spain, where he acquired the languages of the Mexicans, and other indigenous nations, collected many of their traditions, and studied their historical paintings, and other monuments of antiquity. The first of his researches was a History of Mexico, written in Italian, of which an English translation in 2 vols. 4to. was published in 1787. This is a most comprehensive work, affording a great deal of information relative to the natural and civil history, antiquities and religion of Mexico; but it displays more industry than judgment on the part of the author.

Clavijo y Flaxardo, don Joseph; a Spaniard, who fell a sacrifice to a quarrel with Beaumarchais. He lived in Madrid, where he had the reputation of an intelligent scholar, and had published a journal, *El Pensador*, and other useful works, when his connexion with the sister of Beaumarchais, whom he had loved, and then forsaken, gave rise to an affair of honor between him and the brother of the lady, who was formidable for talent rather than courage. This affair nearly occasioned Clavijo the loss of his life, and deprived him of his office and the good opinion of his fellow-citizens. He passed the remainder of his life under a kind of dishonor which the representations of his adversary had brought upon him. For more than 20 years, he superintended the publication of the *Mercurio Historico y Politico de Madrid*, with which he had been intrusted as early as 1773. He likewise translated Buffon's Natural History into Spanish (Madrid, 1785—90, 12 vols.). He was vice-director of the cabinet of natural history, and director of the *Theatre de los Sitios*, when he died in 1806. Far from resembling the detestable portrait which Beaumarchais draws of him, Clavijo was of a mild disposition, upright character, and a clear understanding. Göthe founded his tragedy *Clavigo* on Beaumarchais's story.

Clavis (Latin for *key*) is often used for a drawing, an index, &c., which serves as a guide to the understanding of another work; for instance, *clavis Ciceronia*, *clavis Homerica*, &c.

Clay is a mixture of decomposed minerals, and hence it is by no means uniform in its composition. Several varieties soften in water, and allow themselves to be kneaded and formed into moulds—a property by which they are fitted for the use so commonly made of them. Some are easily fusible, others refractory; some acquire particular tints, others lose their color and become white when exposed to a strong heat; upon all of which properties their applicability depends. They occur in beds near the surface of the

earth, or, covered by the soil, in the formations of brown and black coal. In the latter situation, they often contain remains of vegetables, and are called *slate clay*, which is intimately related to bituminous shale and alum-earth. Alumine is the basis of all clays, and imparts to them their predominating characters. It is mixed with very variable proportions of silex, magnesia, lime, and oxide of iron. The varieties of clay are of various important applications in pottery, in manufacturing stone-ware and porcelain, in constructing furnaces for metallurgic operations, &c.—Some of the principal varieties are *indurated clay*, or *clay stone*, which is clay in its highest state of induration. It is soft, but not easily diffused in water, and does not form with it a ductile paste.—*Porcelain clay*, so named from the use to which it is applied, is white, with occasional shades of yellow and gray. It is dull and opaque; feels soft; in water, it falls to powder, and, when kneaded, it forms a ductile paste. It is, in general, infusible by any heat that can be raised. It consists essentially of silex and alumine; that of Cornwall contains 60 parts of alumine with 20 of silex.—*Potter's clay* and *pipe clay* are similar, but less pure, generally of a yellowish or grayish color, from the presence of iron.—*Loam* is the same substance mixed with sand, oxide of iron, and various other foreign ingredients.—The *boles*, which are of a red or yellow color, are of a similar composition, and appear to owe their colors to oxide of iron. They are distinguished by their conchoidal fracture.—The *ochres* are similar to the boles, containing only more oxide of iron.—*Fuller's earth* has an earthy fracture, sometimes slaty, is dull and opaque. In water, it falls to powder, without forming a ductile paste. It is used to remove grease from cloth.—*Tripoli* is found loose or indurated; its fracture is earthy; it feels harsh and dry; does not adhere to the tongue. It is used for polishing the metals and glass.—The clays are too generally distributed to require the enumeration of their localities.

Clemence Isaure, daughter of Ludovico Isaure, born in 1464, near Toulouse, lost her brave father when she was only five years old. She was educated in solitude, and grew up, endowed by nature with beauty and talents. Near to her garden dwelt a young troubadour, named *Raoul*, who became enamored of her, and communicated his passion in songs, in which her name and his were united. The maiden replied, not with words, but with flowers, agreeably to the petition of her lover—

> Vous avez inspiré mes vers,
> Qu'une fleur soit ma récompense—

and Raoul could well interpret their meaning. He was the natural son of count Raymond of Toulouse, and followed his father to the war against the emperor Maximilian. In the battle of Guigenaste, both were slain, and Isaure resolved to take the veil. Before doing so, however, she renewed the poetic festival which had been established by the gay company of the seven troubadours, but had been, for a long time, forgotten, gave it the name of *Jeux floraux* (q. v.), and assigned, as prizes for the victors in the poetical contests, the five different flowers which had served her as means for replying to her lover's passion. These flowers were wrought in gold and silver. Clemence Isaure appropriated all her fortune to the support of this institution. She was versed herself in the *gaye science*, and, having fixed upon the 1st of May as the day for the distribution of the prizes, she composed an ode on spring, which acquired for her the surname of the *Sappho of Toulouse*.

Clement, Titus Flavius (probably a native of Athens, but, on account of the place of his residence, commonly called *the Alexandrian*), was one of the most famous teachers of the Christian church, in the 2d and at the beginning of the 3d century. He had been a heathen philosopher, was converted to Christianity, and, after travelling a long time in Greece, Italy and the East, became presbyter of the church of Alexandria, and teacher (*catechetes*) of the school in that city, in which place he succeeded Pantænus, his teacher, and was succeeded by Origen, his pupil. These three instructers increased the fame of the Alexandrian school in the 2d and 3d century. Clement was a fertile writer. The most important among those of his productions which have been handed down to us, are inscribed Προτρεπτικὸς, Παιδαγωγὸς, and Στρωματεῖς, or Στρώματα. The first is an exhortation to the heathens to embrace Christianity, the second an exposition of Christian morals, and the third, which exhibits the most varied erudition, has the title *Carpets*, on account of the variety of subjects, moral, metaphysical, theological, historical, which are here interwoven. It has been justly remarked that these works are an imitation of the degrees of the Greek mysteries. The first was the Ἀποκάθαρσις, the purification from the former life; the second, the Μύησις, the consecration; the

third, the Ἐποπτεία, inspection. The works of Clement are of great importance, as enabling us to judge of the state of science in his time, and because they contain fragments and accounts of lost works of antiquity. Clement introduced the eclectic philosophy into Christianity, and promoted the allegorical and mystical explanation of the sacred writings. The philosophy and erudition which gained him the admiration of his time, but also seduced him, at times, into singular speculations, caused him, at a later period, to be considered a heretic, and to lose, with the orthodox, the name of *saint*, which had been conferred on him. The first editions of his works are that at Florence, in 1550, and that at Heidelberg (Commelin.), 1592, by Frederic Sylburg, both in folio. The most complete is that of John Potter, Oxon., *A Theatro Sheldon*, 1715, reprinted at Venice, 1757.

CLEMENT; the name of many popes.—CLEMENT I, of Rome, was, according to the most probable computation, from 91 to 100, bishop in that city. He is counted among the apostolic fathers (see *Church, Fathers of*), because St. Paul, in his epistle to the Philippians (chap. iv. verse 3), mentions a Clement as a co-laborer with him, and St. Peter is said to have given him the spiritual consecration. He wrote two letters to the Corinthians, of which the first is extant almost entire, but disfigured with some corruptions and interpolations; of the second, only a fragment exists. There is a work, pretending to be the autobiography of Clement, containing an account of his life, and his travels with the apostle Peter, which, however, can be proved to have been written at the end of the 2d or the beginning of the 3d century. It exists in three different forms: the first and most complete is in a Latin translation by Rufinus, under the title *Recognitiones*, because Clement, after a number of the strangest adventures, finds the members of his family, who had been separated from him; the second is in Greek, and divided into homilies, under the title *Clementina*; the third is a short epitome, relating the acts, journeys and preaching of St. Peter. There is equally little reason for considering Clement the author of the body of apostolic constitutions and canons which are ascribed to him, though some of them may belong to him, or at least to his age. Of a far later origin are the pseudo-Clementine letters among the spurious decretals. The opinion started by professor Kestner, 1819, that Clement established a secret Christian society, under the name *Agape*, for the systematic suppression of paganism, has not been adopted by any other theologian.

CLEMENT II (Suidger, bishop of Bamberg) was placed in the papal see by the emperor Henry III, in the room of the unworthy Benedict IX. He crowned this emperor, and held a synod for the suppression of simony. His death took place in 1047. He was probably poisoned by Benedict IX. (q. v.)

CLEMENT III (Guibert, archbishop of Ravenna, belonging to the party of the emperor Henry IV) was chosen pope in 1080, with the view of supplanting Gregory VII, and placed by violence in the Roman see (1084); maintained his situation as anti-pope, even after Gregory's death, against Victor III, who was chosen by Gregory's adherents, and against Urban II, with various success, till 1089. He was expelled by the Romans, and compelled to swear to renounce all claims to the papal authority; but, in 1091, he returned to Rome with Henry's army. Being again compelled to quit the city in 1094, he sought refuge at Henry's court, submitted, in 1099, to Urban's successor, Paschal II, and died at Ravenna, in 1100. He exercised the papal authority only in those provinces of Germany and Italy which were under the dominion of the emperor, and is not numbered among the legal popes. Consequently, the cardinal-bishop Paulus of Palestine, a Roman, chosen pope in 1187, was denominated *Clement III*. His government was rendered remarkable by a compact with the Romans, which put an end to the disputes that had previously been constantly occurring between them and their pontiffs, and strengthened his authority. He promoted the crusades, and supported Tancred in getting possession of the Sicilian crown. Tancred was a natural son of the duke Roger of Apulia. This pope died in 1191.

CLEMENT IV (Guido of St. Guilles, in Languedoc); previously counsellor to the king of France, and a lawyer. He was also the father of two daughters. When a widower, he became archbishop of Narbonne, cardinal-bishop of Sabina, and legate in England. He was chosen pope in 1265, by the party of Charles of Anjou, and conferred on this prince the crown of both the Sicilies, then possessed by Manfred. Clement assisted Charles against Manfred by instigating a crusade against the latter, and did not obtain possession of Rome himself until 1268, after a residence of two years in France (until

1267), and subsequently at Viterbo, and after the last prince of the Hohenstaufen stock, Conradin, had been beheaded at Naples. Not satisfied with having caused the fall of the house of Hohenstaufen in Italy, he wished to decide the dispute between Richard of England and Alphonso of Spain, respecting the imperial throne of Germany, but died, without having accomplished his object, at Viterbo, Nov. 29, 1269. He was distinguished, as a ruler of the church, by his power and resolution, as an excellent preacher, strict ascetic, and enemy to nepotism.*

Clement V (Bertrand d'Agoust, from Gascony), previous to his election, archbishop of Bordeaux, and an adherent to Boniface VIII, who was the most inveterate enemy of Philip, king of France; but on the death of Boniface VIII, Philip gained him over by promising to promote his election, and obtained from him a secret agreement to conform entirely to his wishes. He was indebted for his election (which took place in Perugia, June 5, 1305) to the artifices of Philip's agents, who outwitted the Italian cardinals. He remained in France, on account of the civil wars in Italy, was crowned at Lyons, and then travelled about the country at the expense of the king and the French clergy, until, in 1309, he finally fixed upon Avignon as the constant residence of the papal court. With him, therefore, the series of French popes (or those who resided in Avignon) commences. In consideration of his agreement above-mentioned, he released the king and his servants from the excommunication which Boniface had pronounced against them, declared the penal bulls of this pope against France invalid, made cardinals of the king's favorites, and resigned to the king the tithes of France for five years. He, however, defeated Philip's plan of placing his brother Charles of Valois on the throne of Germany, and, against Philip's desire, acquitted Boniface, after a tedious process, and long after his death, of the charge of heresy, at the council of Vienne. The holding of this council, which sat seven months, in 1311 and 1312, was the principal act of his reign. At this same council, in obedience to the wishes of Philip, he abolished the order of the Templars, and made salutary laws for the reform of the clergy and the monastic discipline, which, in honor of him, were denominated *Clementines*. (q. v.) He endeavored to confirm his power in Italy by a close connexion with king Robert of Naples, his vassal. With his assistance, he humbled Venice, on which he had imposed the interdict, in 1308, to punish this state for having taken possession of Ferrara, and, in 1309, issued a new act of excommunication, by which he pronounced the Venetians infamous and outlawed, abolished all the offices of their government, released the people from obedience, and annulled the laws. By a crusade against Venice, in which his legate subdued Ferrara, and by the confiscation of Venetian vessels and goods, he reduced the republic to complete subjection, and put an end to the war in 1313. Robert rendered him still greater service by restraining the power of the German emperor, and that of the Ghibeline party in Italy. The emperor Henry VII, although chosen by his influence, and bound to him by an oath of allegiance, knew well how to distinguish his rights in Italy from his obligations to the pope. On his march to Rome, in 1311, he found the whole of Lombardy in a state of revolt; and Clement refused him assistance, and even forbade his coronation, which Henry, however, extorted from the cardinals in Rome, in 1312. Henry, having engaged in a dispute with king Robert respecting the government of Naples, put him under the ban of the empire, and refused the pope's offer of mediation between him and his antagonist; upon which Clement issued bulls for the protection of his vassal, and excommunicated all the emperor's allies. Upon the emperor's death, Clement appointed Robert, in 1314, Roman senator and regent in Italy; but, in the midst of his plans for the complete subjection of this country, he died, April 20, 1314, at Roquemaure, in Languedoc. He left behind him an inglorious name. Constant embarrassments, extravagance and nepotism, made him covetous, and led him to practise the most unlimited simony. He did great injury to the church by grants of valuable benefices to laymen, allowed his nephews to waste the money collected for the crusades, and Avignon to become the seat of every description of vice during his reign, the impurity of his own morals compelling him to overlook the faults of others. His establishment, at the council of Vienne, of chairs for instruction in the Oriental languages at the universities; his encouraging the studies of the monks, and restricting, in some degree, the crying injustice of the inquisition, cannot compen-

* *Nepotism*, from *nepos* (nephew), denotes the undue partiality of the popes towards their relations, and their prodigal distribution of the offices and revenues of the church among them.

sate for the flagrant faults in his administration of the papal see.

CLEMENT VI was a ruler not unlike the foregoing. His name was *Peter Roger*. He was born of a noble family in 1292, at Maumont, near Limoges; at first a Benedictine monk and abbot of Fecamp, afterwards bishop of Arras and counsellor of king Philip, likewise archbishop of Sens and Rouen; in 1338, cardinal, and in 1342, pope at Avignon. By the distribution of numberless abbeys and bishoprics to his favorites, by the sale of church offices, and by ordering the jubilee to be celebrated every fiftieth year instead of every hundredth, he soon gave proofs of his avarice. The emperor Louis of Bavaria he treated with the greatest severity, following the footsteps of his predecessor. His bulls of excommunication even surpassed those of the preceding pontiff in the violence of their anathemas and their obloquy. The son of the king of Bohemia, Charles of Luxemburg, who had formerly been his pupil at Paris, and was entirely devoted to him, was, by his influence, chosen king of the Romans, in 1346, by a part of the German members of the empire; but Clement was not able to get him universally acknowledged; after the death of Louis, in 1347, he was forced to grant to his adherents unconditional absolution; and, in order to gain the members of the empire after the renunciation of the rival candidate Günther of Schwarzburg, he was obliged to consent to the reëlection of Charles IV (q. v.), in 1349, without being able to obtain the entire fulfilment of the conditions, disadvantageous to the German empire, on which he had procured him the crown. Clement was more fortunate in Italy, where the revolt in Rome, under Rienzi (q. v.), in 1346, was soon quelled, and this remarkable man came into his power. The assassination of Andrew, king of Naples, afforded him an opportunity of inducing his widow, Joanna, who was suspected of being an accomplice in the murder, to sell Avignon to the papal see, in 1348; in consideration of which, she received absolution, and was left in possession of her realm. Thus the pope gained his possessions in France at a cheap rate. For a Spanish prince, he founded, in 1344, the kingdom of the Canary Isles. His negotiations for a union with the Greeks and Armenians were without success. He died unregretted in 1352. He was mild and liberal, in fact too much so towards his relations, fond of women, and not even externally devout. Petrarch praises his good memory. His writings are unimportant. During the great schism, two popes bore the name of *Clement*, who were not accounted legitimate popes by the church. Robert, count of Geneva, bishop of Cambray, and cardinal, was elected pope at the age of 36, at Fondi, in 1478, by the French cardinals, who had abandoned pope Urban VI. He adopted the name of *Clement VII.* With him the great schism commenced, France, and, at a later period, Scotland, Lorraine, Savoy and Spain having joined him. He resided at Avignon, where he derived his support from annates and from the sale of benefices, and offered to allow the schism to be decided by a council of the church, but made no dispositions to bring this about. In Italy, he had no power, and was unable to protect the house of Anjou, in Naples. He died without reputation, Sept. 16, 1394. Still less power had the successor of the schismatic Benedict XIII, Ægidius Muñoz, from Barcelona, who was elected pope by three cardinals at Peniscola, in 1424, and called *Clement VIII.* He was supported by king Alphonso of Arragon, and resided at Peniscola until 1429, when he was induced, by receiving the bishopric of the Baleares, to give up his claims.

CLEMENT VII (Julius of Medici); a natural son of Julius of Medici, prior of the knights of St. John, under pope Julius II. He was legitimated by his uncle Leo X, made archbishop of Florence, cardinal and chancellor, and finally raised to the papal see (Nov. 19, 1523). His connexion with Francis I, king of France, involved him in a war with Charles V, to which he was by no means equal. The imperial army conquered and sacked Rome in 1527, imprisoned Clement for the space of seven months, in the castle of St. Angelo, and forced him to surrender all the strong places, and to pay a ransom of 40,000 ducats. Notwithstanding his flight to Orvieto, in which he was assisted by the French marshal Lautrec, he was compelled to perform this condition, and to appoint cardinals and prelates for money, to enable him ultimately to conclude peace with the emperor in 1529. He crowned Charles at Bologna in 1530, and obtained of him the reëstablishment of the family of Medici in the duchy of Florence. He was not able to prevent the progress of the reformation in Germany, and, in England, he even accelerated it, by issuing a bull against the divorce of Henry VIII, which instigated that monarch to a total rupture with the pope. France received from him a per-

nicious present in the person of his niece, Catharine of Medici (q. v.), whom he married, at Marseilles, in 1533, to the duke of Orleans, second son of king Francis I. He was intent on new schemes against Charles V, when he died, at the age of 56, Sept. 25, 1534. His morals have been commended; but as a ruler, he was weak, faithless, irresolute, unwise, and, in his enterprises, unfortunate. His main object was, the elevation of the house of Medici, and his reign brought no advantage to the church.

CLEMENT VIII (Hippolito Aldobrandini) ascended the papal throne by the influence of Spain, Jan 30, 1591. His refusal to acknowledge the French king Henry IV, whom he did not absolve till 1595, occasioned the limitation of his power in France; nor was he able to accomplish his wish of rendering Venice dependent on the papal see. On the other hand, he obtained sufficient political influence to maintain possession, without opposition, of the duchy of Ferrara, taken by force from the house of Este, in 1598; to mediate a peace between France and Spain, at Vervins, in 1598; and, having passed over in silence the edict of Nantes, and given his consent to the divorce of Henry IV from Margaret, he was able to prevent another war between the same powers in 1600. By favoring the Dominicans at the commencement of the dispute *de auxiliis gratiæ* (see *Grace*), and by denying canonization to Loyola, he brought on a rupture with the Jesuits, whose intrigues he counteracted in England. They were therefore suspected of having occasioned his death, which took place March 5, 1605. Clement, in 1592, caused a second edition of the Vulgate of pope Sixtus V to be prepared, with material alterations. His credulity was abused by an impostor, who pretended to bring an offer of submission to the papal see from the patriarch of Alexandria; and he was unsuccessful in an attempt to unite the Christians of St. Thomas (q. v.), in the East Indies, with the Roman Catholic church.

Clement IX (Julius Rospigliosi), born at Pistoia, in 1600, was, for 11 years, nuncio to Spain, in the service of the papal court, and cardinal and secretary of state under Alexander VII. He was elected pope June 20, 1667, distinguished himself, by his wisdom and mild and benevolent spirit, amongst the popes of his century. He endeavored to improve the finances of the Roman government; secularized the possessions of several ecclesiastical orders (the canons of St. Gregory, in Alga, at Venice; the Jesuits, and the brothers of St. Jerome of Fiesole) and convents, to procure means to enable the Venetians to equip themselves against the Turks, and even assisted them with troops and galleys; contributed to bring about the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle; put an end to the disputes with the Jansenists, by a compromise, in 1668, which, in honor of him, was called the *Clementine peace;* and likewise terminated the differences between Portugal and the papal chair, which had lasted many years, by confirming the bishops nominated by king Pedro. He banished the Jews from Rome, with few exceptions, and prohibited the missionaries from carrying on trade. He died, Dec. 9, 1669, of grief at the taking of Candia by the Turks. His court was splendid; his character noble, mild and rich in princely virtues, which ensured him universal love.

CLEMENT X (Emilio Altieri), born, 1589, of a patrician family of Rome, was admitted into the college of cardinals Nov. 26, 1669, at the age of 80, and came to the papal throne April 29, 1670. The first use which he made of his authority was to patronise his relations, one of whom, cardinal Paluzzi Altieri, completely governed him. He endeavored to diminish the taxes, and allowed the nobility to carry on wholesale trade; but was obliged to recall a decree which exempted the foreign ambassadors, in Rome, from the payment of duties. He had little influence in foreign countries. His reign was rendered remarkable by the commencement of the dispute with the king of France, concerning the right to dispose of benefices and church lands, which was claimed by that monarch, and had serious consequences under Innocent XI. He was an enemy to the diffusion of learning, and prohibited many useful writings. The festivities of the jubilee, which he celebrated in 1675, were increased by the presence of queen Christina of Sweden. He refused to countenance a league of Russia and other Christian monarchs against Turkey. His death, which took place July 22, 1676, was regretted only by his relations.

CLEMENT XI (John Francis Albani), born at Urbino, July 23, 1649, became cardinal in 1690, and was distinguished by his knowledge of business and enterprising spirit—qualities peculiarly valuable in a ruler during a period of great political perplexity, occasioned by the disputed succession in Spain. He was accordingly elected pope by one party to the dispute, Nov. 23, 1700. Rome had cause to rejoice that he showed himself an enemy to

nepotism, and succeeded in his severe regulations against the privileges claimed by foreign ambassadors for the quarter of the city in which they resided, on the ground that it ought to be considered as foreign territory. In the government of the church, and in the management of foreign affairs, he evinced more passionate violence than actual courage; and, with a striking want of political tact, more obstinacy and prejudice than decision of character. He resisted in vain the creation of the royal dignity in Prussia, and his partiality to the Bourbons, in the Spanish war of succession, proved injurious to him, particularly as he gave the imperial court other causes of dissatisfaction. He not only refused the request of the emperor Joseph to acknowledge his brother Charles in Spain, but likewise protested against the imperial right of the first bull, viz. the right claimed by the emperors, on their accession to the throne, of presenting candidates on the first vacancies which occurred in the ecclesiastical establishments of Germany, called *Stifter*. Neither threats of excommunication nor preparations for war prevented the imperial troops from entering the States of the Church and garrisoning Comacchio. Clement was compelled, in 1709, to cede Comacchio to the emperor, to dismiss 5000 of his troops, to grant to the imperial troops a free passage to Naples, and to acknowledge Charles III as king of Spain. He was thus completely separated from Philip V of Spain, who, for some years, gave up all connexion with Rome. He effected nothing by his protestation against the peace of Altranstädt and the election of king Stanislaus, and his nuncio was not admitted to the deliberations which resulted in the peace of Utrecht. Ingratitude and vexation were his rewards from the Jesuits, as well as from the Bourbons. Whilst in China, the Jesuits bade defiance to his prohibition of introducing heathen forms into Christian worship, ill-treated his envoys, and finally compelled him to comply with their wishes: they led him, from a spirit of revenge towards the Jansenists in France, into measures injurious to the church and the papal authority. (See *Unigenitus*.) Clement entered into a contest, in 1713, respecting the rights of the crown of Sicily in church affairs, which neither his abolishment of the privilege nor his excommunication of Sicily could terminate, and he was at last compelled to yield, on account of the burdensome obligation of supporting the many priests and monks who had fled from Sicily, and looked to him for aid as martyrs in his cause. None but the English pretender, whom he supported in Rome from the year 1717, and the king of Portugal, for whom he established a patriarchate in Lisbon, were sincerely devoted to him. In the government of the States of the Church, he proved himself well disposed. He enriched the library of the Vatican with Oriental manuscripts, and by the addition of his private library. In Bologna, he founded an academy of the fine arts, and was a general friend and patron of science. He was himself versed in theology, and occasionally preached at St. Peter's church. He died of an illness occasioned by excessive indulgence in confectionary, March 19, 1721. This pope lived at a time when the decline of the papal authority was becoming evident.

Clement XII (Laurentius Corsini), a native of Florence, was born April 7, 1652, and created pope July 12, 1730. His relations with the Catholic powers were attended with as much trouble and vexation as those of his predecessor. He was forced to bestow on the infant of Spain, only eight years of age, the cardinal's hat and the archbishopric of Toledo; to submit to the levying of troops by the Spaniards in the States of the Church, and, after a commotion thereby created, to admit a Spanish garrison into his dominions, and to allow Parma, long a papal fief, to pass, first to an infant and then to the German emperor, without gaining any thing by his submission but some advantageous reservations in the *concordat* made with Spain, 1737. He had a dispute with Venice concerning the privilege claimed by the ambassadors, of having their quarter of the city exempt from the jurisdiction of the Roman government, and at last submitted. Nor was his opposition to the royal right of patronage over the ecclesiastical benefices in Savoy more effectual, notwithstanding his threat of excommunicating the king. He did not even succeed in obtaining the little republic St. Marino. Convinced that he could gain nothing from the Catholics, Clement bent his thoughts seriously to the conversion of heretics, and therefore omitted the annual proclamation of the bull *In cœna Domini*. Another bull, in which, unacquainted with the particular circumstances of the case, he promised the Protestants in Saxony to leave them the property of the church, which had been secularized during the reformation, if they would become Catholics, like their elector, only exposed him to ridicule. His preachers

of repentance in Silesia made no impression on the Protestants. The submission of the patriarch in Constantinople was prevented by the Greeks, and the gratification of the sanguine hopes of the pope was limited to the conversion of a prince of Morocco, whom he then had to maintain, and of a Swedish count Bielke, whom he made Roman senator. He provided for future conversions by instituting an ecclesiastical seminary for young Greeks in Calabria, which was named, after him, the *Corsinian seminary*. He improved the police of Rome, by abolishing the asylums, and by prohibiting articles of luxury; supported the pawn-house; erected a foundling hospital, and buildings for the embellishment of Rome; collected statues in the capitol, and Oriental manuscripts in the Vatican (where, at that time, Syriac manuscripts were published), and promoted learning in general. Notwithstanding a state lottery, of which he received the chief profits, and also three jubilees held during his reign, which yielded large sums, his nepotism, his love of splendor, and his luxurious habits, greatly exceeded his means, and he died in debt, Feb. 6, 1740.

Clement XIII (Charles Rezzonico), born in 1693, at Venice, was made pope July 6, 1758, by the influence of the empress Maria Theresa and the Jesuits. In acknowledgment of the aid of the former, he conferred on her the title of *apostolic majesty*, and promoted the interests of the latter at the expense of his honor and peace. During his government, they were expelled from Portugal, Spain, France, Naples, Sicily and Parma, and took refuge with him. Though these fugitives were a great burden to him, he still favored their order in a particular bull, in 1765, without, however, being able to prevent its decline. The persecution of his favorites happened at a time when he was engaged in disputes respecting the privileges of the church in Parma, and, by his arrogance towards the Bourbons, had lost Avignon, Venaissin and Benevento; when his reservation of benefices in Spain was rejected, the tribute of Naples refused, and Germany was instructed, by Justus Febronius, respecting the limits of the papal authority. During this period, too, Rome twice suffered from famine, viz. in 1764 and 1766. He was governed entirely by his secretary of state, Torreggiano, and the general of the Jesuits, Ricci, and even ventured, in 1768, by repeating the bull *In cœna Domini*, in a threatening brief to Parma, to irritate all the Catholic courts, and died in the midst of contentions, Feb. 2, 1769. He was a weak, desponding old man, whose untimely zeal gained the appearance of energy only by the violent measures of his two counsellors.

Clement XIV (Giovanni Vincenzo Antonio Ganganelli), son of a physician, born at St. Arcangelo, near Rimini, in 1705, entered the order of Minorites in his 18th year, studied philosophy and theology, soon became a teacher himself, and gained the affection and esteem of his pupils. He instilled into them exalted sentiments and feelings, and endeavored to free them from all monkish habits and narrow-minded ideas. The keen-sighted Benedict XIV, we are told, once laid his hand on Ganganelli's head, and said to the general of his order, "Take good care of this brother; I recommend him particularly to your charge." During the government of this pope, Ganganelli obtained the important station of counsellor of the holy see. Benedict, who beheld in him German phlegm joined to Italian vivacity, often consulted him. "He unites," he said, "solid judgment to deep knowledge, and is a thousand times more modest than an ignorant man, and as cheerful as if he had never lived in retirement." Clement XIII bestowed the cardinal's hat upon Ganganelli; but, great as were his virtues and talents, there was not the most distant prospect of seeing him in the chair of St. Peter. The freedom with which he expressed himself on the necessity of submitting wisely to the will of monarchs seemed little calculated to gain the favor of the rest of the cardinals. In the congregations of cardinals, held under the eye of the pope, relating to the duchies of Parma and Piacenza, and to the affairs of the Jesuits, he gave his opinion so directly in opposition to the pope and the secretary of state, that his advice was no longer asked. "If the Roman court is not to be precipitated from its exalted station," he often exclaimed, "it is necessary to preserve the favor of monarchs; for their arms extend beyond the bounds of their dominions, and their power reaches over the Alps and the Pyrenees." These sentiments were displeasing at Rome, but ensured him powerful supporters on the occasion of a vacancy in the papal chair. Clement XIII died; the conclave was violent and disunited, until the eloquence of the cardinal Bernis prevailed, and Ganganelli was proclaimed, May 19, 1769, head of the church, although he was not a bishop. No pope, perhaps, had ever been elected under more difficult circum-

stances. Portugal, which was on ill terms with the holy see, wished to put itself under the government of a patriarch; the manner in which the duke of Parma had been treated had displeased the kings of France, Spain and Naples; Venice was determined to reform the ecclesiastical orders without the pope's interposition; Poland was endeavoring to reduce the papal authority; even the Romans murmured. Clement began his reign with laboring to reconcile the monarchs; sent a nuncio to Lisbon; suppressed the bull *In cœna Domini*, which had incensed the potentates, and negotiated with Spain and France. When called on to abolish the order of the Jesuits, he wrote, "I am the father of all believers, and particularly of ecclesiastics. I dare not dissolve a distinguished order without reasons to justify the act before God and posterity." Finally, after several years of negotiation, he issued the famous brief, July 21, 1773, termed *Dominus ac Redemtor noster*, which abolished the order. But from that time he led a life of anxiety, fear and repentance; his strength declined. "I am going into eternity," he said, "and I know the cause." He died Sept. 22, 1774. The words of the pope gave rise to suspicions of his having been poisoned; which were the more readily admitted as the pope himself countenanced them by taking antidotes. But these suspicions are negatived by the opinion of physicians, and it is believed that his saying, above quoted, refers to the grief he felt for having yielded to the wishes of the sovereigns in abolishing the Jesuits without being convinced of the necessity of the measure. Carlo Giorgi, one of his officers, honored the memory of his benefactor by erecting a marble monument to him in the church of the apostles in Rome, which Canova executed according to a plan of Volpato. Since Sixtus V, no pope has sat in the chair of St. Peter, who has governed with more wisdom and independence. Clement was distinguished for his enlightened spirit, political sagacity and erudition, excellence of character, firmness and activity. He was a patron of the arts and sciences, and the founder of the *Museo Clementino*, a great ornament of the Vatican.*

Clement, Jacques, the assassin of Henry III, king of France, born at the village of Sorbon, in the archbishopric of Rheims, had been but a short time a member of the order of Dominicans, and was only 25 years old, when the party-spirit of the League (q. v.) instigated the weak-headed enthusiast to assassinate the king. (See *Henry III.*) His prior, Bourgoing, in particular, to whom he confided his project, encouraged him, and exhorted him to pray and fast, that the will of God might be made known to him. It is said that a nocturnal voice, which he was made to hear, called upon him to free his country from the tyrant. The duchess of Montpensier, sister of the Guises (see *Guise, Henry*), is accused of having confirmed him in his determination, and of having encouraged him by the assurance that, if he escaped, he should be raised to the cardinalship by the pope, and if he perished, he should be placed amongst the saints. The enthusiast repaired, in July, 1589, from Paris to St. Cloud, where the king resided. The *procureur-général*, to whom he was conducted, suspected him, and caused him to be watched at night, when he was discovered fast asleep, with the place treating of the murder of Holofernes by Judith lying open in the breviary before him. The following morning, he was brought before the king, and pretended to be the bearer of important despatches from Paris; but, whilst the king was reading the letter handed him by the traitor, Clement stabbed him, and left the knife in the wound. Two courtiers, Lognac and Guesle, who entered upon hearing the king's cries, instantly stabbed the assassin. Clement's corpse was placed on a hurdle, and drawn to the place of execution, where it was torn by four horses, and burnt. The wild madness of party-spirit, of which he was made the instrument, considered him as a martyr. His mother, some time after, appearing at Paris, the monks exhorted the people to go to meet the holy mother of the saint. His image was placed on the altars, and the earth which had drank his blood at St. Cloud was collected. Even the pope Sixtus V pronounced the eulogy of the assassin in the assembly of the cardinals, and compared him to Judith and Eleazar.

Clementi, Muzio; one of the greatest performers and composers for the pianoforte now living, and the only distinguished performer on this instrument, among the Italians, who can be opposed to Bach. The French have called him, in jest, the *papa of the living piano-forte players*, partly on account of his age, and partly from

* The story that the proper name of Ganganelli was John Gottfried Lange; that he was born Oct. 22, 1702, at Lauban; had been a printer, and quitted Breslau without ever giving information of what had become of him, is by no means proved.

his having been the instructer of many distinguished performers of the present generation (Cramer, Field, &c.), and the founder of a new school. He was born in Rome, in 1752. His father, a silversmith, was himself fond of music, and had his son instructed as well as his means allowed, young Clementi showing great talent and inclination for this art. Buroni, one of his relations, was his first master. In his 7th year, an organist, Cordicelli, instructed him in thorough-base, and, in his 9th year, he passed an examination as an organist. He then received instruction from the famous singer Santarelli, and from Carpini, the celebrated contrapuntist. At this time, in his 12th year, he wrote a mass for four voices, which was received with great applause. He had made such progress in his performance on the piano-forte, that an Englishman, Mr. Beckford, was anxious to take him to England. The father at length consented, and young Clementi studied at the country-seat of Mr. Beckford, in Dorsetshire, and soon made himself master of the English language. In his 18th year, he far excelled all his contemporaries in skill and expression, and published his *Opus II*, which formed a new epoch in this species of composition. It has furnished the basis of all modern sonatas for the piano-forte, and its simplicity and novelty have attracted the admiration of all connoisseurs and amateurs. After leaving Dorsetshire, he was engaged as director of the orchestra of the opera in London. His fame increased rapidly. In the year 1780, he went to Paris, where he was received with enthusiasm. From thence he proceeded, in the summer of 1781, to Vienna, where he became acquainted with Mozart and Haydn, and played before the emperor Joseph II with the former. He likewise published several compositions. In 1784, he repeated his visit to Paris, but, after that, remained in England till 1802.—The loss which he sustained from the failure of a large commercial establishment induced him to give lessons in music for a time. In his leisure hours, he occupied himself with playing on the piano-forte, and the improvement of this instrument. He had previously published his famous Introduction to the Art of Piano-forte Playing. In the year 1802, he went to Paris, for the third time, with his scholar Field; from thence to Vienna and to St. Petersburg, where Field remained. Clementi was universally admired. From Petersburg, the piano-forte player Zeuner followed him to Berlin and Dresden. From Dresden, he was accompanied by Klengel the organist, who was anxious to improve under his care. At Berlin, Clementi married his second wife, whom he took with him into Italy, but lost on his return to Berlin. He then went anew to St. Petersburg, with the distinguished piano-forte performer and instructer Berger, and afterwards returned again to Vienna. In the following year, family concerns carried him to Rome and Milan. In the summer of 1810, he ventured, notwithstanding the closure of the continental ports, to return to England, where he arrived safely, and married his third wife. In the mean time, he continued to compose, and wrote some grand symphonies for the philharmonic society. One of his most valuable works is his *Gradus ad Parnassum*, which occupied him a long time. He has likewise superintended the construction of instruments, and this business has been very lucrative to him. He has one of the principal musical establishments in London, his instruments being highly esteemed. In 1820, he again went to the continent, and remained at Leipsic till Easter in 1821, where two new symphonies of his were performed. Notwithstanding his great age, he possesses all his former liveliness and activity. His compositions are as pleasing as they are thoroughly correct and pure in their style. His performance has great execution, and he plays extempore with distinguished ability.

Clementines; the name given to certain ordinances proceeding from popes of the name of *Clement*, chiefly such as were given at the council of Vienne, in 1311, by Clement V (q. v.), and which form a part of the *corpus juris canonici*. (See *Canon Law*.)

Cleobis and Biton. Herodotus relates an affecting story of these two youths, the sons of Cydippe, chief-priestess of Juno at Argos. At the Ἡραῖα, a feast in honor of Juno, it was customary for the chief-priestess to be drawn by two white oxen. On one occasion, the procession had already begun to move, and the oxen had not arrived; upon which Cleobis and Biton drew the chariot of their mother, for the distance of 45 stadia, up the mountain where the temple of Juno stood. The people applauded, and the mother was so affected by this instance of filial affection, that she begged the goddess to grant her sons the best gift which could be conferred on mortals. While the youths were yet in the temple, a soft sleep fell upon

them, and they never awoke. (*Herodot.* i, 31.) The Argives placed the statues of Cleobis and Biton in the temple at Delphi, and in a temple at Argolis they were represented drawing the chariot of their mother. (*Pausan.* ii, 20.)

CLEOBULUS; one of the *seven wise men*, as they were called; a native of Lindus, or, according to some, of Rhodes, or Caria. He travelled to Egypt to learn wisdom, like many of the sages of Greece. He was king of Rhodes, and was succeeded on the throne by his daughter Cleobulina. Several of his sayings are extant.

CLEOMBROTUS; son of Pausanias, king of Sparta. During his reign began the Theban war, in which he commanded the Spartans against Epaminondas and Pelopidas. He was killed in the battle of Leuctra, which happened July 8, 371 B. C., according to the Julian calendar. (See *Epaminondas.*)

CLEOMENES; the name of three kings of Sparta, the most distinguished of whom is Cleomenes III, son of Leonidas. He intended to reform Sparta, and to restore the institutions of Lycurgus, after the example of Agis, his brother, who had lost his life in a similar attempt. Cleomenes distinguished himself in a war against the Achæans, commanded by Aratus. Returning to Sparta with a part of the army, he put to death the ephori, made a new division of lands, and introduced again the old Spartan system of education, made his brother his colleague, and provided that in future two kings should always sit on the throne of Sparta. He lived very simply, was just and friendly towards every body. He treated his enemies with generosity; for instance, the Achæans, who had begun a new war and were conquered. He showed himself an able general, in a war against the Macedonians and Achæans united, but, at last, lost the important battle of Sellasia. Cleomenes fled to Egypt, where he was supported by Ptolemy Euergetes, but his son Ptolemy Philopator kept Cleomenes in confinement; upon which he and 12 fellow-prisoners killed each other. With Cleomenes expired the race of the Heraclidæ which had sat on the throne of Sparta.

CLEON. (See *Pericles.*)

CLEOPATRA. Amongst several Egyptian princesses of this name, the most renowned was the eldest daughter of Ptolemy Auletes, wife to his eldest son Ptolemy, with whom she shared the throne of Egypt. Both were minors at the death of their father, and were placed under the guardianship of Pothinus and Achilles, who deprived Cleopatra of her share in the government. She went to Syria, and was forming plans for obtaining her rights by force, when Cæsar (q. v.) came to Alexandria, and, captivated with her youthful charms, seconded her claims; and though the people of Alexandria were excited to a revolt by the arts of her brother, Cæsar succeeded in pacifying them, and procured Cleopatra her share of the throne. But Pothinus stirred up a second revolt, upon which the Alexandrian war commenced, in which the elder Ptolemy losing his life, Cæsar proclaimed Cleopatra queen of Egypt; but she was compelled to take her brother, the younger Ptolemy, who was only 11 years old, as her husband and colleague on the throne. Cæsar continued some time at Cleopatra's court, and had a son by her named Cæsarion. After Cæsar's departure, she governed undisturbed. She subsequently made a journey to Rome, where Cæsar received her magnificently, and erected a statue to her, next to the statue of Venus, in the temple consecrated to that deity. This act, however, excited the displeasure of the people, and Cleopatra soon returned to her own dominions. When her brother, at the age of 14, demanded his share in the government, Cleopatra poisoned him, and remained sole possessor of the regal power. During the civil war in Rome, she took the part of the triumvirs, and, after the battle of Philippi, she sailed to join Antony at Tarsus. She was then 25 years old, and combined with extraordinary beauty great wit and the highest elegance of manners. She appeared in a magnificently decorated ship, under a golden canopy, arrayed as Venus, surrounded by beautiful boys and girls, who represented Cupids and Graces. Her meeting with Antony was attended by the most splendid festivals. After having accompanied him to Tyre, she returned to Egypt. Antony followed her, and gave himself up to the most extravagant pleasures. She accompanied him on his march against the Parthians, and, when he parted from her on the Euphrates, he bestowed Cyrene, Cyprus, Cœlesyria, Phœnicia, Cilicia and Crete on her, to which he added part of Judea and Arabia, at her request. After this, Antony conquered Armenia, returned triumphantly to Egypt, and made his three sons by Cleopatra, and also Cæsarion, kings. Now commenced the war between Octavius and Antony; but, instead of acting prompt-

ly against his adversary, Antony lost a whole year in festivals and amusements with Cleopatra at Ephesus, Samos and Athens, and at last determined to decide the contest by a naval battle. At Actium (q. v.) the fleets met. Cleopatra, who had brought Antony a reinforcement of 60 vessels, suddenly took to flight, and thus caused the defeat of her party; for Antony, as if under the influence of frenzy, immediately followed her. They fled to Egypt, and declared to Octavius that if Egypt were left to Cleopatra's children, they would thenceforth live in retirement. But Octavius demanded Antony's death, and advanced towards Alexandria, which Antony hastened to defend. Cleopatra determined to burn herself with all her treasures, but Octavius pacified her by private messages. These communications, however, did not remain concealed from Antony, who, supposing Cleopatra treacherous, hastened to her, to avenge himself by her death. She, however, escaped, and took refuge in the monument destined for her sepulchre, which she had erected near the temple of Isis, and caused the report of her suicide to be circulated. Antony now threw himself upon his sword, but before he expired was informed that Cleopatra was still living, upon which he caused himself to be carried into her presence, and breathed his last in her arms. Octavius succeeded in getting Cleopatra into his power, who still hoped to subdue him by her charms; but her arts were unavailing, and, becoming aware that her life was spared only that she might grace the conqueror's triumph, she determined to escape this ignominy by a voluntary death. She ordered a splendid feast to be prepared, desired her attendants to leave her, and put an asp, which a faithful servant had brought her, concealed amongst flowers, on her arm, the bite of which caused her death almost immediately (B. C. 30). Octavius, in his triumphal procession, had a portrait of the queen, with a serpent on her arm, carried before him. Her body was interred near that of Antony. At the time of her death, she was 39 years old, and had reigned 22 years.

Clepsydra (Greek, κλεψύδρα, from κλέπτω, I steal, and ὕδωρ, water) was the name of an instrument intended to measure time by the falling of drops of water, and not unlike our hour-glasses. The length of time which it measured was not uniform. (*Plin.* Ep. ii, 11.) They were an important instrument in the Greek and Roman courts. To prevent the lawyers from speaking too long, a particular period was assigned to them, to be determined by the clepsydra, and, in Greece, an ἐφίδωρ was appointed to watch the instrument and to prevent fraud. If the laws, quoted by the advocate, were read, the clepsydra was stopped (*aquam sustinere*). Sometimes advocates petitioned for more time; hence the expression, *dare* or *petere plures clepsydras*, or *clepsydras clepsydris addere*. Pompey, in his third consulate, introduced these instruments into the Roman courts. They were also used for domestic purposes. The *horologia ex aqua* was of a more artificial construction.

Clerfayt (Francis Sebastian Charles Joseph de Croix), count of, an Austrian general, born in 1733, in the castle of Bruille, near Binche, in Hainault, distinguished himself in the seven years' war, particularly in the battles of Prague, Lissa, Hochkirchen and Liegnitz, and was among the first who received the order of Maria Theresa, in 1757. During the insurrection in the Netherlands, in 1787, he rejected every proposal to betray the cause of Joseph II. In 1788 and 1789, he fought against the Turks as lieutenant-general field-marshal, and received the appointment of general of the artillery, and the grand cross of the order of Maria Theresa, in 1790. In 1792, he commanded an army of 10,000 men in the Netherlands, and lost the famous battle of Jemappes, no less honorable to the vanquished than to the victor. His subsequent retreat towards the Rhine, with a handful of followers, closely pursued by the enemy, added much to his reputation. He gained advantages over the French at Nerwinden, Quievrain, Famars, Le Quesnoi, &c. In 1794, he was opposed to Pichegru in West Flanders, and yielded to superior force only after seven well-contested combats. In 1795, he received the baton of field-marshal, and the supreme command of the imperial troops on the Rhine. He afterwards resigned his command to the archduke Charles, became a member of the Austrian council of war, and died at Vienna, in 1798, where a superb monument was erected to him by the city. Clerfayt united with the talents of a general all the qualities of a good citizen, and of an excellent man. His tenantry found in him the mildest master. His purse was always open to those of his dependents who needed and deserved his assistance; and all the obligations which they had given him for repayment, he burned on the day before his death. He was simple in his dress, but, when engaged against the enemy, he was never

seen otherwise than in his full uniform, and with the badges of the orders to which he belonged. "The day of battle," he said, "is the day of honor to the warrior."

CLERGY (from the Latin *clerus*, derived from the Greek κλῆρος, the share or heritage) signifies the body of ecclesiastical persons, in contradistinction to the *laymen*. The Greek word was applied in this sense, in order to indicate that this class was to be considered as the particular inheritance and property of God—a metaphor taken from the Old Testament. The *clerus* was divided, in the ancient church, into the high and low. To the former belonged the bishops, presbyters and deacons; to the latter, all the other ecclesiastical persons. The support of the clergy in different countries constitutes an interesting subject in political economy, and has been investigated in a work entitled, *Remarks on the Consumption of the Public Wealth by the Clergy of every Nation*; London, 1822, 2d ed. (See *Church*, and *Ecclesiastical Establishments*.) When a Catholic priest receives the tonsure, he repeats a part of the 16th psalm, "The Lord is the portion of mine inheritance," &c. The Catholic clergyman, according to the doctrine of the Roman church, is endowed, in his spiritual character, with a supernatural power, which distinguishes him essentially from the layman, as the power to forgive sins, and to consecrate the bread, so as to convert it into the real body of Christ, &c.

CLERGY, BENEFIT OF. (See *Benefit of Clergy*.)

CLERK, John, of Eldin; the inventor of the modern British system of naval tactics, which is the more remarkable, as he was a country gentleman, not acquainted with navigation. In 1779, he imparted to his friends his new system of breaking through the line of the enemy. Lord Rodney first made use of it, in his victory of April 12, 1782, over the French, under De Grasse, between Dominica and Les Saintes. Since then, Clerk's principles have been applied by all the English admirals, and lords Howe, St. Vincent, Duncan and Nelson owe to them their most signal victories. (See Playfair's *Memoir*, in the *Transactions of the Royal Society of Edinburgh*, vol. ix., p. 1; also the article *Naval Tactics*.)

CLEVELAND; a post-town of Ohio, and capital of Cuyahoga county, on lake Erie, at the mouth of the Cuyahoga, at the point where the Ohio canal reaches lake Erie, 60 miles E. of Sandusky, 180 W. S. W. of Buffalo, 160 N. E. of Columbus; lon. 81° 46′ W.; lat. 41° 31′ N. It is a flourishing town, important from its situation at the termination of the Ohio canal, and from its connexion with the steam-boat navigation from Buffalo, and is one of the most considerable commercial places on lake Erie.

CLEVES, formerly the capital of the dukedom of Cleves, now the chief place of the Prussian circle of the same name (1080 square miles, with 210,000 inhabitants), is situated in a pleasant plain, a league from the Rhine, with which it is connected by a canal. The city contains 1000 houses, with 6000 inhabitants. It has many manufactures, particularly of wool, cotton and silk. The iron sarcophagus of a prince Maurice, of Nassau-Siegen, buried here, is surrounded by Roman urns, inscriptions, lamps, &c., which are found in the neighborhood. Prussia acquired Cleves as early as 1609; and, after it had changed masters several times, it came again into the possession of this government. It is now a strong fortress, lying on the small river Kermisdal, over against the Netherlands. The German dialect spoken here much resembles the Dutch.

CLIENTS, in ancient Rome, were citizens of the lower ranks, who chose a patron from the higher classes, whose duty it was to assist them in legal cases, to take a paternal care of them, and to provide for their security. The clients, on the other hand, were obliged to portion the daughters of the patron, if he had not sufficient fortune; to ransom him, if taken prisoner, and to vote for him, if he was candidate for an office. Clients and patrons were under mutual obligation not to accuse each other, not to bear witness against each other, and, in general, not to do one another any injury. Romulus, who had established this relation, in order to unite more firmly the patricians and plebeians, made a law that he who had omitted his duty as client or patron might be slain by any body. During a period of 600 years, no instance was known of a disagreement between the clients and patrons. This relation continued till the time of the emperors. It is certainly among the most interesting and curious which history mentions, and must be considered as one of the first attempts at a regular government; as the transition from a patriarchal state, in which family relations are predominant, to a well-developed political system, securing the rights and independence of the individual.—In modern times, the word *client* is used for a party to a lawsuit, who has put his cause into the hands of a lawyer.

Clifford, George, the third earl of Cumberland of that family, eminent both for his literary and military abilities, was born in Westmoreland, in 1558. He studied at Peterhouse in Cambridge. His attention, at this period, was principally directed to mathematics and navigation, in both which he became a great proficient. In 1586, he took part in the trial of queen Mary Stuart; and, in the course of the same year, sailed to the coast of South America, having under his command a small squadron, which sensibly annoyed the Portuguese trade in that part of the world. Two years afterwards, he commanded a ship in the ever memorable action with the "invincible armada;" and subsequently fitted out, at his own expense, no fewer than nine expeditions to the Western Islands and the Spanish Main, in one of which he succeeded in capturing a valuable plate-ship. His skill in martial exercises and knightly accomplishments on shore was no less distinguished than his naval tactics; and queen Elizabeth, with whom he was in great favor, not only appointed him her champion in the court tournaments, but employed him in the more serious task of reducing the headstrong Essex to obedience. He was made a knight of the garter in 1591. He died Oct. 30, 1605, in London.

Clifford, Anne, a spirited English lady, the only daughter of the above, was born in 1589. Her first husband was Richard, lord Buckhurst, afterwards earl of Dorset, by whom she had three sons, who died young, and two daughters. Her second husband was the eccentric Philip, earl of Pembroke, by whom she had no issue. This lady wrote memoirs of her first husband, as also sundry memorials of herself and progenitors, all of which remain in manuscript. In the course of her life, she built two hospitals, and erected or repaired seven churches. She also erected monuments to the poets Spenser and Daniels, the latter of whom was her tutor. She is, however, more celebrated for a high-spirited reply to sir Joseph Williamson, secretary of state, after the restoration, who had presumed to nominate a candidate for her borough of Appleby:—"I have been bullied," she writes, "by a usurper; I have been neglected by a court; but I will not be dictated to by a subject: your man sha'n't stand."

Cliffs, or Claves; certain indicial characters placed at the beginning of the several staves in a composition, to determine the local names of the notes, and the sounds in the great scale which they are intended to represent. The three cliffs now in use, viz., the F, or bass cliff, the C, or tenor-cliff, and the G, or treble cliff, by the several situations given them on the stave, furnish us with the means of expressing all the notes within the usual compass of execution, both in vocal and instrumental music, without a confused addition of leger lines, either above or beneath the stave.

Clifton, William, was the son of a wealthy mechanic of Philadelphia, and was born in that city in 1772. He early discovered great vivacity and intelligence, and a fondness for literature, but he was brought up in the manners and principles of the stricter order of Quakers, his parents being of that sect. The rupture of a blood-vessel, at the age of 19, debilitated his naturally feeble constitution so much that he was incapacitated for business, and was thus enabled to devote himself more particularly to the literary pursuits, of which he was fond. His first effusions, both in prose and verse, appeared in the newspapers, and other fugitive publications. He afterwards commenced a poem, entitled the *Chimeriad*, which he did not finish. In this the genius of false philosophy is personified with much spirit and boldness of imagination, under the character of the witch Chimeria. But the best of his productions is perhaps the Epistle to Mr. Gifford, published anonymously in the first American edition of Mr. Gifford's poems. It exhibits the author's poetical thought and power of versification to great advantage. But the hopes of future excellence, which these productions afforded, were not to be gratified. The pulmonary complaints of the author assumed a more decided character, and he died in December, 1799, in the 27th year of his age.

Climacteric (*annus climactericus*); a critical year or period in a man's age, wherein, according to astrologers, there is some notable alteration to happen in the body, and a person is exposed to great danger of death. The word comes from κλιμακτὴρ, derived from κλίμαξ, a ladder or stairs. The first climacteric is, according to some, the seventh year. The others are multiples of the first, as, 14, 21, &c. 63 and 84 are called the grand climacterics, and the dangers attending these periods are supposed to be great. Some held, according to this doctrine, every seventh year a climacteric; others allowed this title only to the product of the multiplication of the climacterical space by an odd number, as 3, 5, 7, 9. Others considered every

ninth year as a climacteric. The idea of climacterics is very ancient.

Climate. The ancients denoted by this name the spaces between the imaginary circles, parallel to the equator, drawn in such a manner over the surface of the earth, that the longest day in each circle is half an hour longer than in the preceding. According to this division, there were twenty-four climates from the equator, where the longest day is 12 hours, to the polar circle, where it is 24 hours. From the polar circle, the longest day increases so rapidly, that, only one degree nearer the pole, it is a month long. The *frigid zones*, so called, that is, the regions extending from the northern and southern polar circles to the corresponding poles, some geographers have divided again into six climates. We have learned from a more accurate acquaintance with different countries, that heat or cold depends not merely on geographical latitude, but that local causes also produce great variations from the general rule, by which a region lying near the equator should always be warmer than one remote from it. By the word *climate*, therefore, we understand the character of the weather peculiar to every country, as respects heat and cold, humidity and dryness, fertility, and the alternation of the seasons. The nature of a climate is different according to the different causes which affect it, and the observations hitherto made have led, as yet, to no definite result. In general, however, geographical latitude is the principal circumstance to be taken into view in considering the climate of a country. The highest degree of heat is found under the equator, and the lowest, or the greatest degree of cold, under the poles. The temperature of the intermediate regions is various, according to their position and local circumstances. Under the line, the heat is not uniform. In the sandy deserts of Africa, particularly on the western coast, also in Arabia and India, it is excessive. In the mountainous regions of South America, on the contrary, it is very moderate. The greatest heat in Africa is estimated at 70° of Réaumur, or 189½° of Fahrenheit. The greatest degree of cold at the poles cannot be determined, because no one has ever penetrated to them. The greatest altitude of the sun at noon, and the time of its continuance above the horizon, depends altogether on the latitude. Without regard to local circumstances, a country is warmer in proportion as the sun's altitude is greater and the day longer. The elevation of any region above the surface of the sea has likewise an important influence on the climate. But the nature of the surface is not to be disregarded. The heat increases as the soil becomes cultivated. Thus, for the last thousand years, Germany has been growing gradually warmer by the destruction of forests, the draining of lakes, and the drying up of bogs and marshes. A similar consequence of cultivation seems to be apparent in the cultivated parts of North America, particularly in the Atlantic states. The mass of minerals, which composes the highest layer of a country, has, without doubt, an influence on its temperature. Barren sands admit of a much more intense heat than loam. Meadow lands are not so warm in summer as the bare ground.* The winds, to which a country is most exposed by its situation, have a great influence on the climate. If north and east winds blow frequently in any region, it will be colder, the latitude being the same, than another, which is often swept by milder breezes from the south and west. The influence of the wind on the temperature of a country is very apparent in regions on the sea-coast. The difference in the extremes of temperature is least within the tropics. The heat, which would be intolerable when the sun is in the zenith, is mitigated by the rainy season, which then commences. When the sun returns to the opposite half of the torrid zone, so that its rays become less vertical, the weather is delightful. Lima and Quito, in Peru, have the finest climate of any part of the earth. The variations in temperature are greater in the temperate zones, and increase as you approach the polar circles. The heat of the higher latitudes, especially about 59° and 60°, amounts, in July, to 75° or 80° of Fahrenheit, and is greater than that of countries 10° nearer the equator. In Greenland, the heat in

* The cultivation of a new country is often attended by most disastrous consequences, which ought not, always, to be imputed to the improvidence of colonists. The new soil, the moment that it is broken up by the plough, and penetrated by the rays of the sun, must necessarily undergo a strong evaporation, and its exhalations, which are not always of a harmless kind, little elevated in the air, are condensed by the cold, which still continues to be sharp, particularly during the night. Hence arise those epidemic maladies which ravage colonies newly established. The destruction of forests, when carried too far, is followed by pernicious effects. In the Cape de Verd islands, it is the burning of the forests which has dried up the springs, and rendered the atmosphere sultry. Persia, Italy, Greece, and many other countries, have thus been deprived of their delightful climates.

summer is so great that it melts the pitch on the vessels. At Tornea, in Lapland, where the sun's rays fall as obliquely, at the summer solstice, as they do in Germany at the equinox, the heat is sometimes equal to that of the torrid zone, because the sun is almost always above the horizon. Under the poles, the climate is, perhaps, the most uniform. A greater degree of cold than any we are accustomed to, seems to reign there perpetually. Even in midsummer, when the sun does not go down for a long time (at the poles not for six months), the ice never thaws. The immense masses of it, which surround the poles, feel no sensible effect from the oblique and feeble beams of the sun, and seem to increase in magnitude every year. This is very remarkable; for there is the most undoubted evidence that these now deserted countries were, in former ages, inhabited. But, within a few years, large portions of this continent (if we may so call it) of ice have separated, and floated down to southern seas. This led the English government to adopt the project of penetrating to the north pole. Captains Ross and Parry, one after the other, have sailed as far as possible into the arctic ocean. (See *North Polar Expeditions.*)

From the general division of America into lofty mountainous *plateaus* and very low plains, there results a contrast between two climates, which, although of an extremely different nature, are in almost immediate proximity. Peru, the valley of Quito, and the city of Mexico, though situated between the tropics, owe to their elevation the general temperature of spring. They behold the *paramos*, or mountain ridges, covered with snow, which continues upon some of the summits almost the whole year, while, at the distance of a few leagues, an intense and often sickly degree of heat suffocates the inhabitants of the ports of Vera Cruz and of Guayaquil. These two climates produce each a different system of vegetation. The flora of the torrid zone forms a border to the fields and groves of Europe. Such a remarkable proximity as this cannot fail of frequently occasioning sudden changes, by the displacement of these two masses of air, so differently constituted—a general inconvenience, experienced over the whole of America. Every where, however, this continent is subject to a lower degree of heat than the same latitudes in the eastern portion of the earth. Its elevation alone explains this fact, as far as regards the mountainous region; but why, it may be asked, is the same thing true of the low tracts of the country? To this the great observer, Alexander Humboldt, in his *Tableaux de la Nature*, makes the following reply: "The comparative narrowness of this continent; its elongation towards the icy poles; the ocean, whose unbroken surface is swept by the trade winds; the currents of extremely cold water which flow from the straits of Magellan to Peru; the numerous chains of mountains, abounding in the sources of rivers, and whose summits, covered with snow, rise far above the region of the clouds; the great number of immense rivers, that, after innumerable curves, always tend to the most distant shores; deserts, but not of sand, and consequently less susceptible of being impregnated with heat; impenetrable forests, that spread over the plains of the equator, abounding in rivers, and which, in those parts of the country that are the farthest distant from mountains and from the ocean, give rise to enormous masses of water, which are either attracted by them, or are formed during the act of vegetation,—all these causes produce, in the lower parts of America, a climate which, from its coolness and humidity, is singularly contrasted with that of Africa. To these causes alone must we ascribe that abundant vegetation, so vigorous and so rich in juices, and that thick and umbrageous foliage, which constitute the characteristic features of the new continent." To these remarks Malte-Brun adds (*Universal Geography*, vol. v, book lxxv): "Assuming this explanation as sufficient for South America and Mexico, we shall add, with regard to North America, that it scarcely extends any distance into the torrid zone, but, on the contrary, stretches, in all probability, very far into the frigid zone; and, unless the revived hope of a north-west passage be confirmed, may, perhaps, reach and surround the pole itself. Accordingly, the column of frozen air attached to this continent is no where counterbalanced by a column of equatorial air. From this results an extension of the polar climate to the very confines of the tropics; and hence winter and summer struggle for the ascendency, and the seasons change with astonishing rapidity. From all this, however, New Albion and New California are happily exempt; for, being placed beyond the reach of freezing winds, they enjoy a temperature analogous to their latitude." (For further information, see Malte-Brun's *Universal Geography*, book xvii, and the article *Wind*. Respecting the climate of

the U. States, see Darby's *View of the U. States*, chap. x, Philad. 1828.)

CLIMAX (from the Greek κλίμαξ, a ladder or stairs) and ANTICLIMAX are rhetorical figures; in the former of which the ideas rise in degree; in the latter, they sink. *Climax* was also the name of several mountains—one in Arabia Felix; another in Pisidia; another in Phœnicia; also of a castle in Galatia; also of a place in Peloponnesus, and another in Libya.

CLINGSTONE. (See *Peach.*)

CLINICAL MEDICINE (from the Greek κλίνη, a bed) teaches us to investigate, at the bed-side of the sick, the true nature of the disease in the phenomena presented; to note their course and termination; and to study the effects of the various modes of treatment to which they are subjected. From this mode of study we learn the character of individual cases; theoretical study being competent to make us acquainted with species only. Clinical medicine demands, therefore, careful observation. It is, in fact, synonymous with experience. What advances would medicine have made, and from how many errors would it have been saved, if public instruction had always followed this natural course, so that pupils had received none but correct impressions and distinct conceptions of the phenomena of disease, and had attained a practical knowledge of the application of those rules and precepts, which dogmatical instruction always leaves indefinite! We are unacquainted with the method of clinical instruction in medicine, which was followed by the Asclepiades, but we cannot help admiring the results of it as exhibited to us in the writings of Hippocrates, who augmented the stores of experience inherited from them, by following in their steps. After his time, medicine ceased to be the property of particular families, and the path of experience, by which it had been rendered so valuable, was soon deserted. The slow progress of anatomy and physiology, the constant study of the philosophy of Aristotle, and endless disputes respecting the nature of man, of diseases and of remedies, occupied all the attention of physicians; and the wise method of observing and describing the diseases themselves fell into disuse. Hospitals, at their origin, served rather as means of displaying the benevolence of the early Christians than of perfecting the study of medicine. The school of Alexandria was so celebrated, according to Ammianus Marcellinus, that a careful attendance upon its lessons entitled the student to pursue the practice of medicine. Another old and very thriving, although less known institution, was situated at Nisapour, in Persia; and hospitals, even before the flourishing period of the Arabians, to whom the happy idea is commonly ascribed, were united with these medical institutions. The last school, founded by the emperor Aurelian, and superintended by Greek physicians, spread the doctrines of Hippocrates through all the East. It was supported for several centuries, and in it, without doubt, Rhazes, Ali-Abbas, Avicenna, and the other celebrated Arabian physicians, were instructed. At the same time, the celebrated John Mesue, of Damascus, was at the head of the hospital of Bagdad. Of the mode of instruction pursued there, we know nothing; but we are inclined to form no very elevated opinion of the systems of an age which was devoted to all the dreams of Arabian *polypharmacy*. In truth, medicine shared the fate of all the other natural sciences in those barbarous ages. Men were little disposed to acquire, slowly and cautiously, the knowledge of disease, at the bedside of the sick, in the manner of the Greek physicians. It appears probable, that the foundation of universities led to a renewed attention to the study of medical science; and we find, accordingly, that in Spain, even under the dominion of the Arabians, there were schools and hospitals for the instruction of young physicians at Seville, Toledo and Cordova. But, even then, clinical studies were almost wholly neglected. Instead of studying the history of diseases, the pupils occupied their time with the most unprofitable pursuits. Not much more advantageous were the journeys which were made for the same objects to Italy and France, in the 11th and 12th centuries. The schools of Paris and Montpellier were those principally resorted to; but in these, the instruction consisted simply in lectures and endless commentaries upon the most obscure subjects; and, even at the close of the 15th century, when the works of the Greek physicians began to be printed, men were still busied with verbal explanations and disputes. Two centuries elapsed before physicians returned to clinical studies and instructions. Among the renovators of this mode of studying medicine may be named, in Holland, William von Straten, Otho Heurnius, and the celebrated Sylvius, about the middle of the 17th century; and it is said that clinical instruction was given, at the same period, in the schools of Hamburg, Vienna and Strasburg. Even Boerhaave,

who succeeded Sylvius as clinical instructor at Leyden, in 1714, has left us no journals of daily observation of disease, but only academic discourses upon the general principles of medicine. The influence of this celebrated school was first perceived at Edinburgh, and afterwards at Vienna,—two schools which, in celebrity for clinical instruction, soon eclipsed their common mother, the school of Leyden. Cullen, one of the most celebrated teachers of practical medicine at Edinburgh, was too fond of fine-spun theories upon the condition of the diseased structures of the body, and the proximate causes of disease, ever to follow a uniform method in his lectures, and to adopt the entire history of disease, as observed at the bedside, as the basis of his system. From the account of what was effected in clinical medicine in Italy, Germany and France, in the course of the 18th century, we may discover both the constantly increasing attention to this department of knowledge, and the difficulties with which such institutions are obliged to contend. The Vienna school, by means of the labors of Van Swieten, De Haen, and, still more, of Stoll and of Franck, became a model of clinical study, since public lectures were given in the hospitals, and the simplicity of Grecian medicine successfully inculcated. The practice and study of medicine, in the hospitals in France, was only an indirect mode of gaining public confidence, till the period of the general revival of science, and the erection of the French *École de Santé*. In that, for the first time, clinical instruction was expressly commanded. At the present day, every good school has its establishment for clinical medicine connected with it; that is, an hospital, in which diseases can be seen and studied by those attending it. In Germany, the empirical or experimental mode of studying medicine was early given up for the more scientific form of lectures; while in England and France, the opposite extreme took place, and students were carried, as they sometimes are still, to the bedside of the sick, before they had been properly grounded in elementary studies. In Germany, there are very numerous journals, which contain clinical reports of cases, as there are so many clinical institutions appropriated to particular classes of disease. In the American schools, clinical instruction is almost wholly overlooked, although some slight lectures of this description are given by the physicians of hospitals.—The clinical school is called *ambulatory*, when the patients attend only at particular hours; and it is termed *polyclinic*, when the instructer and his pupils visit together the beds of the sick.

Clinton, sir Henry, an English general, served in the Hanoverian war, and was sent to America, in 1775, with the rank of major-general, where he distinguished himself in the battle of Bunker hill. He was soon after sent against New York and Charleston, but without success. In a second attempt on New York, he entered the city, after having defeated the Americans on Long Island. Being appointed to the command of that station for the purpose of favoring the movements of general Burgoyne, his attempts were rendered ineffectual by the surrender of that general at Saratoga. In 1778, he succeeded Howe in the command at Philadelphia, which Washington obliged him to evacuate. In 1779, he obtained possession of Charleston. His connexion with Arnold (q. v.), his attempt to seduce the American troops by the offer of making up their arrears of pay, and his boast that there were more American royalists in the pay of the British king than there were soldiers in the army of Washington, illustrate the system of corruption then adopted by the British generals in America. In 1782, Clinton returned to England, having been superseded by general Carleton. He died in 1795. His Narrative of his conduct in America (1782), was answered by lord Cornwallis; to whom Clinton replied in Observations on Lord Cornwallis's answer (1783). He was also the author of Observations on Stedman's History of the American War (1784).

Clinton, James, the fourth son of colonel Charles Clinton, was born, Aug. 9, 1736, at the residence of his father, in Ulster county, New York. He received an excellent education, and acquired much proficiency in the exact sciences; but his ruling inclination was for a military life. He was appointed an ensign in the second regiment of the militia of Ulster county, by sir Charles Hardy, the governor, and rose to the rank of lieutenant-colonel in the same regiment, before the commencement of the revolution. During the war of 1756, between the English and French, he displayed much courage, and particularly distinguished himself at the capture of fort Frontenac, where he was a captain under colonel Bradstreet, and rendered essential service by taking a sloop of war on lake Ontario, which obstructed the advance of the army. The confidence which was reposed in his character may

be estimated by his appointment as captain-commandant of the four regiments levied for the protection of the western frontiers of the counties of Ulster and Orange, a post of great responsibility and danger, by which he was intrusted with the safety of a line of settlements of at least 50 miles in extent, which were continually threatened by the savages. After the French war, Mr. Clinton married Miss Mary de Witt, and retired from the army to private life. But he did not very long enjoy repose. June 30, 1775, he was appointed, by the continental congress, colonel of the third regiment of New York forces, the American revolution being then on the eve of commencement. In the same year, he marched with Montgomery to Quebec; and, in 1777, having been previously promoted to the rank of brigadier-general in the army of the U. States, commanded at fort Clinton, when it was attacked by sir Henry Clinton, in order to create a diversion in favor of general Burgoyne. After a gallant defence, fort Clinton, as well as fort Montgomery, of both of which his brother George, the governor, was commander-in-chief, were carried by storm. General Clinton was the last man to leave the works; but he escaped with a severe wound, and reached his house covered with blood. An expedition, soon after, having been planned to chastise the Iroquois on the frontier settlements, on account of some atrocities of which they had been guilty, the chief command was given to general Sullivan, who was ordered to proceed up the Susquehannah, while general Clinton was to join him by the way of the Mohawk. The junction was successfully accomplished, and, after one engagement, in which the Indians were defeated with great loss, all resistance ceased on their part, and, desolation being brought into their settlements, they fled to the British fortress of Niagara, where they died in great numbers, in consequence of living on salt provisions, to which they were unaccustomed. By this one blow, an end was put to their incursions and cruelties. During a considerable part of the war, general Clinton was stationed at Albany, where he commanded. He was at the siege of Yorktown, and here his conduct was marked by his usual intrepidity. He made his last appearance in arms on the evacuation of the city of New York by the British, when he bade an affectionate farewell to the commander-in-chief, and retired to his ample estates. He did not, however, enjoy uninterrupted repose, but was often called by his fellow-citizens to perform civic duties, such as those of a commissioner to adjust the boundary line between Pennsylvania and New York, of a member of the legislature, and of the convention which adopted the present constitution of the U. States, and of a senator; all of which offices he filled with credit to himself and usefulness to his country. General Clinton was of a mild and affectionate disposition, but when greatly provoked, displayed extraordinary energy. In battle, he was calm and collected. He died Dec. 22, 1812.

Clinton, George, the youngest son of colonel Charles Clinton, was born July 15, 1739, in Orange (then Ulster) county, New York. His education was superintended by his father, a gentleman of a highly cultivated mind, assisted by a minister of the gospel, named Daniel Thain, who had been educated at the university of Aberdeen. He evinced, at an early age, that spirit of activity and enterprise which marked his after-life. During what was called the *French war*, he left his father's house, and entered on board of a privateer, which sailed from the port of New York; and, after encountering great hardships and perils, returned home, and immediately accepted a lieutenancy in a company commanded by his brother James. He was present at the capture of fort Frontenac, now Kingston, where the company to which he belonged behaved with great gallantry.—After the usual time of study, he was admitted to the bar, and practised with much success in his native county, until his election to the colonial assembly, where he became the head of the whig party, or minority, and uniformly opposed the arbitrary course of the government. April 22, 1775, he was chosen a delegate to the continental congress; and, in 1776, he was also appointed brigadier-general of the militia of Ulster county, and, some time after, a brigadier in the army of the U. States. At the first election under the constitution of the state, which was adopted at New York, April 20, 1777, he was chosen both governor and lieutenant-governor. Having accepted the former office, the latter was filled by Pierre van Cortlandt. He continued in the chief magistracy of the state during six terms, or 18 years, when he declined a reëlection. In consequence of the great number of tories who resided in the state of New York, and its distracted condition, the situation of governor Clinton was more arduous and important than any other in the Union, save that of the

commander-in-chief. He, however, behaved with the greatest energy and intrepidity, not only as chief magistrate, but as actual head of the militia; and, for a long time, resisted the attacks of the whole British army, commanded by sir Henry Clinton. By a vigorous exertion of authority in the impressment of flour on an important occasion, he preserved the army from dissolution. His conduct at the storming of forts Montgomery and Clinton, in October, 1777, was particularly praise-worthy. He was greatly instrumental in crushing the insurrection under Shays, which took place in Massachusetts, in .1787. Governor Clinton was unanimously chosen president of the convention which assembled at Poughkeepsie, June 17, 1788, to deliberate on the new federal constitution. After remaining five years in private life, he was elected a member of the state legislature, at a time when the country was in an agitated and critical condition, and it is affirmed that his influence was the principal cause of the great political revolution which took place in 1801. At that period, he was also induced to accept again the station of governor, and, after continuing in that capacity for three years, he was elevated to the vice-presidency of the U. States, a dignity which he retained until his demise at Washington, April 20, 1812. He married Cornelia Tappan, of Kingston, Ulster county, by whom he had one son and five daughters, of whom but two daughters are still living. The following anecdotes are related of his energy and decision:—"At the conclusion of the revolutionary war, when violence against the tories was the order of the day, a British officer was placed on a cart in the city of New York, to be tarred and feathered. This was the signal of violence and assassination. Governor Clinton, at this moment, rushed in among the mob with a drawn sword, and rescued the victim at the risk of his life." "Some years afterwards, a furious assemblage of people collected, called the *doctors' mob*, and raged through New York, with the intention of killing the physicians of that city, and pulling down their houses, on account of their having dug up bodies for dissection. The violence of this mob intimidated the local magistracy. Governor Clinton fortunately appeared in person, called out the militia, and restored peace to the city." He discharged the functions of vice-president with great dignity. It was by his casting vote, whilst in that station, that the renewal of the bank charter was negatived. In private life, he was kind and amiable, and warm in his friendships; as a public man, he is entitled to respectful remembrance.

Clinton, De Witt, was born, March 2, 1769, at Little Britain, in Orange county, New York. He was of English origin. His father served with great distinction during the revolutionary war, and became a major-general in the army of the U. States. His mother was a De Witt, a member of the distinguished Dutch family of that name. Her parents had emigrated to America. He was educated at Columbia college, where he highly distinguished himself. He then commenced reading law with the late honorable Samuel Jones, and, in due time, was admitted to the bar. But before he was able to acquire any practice of importance, he was appointed private secretary to his uncle George Clinton, and continued in this office until the end of his relative's administration, in 1785. In the interim, he had been chosen secretary to the board of regents of the university, and to the board of fortifications of New York. In 1797, Mr. Clinton was elected a member of the legislature of New York, at the time when the two great parties, which have since divided the country, were organized, and embraced the republican or democratic side. In 1800, he was chosen by the council of appointment, of which body he was a member, to support their cause in a controversy between them and governor Jay. This was finally settled by a convention, which met at Albany, in 1801, when the constitution of New York was modified in various ways. The same year, he was chosen a member of the senate of the Union, in order to supply the vacancy occasioned by the resignation of general Armstrong, and continued a member of that body for two sessions. After that period, he was chosen mayor of New York, and remained in this situation, with the intermission of but two years, until 1815, when he was obliged to retire, in consequence of the violence of party politics. In 1817, he was elected, almost unanimously, governor of the state; the two great parties having combined for the purpose of raising him to that dignity—so high was the general sense of his talents and services. This harmony continued until the distribution of offices, when, of course, discontent was excited, and at that time commenced a systematic opposition to his administration. He was reëlected, however, in 1820, notwithstanding the great exertions of the opposite party, who

had induced Daniel D. Tompkins, then vice-president, and, from his popularity in his native state, emphatically termed the *man of the people*, to become his opponent. After his reelection, great resistance was made to his measures; but, fortunately, the canal scheme, of which Mr. Clinton was one of the prime movers and most efficient advocates, had been so firmly established, that it was secure from attack. Having nothing to fear for this favorite object, he proceeded in his plans of public improvement, notwithstanding the violence with which he was assailed; but in 1822, he declined offering himself again as a candidate, and retired into private life. In 1810, Mr. Clinton had been appointed, by the senate of his state, one of the board of canal commissioners; but the displeasure of his political opponents, who were, at that time, greatly predominant in the legislature, was excited by the enthusiasm evinced in his favor at the canal celebration, in October, 1823, at Albany, and they deprived him of his office. This act, however, for which no reason could be assigned, occasioned a complete reaction of the public feeling towards him. His friends did not suffer the opportunity to escape, but again brought him forward as a candidate for the office of governor, and carried him, by a most triumphant majority, over colonel Young. In 1826, he was again elected, by a large majority, over judge Rochester; but he died before this term was completed. His decease was in consequence of a catarrhal affection of the throat and chest, which, being neglected, occasioned a fatal disease of the heart. He expired almost instantaneously, whilst sitting in his library, after dinner, Feb. 11, 1828. His son was writing near him, and, on being informed by him of a sense of oppression and stricture across his breast, immediately called in medical aid; but before the physician could arrive, his father was no more. The next day, business was suspended in Albany. The public testimonials of respect paid to his memory, throughout the state and Union, were almost numberless. His body was interred with every honor. Mr. Clinton was tall, finely proportioned, and of a commanding aspect. In his domestic and social relations, he was cheerful and kind; in his friendships, warm and sincere; and in his moral character, unexceptionable. His manners were rather distant and reserved, in consequence of long habits of abstraction, and a natural diffidence, of which he never could divest himself. He was an early riser, and extremely laborious, every moment which he could spare from his necessary duties being devoted to the cultivation of his mind. No one was ever more ambitious of a reputation for science and literature. In some of the physical sciences he was especially versed, and his proficiency as a classical and belles-lettres scholar was very considerable. He was a member of a large part of the literary and scientific institutions of the U. States, and an honorary member of many of the learned societies of Great Britain and the continent of Europe. His productions are numerous, and consist of his speeches in the state legislature and in the senate of the Union, his speeches and messages as governor; his discourses before various literary, philosophical and benevolent institutions; his addresses to the army during the late war; his communications concerning the canal; and his judicial opinions; besides various fugitive pieces. As a public character, he is entitled to durable renown. His national services were of the greatest importance; the Erie canal, especially, although his title to the merit of being the originator of the project may be disputed, will always remain a monument of his patriotism and perseverance. He was, also, a promoter and benefactor of many religious and charitable institutions. In the performance of judicial duties, which he was called upon to discharge whilst mayor, and as a member of the court of errors, the highest judicial tribunal of New York, his learning and ability have received unqualified encomium. As a magistrate, he was firm, vigilant, dignified, and of incorruptible integrity. From none of his official stations did he derive any pecuniary benefit, though he had often opportunities of acquiring affluence. As an orator, he was forcible and manly, though not very graceful. Mr. Clinton was twice married. His first wife was Miss Maria Franklin, the daughter of an eminent merchant of New York, by whom he had seven sons and three daughters; of whom four sons and two daughters survive. His second wife was Miss Catharine Jones, the daughter of the late doctor Thomas Jones of New York, a lady of great excellence.

Clio; daughter of Jupiter and Mnemosyne; the muse of glory and history. Her attributes are, a wreath of laurel upon her head, a trumpet in her right hand, and a roll of papyrus in her left. (See *Mythology, Greek.*)

Clitus; son of Dropis, and brother of Hellanice, the nurse of Alexander the

Great. He was one of the generals of Philip and Alexander, and saved the life of the latter in the battle of the Granicus, by cutting off the hand of Rhosaces, who had just lifted his arm to kill Alexander. Notwithstanding this service, however, Alexander slew him in a fit of intoxication, on account of some irritating words. After the act was performed, he was penetrated with the bitterest remorse.

Clive, Catharine, a celebrated comic actress, was the daughter of a gentleman named *Raftor*, and was born in the north of Ireland, in 1711. When young, she was married to Mr. Richard Clive, a barrister; but the union was unfortunate, and, a separation taking place, she adopted the theatrical profession, in which she attained a distinguished rank. She filled and adorned a variety of comic parts; and, whether she exhibited the woman of good sense, of real fine breeding, the humorous, the fantastic, the affected, the rude, the awkward, or the ridiculous female, in any rank of society, she was sure to fascinate the audience; though her talents were peculiarly adapted to scenes of low life. Her lively, playful humor is exemplified by the following theatrical anecdote:—She performed at Drury lane theatre under the management of Garrick. One night, while playing the lady in Lethe, Mrs. Clive, in turning her head towards the stage-box, chanced to encounter the eye of Charles Townshend. That political wit pointed instantly to an old belle on his left, a very caricature of the ridiculous dame she was portraying on the stage. The actress paused for a moment, and burst into laughter. The galleries caught the jest, and joined boisterously in the mirth, clapping loudly with their hands at the same time. Mrs. Clive at length retired from the stage, of which she had been long a distinguished ornament, and passed the latter part of her life at Little Strawberry hill, near the Gothic villa of Horace Walpole, who, as well as many other persons of rank and eminence, courted her society, attracted by the wit and drollery with which she enlivened her domestic circle. Her death occurred in 1785.

Clive, Robert, lord Clive and baron of Plassey, was born in 1725, in Shropshire. He was sent to several schools, but to little purpose, and was said, by all his masters, to be the most unlucky boy in their schools. His father obtained for him the place of a writer in the East India company's service, and, in his 19th year, he went in that capacity to Madras. In 1747, he quitted the civil employment, and entered into the military service, for which nature had so peculiarly fitted him. During two years, public events gave him little opportunity to distinguish himself; but, when the English thought proper to engage as auxiliaries, in favor of a competitor to the reigning rajah of Tanjore, it was resolved to attack one of his forts named *Devi Cotah*, in which service Clive acted with great bravery, and was, soon after, appointed commissary to the British troops. About this time, M. Dupleix, taking part with a candidate for the subahship of the Carnatic, succeeded in placing him on the throne, on condition of raising Chundasaheb to the nabobship of Arcot. By this proceeding, he gained a large grant of territory for the French, and the collection of all the revenues in that quarter of the Hindoo empire. The ostentation and insolence with which they afterwards conducted themselves roused the indignation of the English, a body of whom, under the command of Clive, made an attack upon the city of Arcot, the boldness of which measure caused it to succeed; and, after a most complete victory, he returned to Madras, and, in 1753, sailed to England for the recovery of his health. A diamond-hilted sword was voted to him by the East India company, which he only accepted upon condition that colonel Laurence, who had similarly distinguished himself in the action, should receive a like present. He was also presented with the government of St. David's, with the right of succession to that of Madras, and a lieutenant-colonel's commission in the king's service. After a successful attack on the pirate Angria, in conjunction with admirals Pocock and Watson, he repaired to St. David's, but was soon called to Madras, to command the succors sent to Bengal, where the nabob Surajah Dowlah had attacked the English, destroyed their factories, taken Calcutta, and suffocated several of his prisoners in the black hole. Colonel Clive proceeded to Calcutta, and, driving out the enemy, took possession of the city, and, with a very inferior number of men, entered the nabob's camp, and seized his cannon; which alarmed him so much, that he offered terms which were adjusted much to the advantage of the company. The state of things rendering it impossible for this peace to last long, colonel Clive formed the project of dethroning the nabob, the execution of which was confided to Mr. Watts and himself; and one of the nabob's officers, named *Meer Jaffier*, joined them on condition of succeeding to his master's

dignity. A Gentoo merchant, named *Omichund*, was engaged to carry on the correspondence between Jaffier and the English; but, demanding a high sum for his services, a double treaty was drawn up, in one of which his demand was inserted, and both were signed; and the first only shown to Omichund, who, trusting to the faith of the English, performed his part. The nabob, suspecting what was going forward, commanded Meer Jaffier to swear fidelity and join his army; and the famous battle of Plassey ensued, in which, by comparatively a small body of troops, the nabob and his army were put to flight, and the company's success decided. To the deep disgrace of colonel Clive and the English, on the affair being decided, Omichund was informed that "the red paper was a trick, and he was to have nothing." The disappointment drove him mad, and, a year and a half after, he died in a state of idiocy. It should also be noticed, that the signature of admiral Watson, who was too honest to sign the paper, was a forgery. The new nabob, Meer Jaffier, who had come over at the close of the action, and had presented Clive with £210,000, now wished to govern without the interference of the English; but, three rebellions rising against him, he was obliged to solicit their aid, and colonel Clive suppressed two, but made a compromise with the third competitor, whom he thought would be a check upon the nabob's becoming too powerful. He was next appointed governor of Calcutta; and, soon after, a large force arrived at Bengal, on pretence of being sent to reënforce the garrisons belonging to the Dutch company. Suspecting that they were invited by the nabob, to destroy the English power, he attacked them, both by sea and land, with great success, capturing all their forces, and drawing up a treaty, signed by the Dutch, who agreed to pay all expenses, on the restitution of their property. For these services, he was created, by the great Mogul, an omrah of the empire, and received a grant of a revenue, amounting to £28,000 per annum from Meer Jaffier. He then again returned to England, where his success was much applauded, without much inquiry as to the means; and, in 1761, he was raised to the Irish peerage, by the title of *lord Clive, baron of Plassey*. He had not, however, been long in England, before a disagreement took place between Meer Jaffier and Mr. Holwell, who then officiated as governor, which ended in transferring the nabobship from the former to his son-in-law Cossim-Ally-Khan; but, in consequence of the shameful monopolies and usurpations of the English traders, the new nabob declared the trade of the country free for all. It was, in consequence, resolved to depose him, and restore Meer Jaffier; and, after a temporary success, he was obliged to take refuge with the nabob of Oude. On the news of these commotions reaching England, the company appointed lord Clive president of Bengal, with the command of the troops there; and, in July, 1764, he returned to India, being first created a knight of the Bath. Before his arrival, major Adams had defeated the nabob of Oude, Sujah-ul-Dowlah, and obliged him to sue for peace; so that lord Clive had only to settle terms of agreement with the country powers, which he did to the great advantage of the company, who acquired the disposal of all the revenues of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa. In 1767, he finally returned to England, being the chief contributor to the immense possessions of the East India company. In 1773, a motion, supported by the minister, was made in the house of commons, "that, in the acquisition of his wealth, lord Clive had abused the powers with which he was intrusted." The charges brought forward in support of this motion had a very serious aspect, but, with the assistance of Mr. Wedderburne, he made such a defence, that it was rejected, and a resolution passed, "that lord Clive had rendered great and meritorious services to his country," which, however, was no contradiction to the motion. From that time, his broken health, and probably his injured peace of mind, rendered him a prey to the most gloomy depression of spirits, under the morbid influence of which he put an end to his life and sufferings, at the age of 50, in November, 1774. A physiognomist would scarcely have been favorable to lord Clive, who possessed a remarkably heavy brow, which gave a close and sullen expression to his features; and he was, indeed, of a reserved temper, and very silent; but, nevertheless, among his intimate friends, could be lively and pleasant. He was always self-directed, and secret in his decisions, but inspired those under his command with the utmost confidence, owing to his great bravery and presence of mind. Lord Chatham characterized him as a "heaven-born general, who, without experience, surpassed all the officers of his time." His talents, in fact, were as great as his political morality was disputable; and, as in the case of Warren Hastings, the services done to his country have paralyzed the disposition to investi-

gate too nicely into the character of them. He was member of parliament from 1760 to his death, but seldom spoke; though, when roused, he could display great eloquence. In private life, he was kind and exceedingly liberal. He married the sister of the late astronomer-royal, doctor Maskelyne, by whom he had two sons and three daughters.

Cloacæ; subterranean works in Rome, of stupendous size and strength, constructed in the time of the Tarquins, for conducting off the overflowings of the Tiber, the waters from the hills, and the filth of the city. The *cloaca maxima*, or principal branch, received numerous other branches, between the Capitoline, Palatine and Quirinal hills. It has stood nearly 2500 years, surviving the earthquakes which have shaken down the palaces, churches and towers of the superincumbent city, and still stands as firmly as on the day of its foundation. It is formed of three concentric rows of enormous stones, piled above each other without cement. The height, inside, is 18 Roman palms, and the width about the same.

Clock. For many inventions which do honor to the human mind, we are indebted to the monks of the middle ages, who, in their seclusion, free from the necessity of providing for their support, employed the time during which they were not engaged in their devotions in the practice of various arts, both useful and useless. Among the inventions which we owe to them are clocks, or time-keepers, which are set in motion by wheels, pendulums and steel springs. The word *horologium* was in use, even among the ancients; and it might almost be inferred, from many expressions, that they possessed instruments similar to our pocket-watches and chamber-clocks. It is, however, certain, that their time-pieces were sun-dials, hour-glasses, and clepsydræ. The latter Julius Cæsar brought with him from Great Britain. It was a clepsydra which Cassiodorus, in the 6th century, recommended to his monks, when a cloudy sky prevented them from observing their sun-dials. The gourmand Trimalchio, described by Petronius, had a clepsydra in his dining-room, and placed a trumpeter near it to announce the hours. Vitruvius mentions an Alexandrian artist, who, 140 years before our era, combined spring-wheels with the clepsydra; but the account is too confused and incomplete to afford a correct idea of its construction. In an old chronicle, it is related that Charlemagne received a clock (see *Automata*) from Haroun al Raschid in 809, to which small bells were attached, and in which figures of horsemen, at the hour of twelve, came forth through little doors, and retired again. There is a more exact description of this work of art in the Franconian annals, attributed to Eginhard, in which it is particularly said to have been a clepsydra, and that, at the end of each hour, little balls of metal fell upon a bell, and produced a sound. It is not probable that the clock which Pacificus, arch-deacon of Verona, is said to have invented in the 9th century, could have been equal to our present clocks. The words on his tomb are so indistinct that nothing positive can be inferred from them. The discovery of clocks has likewise been attributed to the famous Gerbert of Auvergne, who afterwards became pope under the name of *Sylvester II*, and died in 1003; but Ditmar of Merseburg, a trustworthy witness, only relates that Gerbert placed a *horologium* in Magdeburg for the emperor Otho, after observing, through a tube, the star which guides the seamen. This must have been a sun-dial, which Gerbert placed according to the height of the pole. In the 12th century, clocks were made use of in the monasteries, which announced the end of every hour by the sound of a bell, put in motion by means of wheels. From this time forward, the expression "the clock has struck" is often met with. The hand for marking the time is also made mention of. Of William, abbot of Hirschau, his biographer relates, that he invented a *horologium* similar to the celestial hemisphere. Short as this account is, it still appears probable that this abbot was the inventor of clocks, as he employed a person particularly in arranging his work, and keeping it in order. This abbot died at the end of the 11th century. In the 13th century, there is again mention of a clock, given by sultan Saladin to the emperor Frederic II. This was evidently put in motion by weights and wheels. It not only marked the hours, but also the course of the sun, of the moon, and the planets in the zodiac. It is hardly probable that the Saracens learned the art of clock-making from the monks of European monasteries: perhaps, on the contrary, they were the real inventors of it, and the invention was made known to Europeans by means of the crusades. In the 14th century, there are stronger traces of the present system of clock-work. Dante particularly mentions clocks. Richard, abbot of St. Alban's in England, made a clock, in 1326,

such as had never been heard of till then. It not only indicated the course of the sun and the moon, but also the ebb and flood tide. Large clocks on steeples, likewise, were first made use of in the 14th century. Perhaps Jac. Dondi, in Padua, was the first who made one of this kind; at least, his family was called, after him, *dell' Orologio*. A German, Henry de Wyck, was celebrated, in the same century, for a large clock which he placed in a tower built by command of Charles V, king of France. This clock was preserved till 1737. Watches are a much later invention, although they have likewise been said to have been invented as early as the 14th century. The general opinion is, that Peter Hele first contrived them in 1510. One of their names was that of *Nuremberg eggs* (*Nürnberger Eier*). According to some accounts, the first trustworthy indications of their existence are found at the commencement of the 17th century. The pendulum (q. v.) Huygens (q. v.) invented. The honor of being the inventor of the balance-spring in watches was contested between him and the English philosopher doctor Hooke. To prevent friction, Facio, a Genevan, invented the method of boring holes in diamonds or rubies for the pivots to revolve in, which was found a great improvement. Thus chronometers had their origin, in which the English have attained great perfection. This nation also invented repeaters. An individual of the name of Barlow first made one, in 1676, for king Charles II; and Graham was the inventor of the compensation-pendulum (q. v.), in 1715. This was perfected by Harrison, who formed the pendulum of nine round rods, five of which were of iron and four of brass. With these pendulums the astronomical clocks are still provided, and perfect dependence may be placed in the regularity of their action. Amongst the important inventions of the 18th century, the astronomical clocks of the clergyman Hahn, in Echterdingen, Würtemberg, deserve to be particularly named. (See *Hahn*.) He formed the idea of measuring time in its whole extent. The principal hand in his instrument is that of universal history. This turns on a table, and indicates the principal epochs of history, according to the chronology of the Old Testament, and the great events of future times, according to the calculations of Bengel, founded on the Apocalypse. Its revolution embraces a period of nearly 8000 years. Another hand on this table marks the year of the century, and makes its circuit in 100 years. Still more remarkable is the representation of the motions of the planets known at the time of the inventor, and of the systems of Ptolemy and Copernicus. They and their satellites perform their revolutions in exactly the same time as they actually do in the heavens; and these automata not only have the central motion, but their course is also eccentrical and elliptic, like that of the heavenly orbs, and the motion is sometimes slower, sometimes quicker, and even retrograde. This instrument must have been the fruit of deep knowledge, indefatigable research, and the calculations of years. It is much to be regretted, that the limited means of the artist prevented his machine from being better finished, and that he was not acquainted with clock-making in its present advanced state, and with the excellent instruments which have been invented since his time. The country where watches are manufactured in the greatest numbers is French Switzerland, particularly at Geneva, La-Chaux-de-Fonds, Locle, &c., where they are made by thousands. Among French watch-makers, Berthoud, Breguet, Chevalier, Courvoisier, Preud'homme, and others, are distinguished. England and France have been active in perfecting the art of horology. The elegant Parisian pendulum-clocks are well known, in which the art of the sculptor is combined with that of the machinist. Elegance, however, is their principal recommendation. It is much to be regretted, that the present watches, even the finest, have not the finish which gave such great durability to those of former times. This is particularly the case with French watches. We speak now of the better sort of watches; the ordinary ones are hardly worth the trifling sum which they cost. Wooden-clocks are made chiefly in the Schwarzwald, or Black Forest, in South Germany, and furnish an important object of manufacture for this mountainous and barren country. It is said that 70,000 of such clocks are made there annually. Perhaps this account is exaggerated, but great numbers of the clocks are sent to North and South America, and all over Europe. The chief magazine of them is at Neustadt, in Baden. (For information on the construction of clocks and watches, see the article *Horology*.)

Cloister. (See *Monastery*.)

Cloots, John Baptist von; a Prussian baron, better known, during the revolutionary scenes in France, under the appel-

lation of *Anacharsis Cloots*. He was born at Cleves, in 1755, and became possessed of a considerable fortune, which he partly dissipated through misconduct. The example of his uncle, Cornelius Pauw, who published several popular works, inspired him with an inclination to become an author. He travelled in different parts of Europe, and formed an acquaintance with many eminent individuals, among whom was the celebrated Edmund Burke; but the politics of that statesman did not suit the irregular and ardent disposition of Cloots, to whom the French revolution at length opened a career which he thought worthy of his ambition. The first scene in which he distinguished himself was the ridiculous masquerade called the *embassy of the human race*, partly contrived by the duke de Liancourt. On the 19th of June, 1790, Cloots presented himself at the bar of the national assembly, followed by a considerable number of the porters of the French metropolis, in foreign dresses, to represent the deputies of all nations. He described himself as the orator of the human race, and demanded the right of confederation, which was granted him. At the bar of the assembly, April 21, 1792, he made a strange speech, in which he recommended a declaration of war against the king of Hungary and Bohemia, proposed that the assembly should form itself into a diet during a year, and finished by offering a patriotic gift of 12,000 livres. On the 12th of August, he went to congratulate the legislative assembly on the occurrences of the preceding 10th, and offered to raise a Prussian legion, to be called the *Vandal legion*. The 27th of the same month, he advised the assembly to set a price on the heads of the king of Prussia and the duke of Brunswick, praised the action of John J. Ankarstrœm, the assassin of the king of Sweden, and, among other absurd expressions, he said, "My heart is French, and my soul is *sans-culotte*." He displayed no less hatred to Christianity than to royalty, declaring himself the "personal enemy of Jesus Christ." In September, 1792, he was nominated deputy from the department of the Oise to the national convention, in which he voted for the death of Louis XVI, "in the name of the human race." This madman, becoming an object of suspicion to Robespierre and his party, was arrested, and condemned to death, March 24, 1794. He suffered with several others, and, on his way to the guillotine, he discoursed to his companions on materialism and the contempt of death. On the scaffold, he begged the executioner to decapitate him the last, that he might have an opportunity for making some observations essential to the establishment of certain principles while the heads of the others were falling.

Clos, Choderlos de la (his entire name was *Pierre Ambroise François Ch. de la Clos*), well known for his extraordinary and dangerous novel, *Les Liaisons dangereuses*, born at Amiens, in 1741, was an officer in the army, afterwards secretary and confidant of the duke of Orleans, whom he assisted in his plans during the revolution. In 1791, he entered the Jacobin club, and edited the journal *Ami de la Constitution*. He died, during the consular government, at Tarentum, in 1803, in the rank of general of brigade in the artillery in the army of Naples.

Close-hauled (*au plus pres*, in French), in navigation; the general arrangement or trim of a ship's sails, when she endeavors to make progress, in the nearest direction possible, towards that point of the compass from which the wind blows.

Close-Quarters; certain strong barriers of wood, stretching across a merchant-ship in several places. They are used as a place of retreat when a ship is boarded by her adversary, and are therefore fitted with several small loopholes, through which to fire the small arms. They are likewise furnished with several small caissons, called *powder-chests*, which are fixed upon the deck, and filled with powder, old nails, &c., and may be fired at any time. Instances are known in which close-quarters have proved highly effective.

Cloth. (See *Cotton*, *Woollen*, *Silk*, &c.)

Clothing. A very striking fact, exhibited by the bills of mortality, is the very large proportion of persons who die of consumption. It is not our intention to enter into any general remarks upon the nature of that fatal disease. In very many cases, the origin of a consumption is an ordinary cold; and that cold is frequently taken through the want of a proper attention to clothing, particularly in females. We shall, therefore, offer a few general remarks upon this subject, so important to the health of all classes of persons.—Nothing is more necessary to a comfortable state of existence, than that the body should be kept in nearly a uniform temperature. The Almighty Wisdom, which made the senses serve as instruments of pleasure for our gratification, and of pain for our protection, has rendered the feelings arising from excess or deficiency of heat so acute, that we instinctively seek shelter from the

scorching heat and freezing cold. We bathe our limbs in the cool stream, or clothe our bodies with the warm fleece. We court the breeze, or carefully avoid it. But no efforts to mitigate the injurious effects of heat or cold would avail us, if nature had not furnished us, in common with other animals (in the peculiar functions of the skin and lungs), with a power of preserving the heat of the body uniform under almost every variety of temperature to which the atmosphere is liable. The skin, by increase of the perspiration, carries off the excess of heat; the lungs, by decomposing the atmosphere, supply the loss; so that the internal parts of the body are preserved at a temperature of about 98°, under all circumstances. In addition to the important share which the function of perspiration has in regulating the heat of the body, it serves the further purpose of an outlet to the constitution, by which it gets rid of matters that are no longer useful in its economy. The excretory function of the skin is of such paramount importance to health, that we ought, at all times, to direct our attention to the means of securing its being duly performed; for if the matters that ought to be thrown out of the body by the pores of the skin are retained, they invariably prove injurious. When speaking of the excrementitious matter of the skin, we do not mean the sensible moisture which is poured out in hot weather, or when the body is heated by exercise, but a matter which is too subtile for the senses to take cognizance of, which is continually passing off from every part of the body, and which has been called the *insensible perspiration*. This insensible perspiration is the true excretion of the skin. A suppression of the insensible perspiration is a prevailing symptom in almost all diseases. It is the sole cause of many fevers. Very many chronic diseases have no other cause. In warm weather, and particularly in hot climates, the functions of the skin being prodigiously increased, all the consequences of interrupting them are proportionably dangerous. Besides the function of perspiration, the skin has, in common with every other surface of the body, a process, by means of appropriate vessels, of absorbing, or taking up, and conveying into the blood-vessels, any thing that may be in contact with it. It is also the part on which the organ of feeling or touch is distributed. The skin is supplied with glands, which provide an oily matter, that renders it impervious to water, and thus secures the evaporation of the sensible perspiration. Were this oily matter deficient, the skin would become sodden, as is the case when it has been removed—a fact to be observed in the hands of washerwomen, when it is destroyed by the solvent powers of the soap. The hair serves as so many capillary tubes to conduct the perspired fluid from the skin. The three powers of the skin, perspiration, absorption and feeling, are so dependent on each other, that it is impossible for one to be deranged without the other two being also disordered. For if a man be exposed to a frosty atmosphere, in a state of inactivity, or without sufficient clothing, till his limbs become stiff and his skin insensible, the vessels that excite the perspiration and the absorbent vessels partake of the torpor that has seized on the nerves of feeling; nor will they regain their lost activity till the sensibility be completely restored. The danger of suddenly attempting to restore sensibility to frozen parts is well known. If the addition of warmth be not very gradual, the vitality of the part will be destroyed. This consideration of the functions of the skin will at once point out the necessity of an especial attention, in a fickle climate, to the subject of clothing. Every one's experience must have shown him how extremely capricious the weather is in this country. Our experience of this great inconstancy in the temperature of the air ought to have instructed us how to secure ourselves from its effects. The chief end proposed by clothing ought to be protection from the cold; and it never can be too deeply impressed on the mind (especially of those who have the care of children), that a degree of cold that amounts to shivering cannot be felt, under any circumstances, without injury to the health, and that the strongest constitution cannot resist the benumbing influence of a sensation of cold constantly present, even though it be so moderate as not to occasion immediate complaint, or to induce the sufferer to seek protection from it. This degree of cold often lays the foundation of the whole host of chronic diseases, foremost amongst which are found scrofula and consumption. Persons engaged in sedentary employments must be almost constantly under the influence of this degree of cold, unless the apartment in which they work is heated to a degree that subjects them, on leaving it, to all the dangers of a sudden transition, as it were, from summer to winter. The inactivity to which such persons are condemned, by weakening the body, renders it incapable

of maintaining the degree of warmth necessary to comfort, without additional clothing or fire. Under such circumstances, a sufficient quantity of clothing, of a proper quality, with the apartment moderately warmed and well ventilated, ought to be preferred, for keeping up the requisite degree of warmth, to any means of heating the air of the room so much as to render any increase of clothing unnecessary. To heat the air of an apartment much above the ordinary temperature of the atmosphere, we must shut out the external air; the air also becomes extremely rarefied and dry; which circumstances make it doubly dangerous to pass from it to the cold, raw, external air. But in leaving a moderately well warmed room, if properly clothed, the change is not felt; and the full advantage of exercise is derived from any opportunity of taking it that may occur.—The only kind of dress that can afford the protection required by the changes of temperature to which high northern climates are liable, is *woollen*. Nor will it be of much avail that woollen be worn, unless *so much* of it be worn, and it be *so* worn, as effectually to keep out the cold. Those who would receive the advantage which the wearing of woollen is capable of affording, must wear it next the skin; for it is in this situation only that its health-preserving power can be felt. The great advantages of woollen cloth are briefly these:—the readiness with which it allows the escape of the matter of perspiration through its texture; its power of preserving the sensation of warmth to the skin under all circumstances; the difficulty there is in making it thoroughly wet; the slowness with which it conducts heat; the softness, lightness and pliancy of its texture. *Cotton cloth*, though it differs but little from linen, approaches nearer to the nature of woollen, and, on that account, must be esteemed as the next best substance of which clothing may be made. *Silk* is the next in point of excellence, but it is very inferior to cotton in every respect. *Linen* possesses the contrary of most of the properties enumerated as excellences in woollen. It retains the matter of perspiration in its texture, and speedily becomes imbued with it; it gives an unpleasant sensation of cold to the skin; it is very readily saturated with moisture, and it conducts heat too rapidly. It is, indeed, the worst of all the substances in use, being the least qualified to answer the purposes of clothing. There are several prevailing errors in the mode of adapting clothes to the figure of the body, particularly amongst females. Clothes should be so made as to allow the body the full exercise of all its motions. The neglect of this precaution is productive of more mischief than is generally believed. The misery and suffering arising from it begin while we are yet in the cradle. When they have escaped from the nurses' hands, boys are left to nature. Girls have, for a while, the same chance as boys, in a freedom from bandages of all kinds; but, as they approach to womanhood, they are again put into trammels in the forms of stays. The bad consequences of the pressure of stays are not immediately obvious, but they are not the less certain on that account. The girl writhes and twists to avoid the pinching which must necessarily attend the commencement of wearing stays tightly laced. The posture in which she finds ease is the one in which she will constantly be, until, at last, she will not be comfortable in any other, even when she is freed from the pressure that originally obliged her to adopt it. In this way most of the deformities to which young people are subject originate; and, unfortunately, it is not often that they are perceived until they have become considerable, and have existed too long to admit of remedy.

Clotilde de Vallon Chalis, Marguerite Eléonore; born at Vallon, a castle on the Ardeche, in Languedoc, in the year 1405. The poems of this lady, which have been preserved, did not make their appearance till 1803. At the age of 11, she translated a poem of Petrarch into verse. Fortunate circumstances, particularly her acquaintance with several distinguished female poets of her time, unfolded her poetical talents. In 1421, she married Berenger de Surville, a young knight, who was soon obliged to follow the dauphin (Charles VII) to Puy-en-Velay. On the occasion of this separation, she composed a beautiful poem, which takes the first rank amongst her works. After being married seven years, she lost her husband, who fell before Orleans. After this, she occupied her time with the education of young females possessed of poetical talent. Among these were Sophie de Lyonna and Juliette de Vivarez. By chance, she became acquainted with Margaret of Scotland, wife of the dauphin Louis. In consequence of a poem which she composed in praise of duke Philip the Good, Margaret sent her a crown of artificial laurel, with silver leaves, and interwoven with 12 golden flowers; but Clotilde

would not listen to the pressing invitations which she received to appear at court. In 1495, she commemorated, in a poem, the triumphs of Charles VIII. The year of her death is not known. Her poems, which are distinguished for delicacy and grace, appear to have been lost, when one of her descendants, Joseph Etienne de Surville (who, in 1798, was shot as a secretly returned emigrant), a man himself possessed of a talent for poetry, on searching the archives of his family, discovered, in 1782, the hand-writing of Clotilde. With difficulty he deciphered the writing, studied the language, and soon found his pains richly rewarded. On his emigration, in 1791, he left the manuscript of Clotilde behind him, which, with many other family records, became a prey to the flames. The copies, which had been previously taken of several pieces, came from his widow into the hands of the present publisher, M. Vanderbourg. The genuineness of these poems is not to be doubted, although it is apparent that, in some instances, M. de Surville has ventured to make alterations.

Clôture, La (*the close*); the term used in the French chamber of deputies, when one party insists upon having a discussion closed, and the vote taken. Though it cannot be denied, that the French improve in parliamentary skill, yet they are very far from parliamentary order, we might say decency, compared with the example of England and the U. States. This is principally owing to two causes: the first is want of experience. Parliamentary proprieties are things which cannot be regulated by orders and decrees, because great strictness of rule injures the freedom which gives value to parliamentary proceedings. They must be learned by practice, and rest on the convictions of the opposition, as well as of the other party. The second cause is the violence of parties. Neither in England nor in the U. States do there exist parties so entirely and essentially opposed as in France. No political partisan in England or the U. States thinks of destroying the constitution. The animosity, therefore, between parties cannot be, in either of these countries, so great as in France. The consequence of this is, that the opposition, or liberal party, in the French chambers, give vent to their feelings, and the administration party will not listen, but call, *Aux voix! La clôture!* during the speeches of their opponents, and not unfrequently make a noise similar to that of the Polish diet, and very much out of place in a deliberative body. The president of the chamber rings his bell, and sometimes closes the session, because he cannot restore order. The *réglement* of the *chambre* does not appear to be the cause of this disorder. It is dated June 25, 1814, and is an imitation of the English usages. This body of rules, with those for the chamber of peers, given July 2, 1814, and the law of Aug. 13, 1814, respecting the forms in which the king communicates with the chambers, and they with each other, are not in the *Bulletin des Lois*; they are contained in Lanjuinais' *Constitutions de la Nation Française*, Paris, 1819.

Cloud. The clouds are aqueous vapors, which hover at a considerable height above the surface of the earth. They differ from fogs only by their height and less degree of transparency. The cause of the latter circumstance is the thinness of the atmosphere in its higher regions, where the particles of vapor become condensed. The varieties of clouds are numerous. Some cast a shade which covers the sky, and, at times, produces a considerable darkness; others resemble a light veil, and permit the rays of the sun and moon to pass through them. Clouds originate like fogs. The watery evaporations which rise from seas, lakes, ponds, rivers, and, in fact, from the whole surface of the earth, ascend, on account of their elasticity and lightness, in the atmosphere, until the air becomes so cold and thin that they can rise no higher, but are condensed. Philosophers, however, are of very different opinions respecting the way in which the condensation and the whole formation of the clouds proceed. De Luc, whose theory is considered the most probable, believes that the water, after its ascent in the form of vapors, and before it takes the shape of clouds, exists in a gaseous state, not affecting the hygrometer, which is the reason why the air, in the higher regions, is always dry. He explains the clouds to be collections of small vesicles, in the transformation of which from the gaseous state, he believes that caloric operates, in part at least, because, according to his opinion, clouds communicate a degree of heat to the body which they render damp. According to Hube, clouds are collections of precipitated bubbles, and differ by their negative electricity from fogs, the electricity of which is generally positive. If clouds and fogs lose their electricity, rain is produced. These explanations are, however, by no means perfectly satisfactory. More on this subject is to be found in Mayer's *Lehrbuch über die Physische Astronomie, Theorie der Erde und Meteorologie*, Göt-

tingen, 1805. The change of winds contributes essentially to the formation of clouds and fogs. In countries where this change is small and infrequent, as between the tropics, these phenomena of humidity in the atmosphere must be comparatively rare, but, when they happen, the more violent, because a great quantity of vapor has had time to collect. The distance of the clouds from the surface of the earth is very different. Thin and light clouds are higher than the highest mountains; thick and heavy clouds, on the contrary, touch low mountains, steeples, and even trees. The average height of the clouds is calculated to be two miles and a half. Their size is likewise very different. Some have been found occupying an extent of 20 square miles, and their thickness, in some cases, has been ascertained, by travellers, who have ascended mountains, to be a thousand feet: others are very thin, and of small dimensions. The natural history of clouds, not as respects their chemical structure, but their forms, their application to meteorology, and a knowledge of the weather, has been well treated by Lucas Howard, in his Essay on Clouds. He distributes clouds into three essentially different formations. These formations are—1. *cirrus*, consisting of fibres which diverge in all directions; 2. *cumulus*, convex and conical aggregates, which increase from a horizontal basis upwards; 3. *stratus*, layers vastly extended, connected and horizontal. The clouds are generally assigned to three atmospherical regions, the upper, the middle and the lower one, to which a fourth, the lowest, may be added. In the upper region, the atmosphere is in such a state, that it can receive and sustain aqueous matter dissolved into its integrant parts. This state of the atmosphere corresponds to the highest state of the barometer. To this region belongs the *cirrus*, which has the least density, but the greatest height, and variety of shape and direction. It is the first indication of serene and settled weather, and first shows itself in a few fibres, spreading through the atmosphere. These fibres by degrees increase in length, and new fibres attach themselves to the sides. The duration of the *cirrus* is uncertain, from a few minutes to several hours. It lasts longer, if it appears alone, and at a great height; a shorter time, if it forms in the neighborhood of other clouds. The middle region is the seat of *cumulus*, which is generally the most condensed, and moves with the stream of air nearest to the earth. This region can receive much humidity, but not in perfect solution. The humidity becomes collected, and shows itself in masses rising conically, and resting on the third region. The appearance, increase and disappearance of the *cumulus*, in fine weather, are often periodical, and correspondent to the degree of heat. Generally, it forms a few hours after sunrise, attains its highest degree in the hottest hours of the afternoon, and decreases and vanishes at sun-set. Great masses of *cumulus*, during high winds, in the quarter of the heavens towards which the wind blows, indicate approaching calm and rain. If the *cumulus* does not disappear, but rises, a thunderstorm is to be expected during the night. If the upper region, with its drying power, predominates, the upper parts of the *cumulus* become *cirrus*. But, if the lower region predominates (into which the densest vapors are attracted and dissolved into drops), the basis of the *cumulus* sinks, and the cloud becomes *stratus*, which is of moderate density, and its lower surface rests generally upon the earth or the water. This is the proper evening cloud, and appears first towards sunset. To this belong also those creeping fogs, which, in calm evenings, ascend from the valleys, and extend themselves in undulating masses. The *stratus* remains quiet, and accumulates layers, till at last it falls as rain. This phenomenon—the dissolution of clouds into rain—is called *nimbus*. Howard further makes subdivisions, as, *cirro-cumulus*, *cirro-stratus*, &c. Also the real *stratus*, the horizontal layer of clouds, sometimes rises higher than at other times, which depends on the season, the polar height of the place, or the heights of mountains: the *cumulus* is also sometimes higher and sometimes lower. On the whole, however, the different kinds remain one above another. Th. Forster has followed Howard in his investigations respecting the clouds, and Göthe, the German poet, has made an application of this theory in his work entitled *Zur Naturwissenschaft*, vol. i.

Cloud, St.; a charmingly situated village, two leagues E. from Paris, in the department of Seine-and-Oise, with a royal castle and magnificent garden, which were much embellished by Napoleon. On the 7th of September, and some days following, perhaps a sixth part of the population of Paris is assembled here, full of gayety, attending the fair, which affords a striking picture of a certain class of the French people. As the residence of the monarch of France, St. Cloud is historically interesting. Many events in the civil dis-

turbances of that country are connected with this place. Here Henry III was murdered by Clement (q. v.), Aug. 2, 1589; and, in modern times, it has been rendered famous by the revolution of the 18th of Brumaire, which destroyed the directory, and established the consular government. Napoleon chose St. Cloud for his residence; hence the expression, *cabinet of St. Cloud.* Under the former government, the phrase was *cabinet of Versailles*, or *cabinet of the Tuileries.* In 1814, St. Cloud was besieged, March 31, by the van-guard of the army of the allies under Langeron. April 7, the head-quarters of the allied armies were there, and remained there until June 3. In 1815, Blücher had his head-quarters at St. Cloud; and here also was concluded the military convention (July 3, 1815), by which Paris fell a second time into the hands of the allies. Bignon, Guilleminot and count Bondi acted on the part of France, general Müffling (the same who was, in 1829, a mediator between Russia and Turkey, at Constantinople, sent there by the king of Prussia) for Prussia, colonel Hervey for England. The dubious sense of several points determined in the convention afterwards occasioned mutual reproaches.

Clove. The clove is the unexpanded flower-bud of an East Indian tree (*caryophillus aromaticus*), somewhat resembling the laurel in its height, and in the shape of its leaves. The leaves are in pairs, oblong, large, spear-shaped, and of a bright-green color. The flowers grow in clusters, which terminate the branches, and have the calyx divided into four small and pointed segments. The petals are small, rounded, and of a bluish color; and the seed is an oval berry. In the Molucca islands, where the raising of different spices was formerly carried on by the Dutch colonists to great extent, the culture of the clove-tree was a very important pursuit. It has even been asserted, that, in order to secure a lucrative branch of commerce in this article to themselves, they destroyed all the trees growing in other islands, and confined the propagation of them to that of Ternate. But it appears that, in 1770 and 1772, both clove and nutmeg-trees were transplanted from the Moluccas into the islands of France and Bourbon, and subsequently into some of the colonies of South America, where they have since been cultivated with great success. At a certain season of the year, the clove-tree produces a vast profusion of flowers. When these have attained the length of about half an inch, the four points of the calyx being prominent, and having, in the middle of them, the leaves of the petals folded over each other, and forming a small head about the size of a pea, they are in a fit state to be gathered. This operation is performed betwixt the months of October and February, partly by the hand, partly by hooks, and partly by beating the trees with bamboos. The cloves are either received on cloths spread beneath the trees, or are suffered to fall on the ground, the herbage having been previously cut and swept for that purpose. They are subsequently dried by exposure for a while to the smoke of wood fires, afterwards to the rays of the sun. When first gathered, they are of a reddish color, but, by drying, they assume a deep-brown cast. This spice yields a very fragrant odor, and has a bitterish, pungent, and warm taste. It is sometimes employed as a hot and stimulating medicine, but is more frequently used in culinary preparations. When fresh gathered, cloves will yield, on pressure, a fragrant, thick, and reddish oil; and, by distillation, a limpid essential oil. Oil of cloves is used by many persons, though very improperly, for curing the tooth-ache; since, from its pungent quality, it is apt to corrode the gums and injure the adjacent teeth. When the tooth is carious, and will admit of it, a bruised clove is much to be preferred.

Clove Bark, or Culilawan Bark (*cortex lauri culilawan*) is furnished by a tree of the Molucca islands. It is in pieces more or less long, almost flat, thick, fibrous, covered with a white epidermis, of a reddish-yellow inside, of a nutmeg and clove odor, and of an aromatic and sharp taste. It is one of the substitutes for cinnamon, but not much used. We find, also, in commerce, under the name of *clove bark*, another bark furnished by the *myrthus caryophillata* (Lin.). It is in sticks two feet long, formed of several pieces of very thin and hard bark, rolled up one over the other, of a deep brown color, of a taste similar to that of cloves. It possesses the same properties as the former barks, and may be considered as a substitute for them.

Clover (*trifolium*). The clovers are a very numerous family. Some botanists reckon no less than 55 species belonging to the genus of which cultivated clovers are varieties. The following are most used:—1. *Pratense*, or common red clover. This is a biennial, and sometimes, especially on chalky soils, a triennial plant. This is the kind most commonly cultivated, as it yields a larger product than any of the other sorts. The soil best adapted to clo-

ver is a deep, sandy loam, which is favorable to its long tap-roots; but it will grow in any soil not too moist. So congenial is calcarious matter to clover, that the mere strewing of lime on some soils will call into action clover-seeds, which, it would appear, have laid dormant for ages. It is a recommendation of this grass, that it is adapted to a soil suitable to scarcely any other kind of grass—to land which is dry, light, sandy, or composed mostly of gravel. Clover-seed should be sowed in the spring, except in climates where there are no severe winter frosts. The young plants which come up in autumn cannot bear the frost so well as those which have had a whole summer to bring them to maturity. Spring wheat is a very good crop with which to sow clover and other grass-seed. It is recommended to sow the grass-seed, and plough or harrow it in with the wheat. If it be scattered on the surface without being well covered, a part does not vegetate, and that which does will be liable to injury from drought. Clover-seed may also be sown in the spring on winter grain, and harrowed in. European writers agree with American cultivators, that the harrowing will do no damage, but will be of service to the grain. The author of a valuable work, entitled a *Treatise on Agriculture*, lately published in Albany, directs 10 or 12 pounds of clover-seed to be sown on an acre, if the soil be rich, and double that quantity if it be poor. He condemns the practice of mixing the seeds of timothy, rye, grass, &c. with that of clover, "because these grasses neither rise nor ripen at the same time." Another practice, equally bad (according to this writer), "is that of sowing clover-seed on winter grain before the earth has acquired a temperature favorable to vegetation, and when there can be no doubt but that two thirds of the seeds will perish." Clover-seed of a bright yellow, with a good quantity of purple and brown colored seed amongst it, which shows its maturity, should be preferred. When perfectly ripe and well gathered, its power of vegetation will continue for four or five years. Two sorts of machines are described in the Transactions of the New York Agricultural Society, for gathering clover-seed. One of these machines consists of an open box about four feet square at the bottom, and about three feet in height on three sides; to the fore part, which is open, fingers are fixed, about three feet in length, and so near as to break off the heads from the clover-stocks between them, which are thrown back as the box advances. The box is fixed on an axle-tree, supported by small wheels, with handles fixed to the hinder part, by which the driver, while managing the horse, raises or depresses the fingers of the machine, so as to take off the heads of the grass. The other machine, called a *cradle*, is made of an oak board about 18 inches in length and 10 in breadth. The fore part of it, to the length of 9 inches, is sawed into fingers; a handle is inserted behind, inclined towards them, and a cloth put round the back part of the board, which is cut somewhat circular, and raised on the handle; this collects the heads or tops of the grass, and prevents them from scattering as they are struck off by the cradle, which may be made of different sizes,—being smaller in proportion for women and children, who, by means of it, may likewise collect large quantities.—2. *Trifolium repens*, or white clover. This also thrives best in light land. It is a natural grass of the U. States, but, when sown by itself, it rarely grows tall enough to be well cut with a sithe. When mixed with timothy or green grass (*poa viridis*), it makes excellent hay. Clover requires much attention to make it into hay. Its stalks are so succulent, that the leaves, which are the best part, are apt to crumble and waste away before the hay is well dried. It has, therefore, been recommended to cart it to the mow or stack before the stalks are dry, and either to put it up with alternate layers of hay and straw, or to salt it at the rate of from half a bushel to a whole bushel per ton. Green clover is good for swine. The late judge Peters, of Pennsylvania, observed, "In summer, my hogs chiefly run on clover. Swine feeding on clover in the fields will thrive wonderfully; when those (confined or not) fed on cut clover will fall away." (*Mem. Penn. Agr. Soc.* vol. ii. p. 33.)

Clovis, king of the Franks, born 465, succeeded his father, Childeric, in 481, as chief of the warlike tribe of Salian Franks, who inhabited a barren country between the sea and the Scheldt. This tribe, at a former period, had made incursions into the neighboring territories, but were driven back into their forests and morasses. Clovis, therefore, united with Ragnacaire, king of Cambray, and declared war upon Syagrius (son of Aëtius), the Roman governor at Soissons. The Romans were entirely routed near Soissons, in 486. Syagrius fled to Toulouse, to the court of Alaric, king of the Goths, whose cowardly counsellors delivered him up to Clovis, by whom he was put to death. Soissons

now became the capital of the new kingdom of the Salian Franks. The uncultivated Clovis governed his new subjects with wisdom and moderation: he was particularly desirous to obtain the good will of the clergy. All the cities in *Belgia Secunda* submitted to him. Paris yielded to the victor in 493, and, in 507, was selected for the capital of his kingdom. In order to obtain assistance in withstanding the powerful Visigoths in Gaul, Clovis married Clotilda, niece of Gundebald, king of Burgundy. This princess, who had been educated in the Catholic faith, was desirous that her husband, also, should embrace it. Her efforts were fruitless, till, on an occasion when he was hard pressed in a battle against the Allemanni, near Zülpich (496), Clovis called on the God of Clotilda and the Christians. Victory declared in his favor; and the part of the territory of the Allemanni lying on the Upper Rhine submitted to the king of the Franks. The victor's conversion was now an easy matter for the eloquent St. Remigius, archbishop of Rheims. Clovis was solemnly baptized at Rheims, December 25, 496, with several thousand Franks, men and women. St. Remigius, at the same time, anointed him. The cities of Armorica (Bretagne) then submitted to his sceptre, in 497. There now remained in Gaul only two independent powers besides the Franks, viz. the Burgundians and Visigoths. The former had two kings, Godegisele and Gundebald. Clovis made an attack upon the latter, whose territories extended from the Vosges to the Alps and the sea-coast of Marseilles. Gundebald, deserted by the faithless Godegisele, was routed near Dijon, compelled to surrender Lyons and Vienne to the victorious Clovis, and to flee to Avignon, where he concluded a peace. Clovis returned home loaded with spoils. Gundebald afterwards violated the treaty; but Clovis, fearing the Goths, entered into a new alliance with him. Hostilities soon broke out between Alaric, king of the Goths, and Clovis. In the battle near Poictiers, between the rivers Vonne and Clouére, the latter gained a complete victory, slaying his enemy with his own hand, and conquered Aquitania. After this conquest, Clovis received the honor of the consulship from the emperor Anastasius. The king of the Franks, having his head adorned with a diadem, appeared in the church of St. Martin of Tours, clad in the tunic and purple robe, and was saluted by the people as consul and Augustus. He strengthened his authority, while he tarnished his glory, by murders and cruelties. He died Nov. 26, 511, having reigned 30 years. His four sons divided his dominions between them. 25 years later, the kingdom of Burgundy came under the power of the Franks, the Ostrogoths were obliged to yield to them Arles and Marseilles, and Justinian conceded to them the sovereignty of Gaul. In the last year of his reign, Clovis had called a council at Orleans, from which are dated the peculiar privileges claimed by the kings of France in opposition to the pope.

Club; a society which meets on certain times at certain places, for various purposes; for instance, chess clubs, racing clubs, &c. The political clubs originated in England, and thence passed to France and to other countries. They were prohibited by a law of the German empire, made in 1793. The French clubs, during the revolution, must be considered as its focus. An accurate acquaintance with their history is indispensable for the understanding of a great part of the revolution. They were connected and regularly organized, and their resolutions were published. In the minuteness of their ramification throughout the country, they resembled the corresponding committees in the American colonies before the American revolution. These French clubs destroyed the constitution of 1795. They were afterwards prohibited. (See *Jacobin* and *France*.)

Clue of a sail (in French, *point*) is the lower corner; and hence *clue-garnets* (*cargues-point*, Fr.) are a sort of tackles fastened to the clues of the mainsail and foresail, to truss them up to the yard, which is usually termed *clueing-up* the sails. *Clue-lines* are used for the same purpose as clue-garnets, only that the latter are confined to the courses, whilst the clue-lines are common to all the square-sails.

Cluny; a town of France, in the Saône-and-Loire, lying between two mountains, on the Grône; 9 miles N. W. Maçon, 21 miles S. Châlons-sur-Saône; population, 3400. Here was a Benedictine abbey, founded by William, duke of Aquitaine, at one time the most celebrated in France. Its funds were vast, and its edifices had the appearance of a well built city. The church is one of the largest in France. The town contains 3 parishes. (See *Abelard*.)

Clyde (anciently *Glota*); a river in Scotland, which rises in the south part of Lanerkshire, passes by Lanerk, Hamilton, Glasgow, Renfrew, Dumbarton, &c., and

forms the arm of the sea called the *Frith of Clyde*, at the southern extremity of the island of Bute. It is 70 miles long, and becomes navigable at Glasgow. It has romantic falls, particularly at Corrahouse and Stonebyres, of 84 and 80 feet perpendicular.

Clymer, George, one of the signers of the declaration of independence, was born in Philadelphia in 1739, of a respectable family. His father emigrated from Bristol, England. The death of his parents left George an orphan at the age of 7 years; but he was well taken care of by his uncle, William Coleman, who bequeathed to him the principal part of his fortune. After the completion of his studies, young Clymer entered into his uncle's counting-house, though his inclination for cultivating his mind was much greater than for mercantile pursuits. When discontent had been excited in the colonies by the arbitrary acts of the British parliament, he was among the first in Pennsylvania to raise his voice in opposition, and was named by a meeting held in Philadelphia, Oct. 16, 1773, chairman of a committee appointed to demand of the commissioners for selling the tea which had been imported into America, on account of the East India company, their resignation of the office. The demand was complied with. Mr. Clymer was afterwards chosen a member of the council of safety, when the increasing troubles rendered such a body necessary. In 1775, he was appointed one of the first continental treasurers, but he resigned his office shortly after his first election to congress, in Aug., 1776. His zeal in the cause of his country was displayed by subscribing, himself, as well as by encouraging the subscriptions of others, to the loan opened for the purpose of rendering more effective the opposition to the measures of the British; and also by the disinterested manner in which he exchanged all his specie for continental currency. In July, 1776, he was chosen, together with doctor Benjamin Rush, James Wilson, George Ross and George Taylor, esquires, to supply the vacancy in congress occasioned by the resignation of the members of the Pennsylvania delegation, who had refused their assent to the declaration of independence. The new members were not present when the instrument was agreed upon, but they all affixed to it their signatures. In the autumn of 1777, his house in Chester county, in which his family resided, was plundered by a band of British soldiers, his property greatly damaged, and his wife and children constrained to fly for safety. His services in the cause of liberty seemed, indeed, to have rendered him peculiarly obnoxious to the British; for, when they took possession of Philadelphia, a numerous body proceeded to tear down the house of his aunt, supposing it to be his, and only desisted when informed of their mistake. In the year 1780, Mr. Clymer was a member of an association which made an offer to congress of establishing a bank for the sole purpose of facilitating the transportation of a supply of 3,000,000 of rations and 300 hogsheads of rum to the army, which was on the point of disbanding, in consequence of its distressed condition. Congress received the offer, and pledged the faith of the U. States to the subscribers to the bank for their full indemnity, and deposited in it, as well for that purpose as in support of its credit, bills for £150,000 sterling, on the American ministers in Europe. Mr. Clymer was one of the gentlemen selected to preside over the institution, the good effects of which were long felt. In Nov., 1780, Mr. Clymer was again elected to congress, and strongly advocated there the establishment of a national bank. He was chosen, in May, 1782, to repair, with Mr. Rutledge, to the Southern States, and make such representations as were best adapted to procure from them their quotas for the purposes of the war, which were very remissly furnished. In the autumn of 1784, during which year party spirit had raged with great violence in Pennsylvania, he was elected to the legislature of that state, to assist in opposing the *constitutionalists*, who were so termed in consequence of their upholding the old constitution, which was justly deemed deficient. Pennsylvania is greatly indebted to his exertions for the amelioration of her penal code, which had previously been of so sanguinary a nature as to produce extreme and almost universal discontent. Mr. Clymer was also a member of the convention which framed the present constitution of the federal government, and was elected to the first congress which met when it was about to be carried into operation. After serving throughout the term, he declined a reëlection. In 1781, a bill having been passed in congress, imposing a duty on spirits distilled within the U. States, he was placed at the head of the excise department, in the state of Pennsylvania. In the year 1796, he was appointed, together with colonel Hawkins and colonel Pickens, to negotiate a treaty with the Cherokee and Creek Indians of Georgia. He subsequently

became the first president of the Philadelphia bank, and of the academy of arts. He died Jan. 23, 1813, in the 74th year of his age, at Morrisville, Bucks county, Pennsylvania.

CLYTEMNESTRA; daughter of king Tyndarus and Leda, and twin-sister of Helen. She bore her husband, Agamemnon, two daughters, Iphigenia and Electra, and one son, Orestes. During the absence of Agamemnon, in the war against Troy, she bestowed her favors on Ægisthus, and, in connexion with him, murdered Agamemnon on his return from Troy, and, together with her paramour, governed Mycene for seven years. Orestes killed them both. (See *Agamemnon* and *Orestes.*)

CNIDUS, or GNIDUS; a town in Caria, a province of Asia Minor, and a favorite place with Venus, who was, therefore, surnamed the *Gnidian goddess.* She had there three temples. The first, probably erected by the Lacedæmonian Dorians, was called the temple of *Venus Doris.* The second was consecrated to her under the name of *Venus Acræa.* The third, called the temple of the *Gnidian Venus,* and, by the inhabitants, the temple of *Venus Euplæa,* contained Praxiteles' marble statue of the goddess, one of the masterpieces of art. This was afterwards removed to Constantinople, where it perished in a conflagration, in 1461.

COACH. The coach is distinguished from other vehicles chiefly as being a covered box, hung on leathers. In the most ancient times, kings and princes had particular vehicles which they used on solemn occasions, but these were not covered. We find in the Bible, that such carriages were used in Egypt in the time of Joseph. Covered wagons also appear to be of great antiquity; for, even in Moses' time, such wagons were used for carrying loads, and the wandering Scythians are said to have had wagons covered with leather, to protect them from the weather: so, likewise, had the Spartans, who called these carriages *kanathron.* The seat of the coachman is also a very ancient invention of Oxylus, an Ætolian who took possession of the kingdom of Elis 1100 years B. C. The Romans had both open and covered carriages, the latter being used to transport sick soldiers and aged people. The covered carriage, called *carruca,* first mentioned by Pliny, was invented later. It was adorned with ivory, brass, and, finally, with gold and silver, and used only to convey magistrates, and distinguished individuals of both sexes. The *carrucæ* were drawn by mules. Covered carriages were therefore known to the ancients; but they were not acquainted with coaches, or carriages suspended on leathers. These are said to have been invented in Hungary, and their name, which, in the language of that country, signifies *covered,* to be also of Hungarian origin. Others derive the German name of the coach, *Kutsche,* from *Gutsche,* which signified, formerly, a *bed;* or from *Kitsee* or *Kutsee,* considering this as the place where the vehicle was invented. Others think that coaches were invented in France. Charles V is said to have used such a conveyance, when afflicted with the gout, and to have slept in it. The invention of coaches in Hungary is said to have taken place in 1457; but Isabella, the wife of Charles VI of France, is said to have made her entrance into Paris, in 1405, in a covered carriage, suspended on leathers. As, at first, none but ladies used these carriages in France, they were called, from this circumstance, *chariots damerets.* Under Francis I, the construction of coaches was much improved. They were called *carrosses;* and the openings were furnished with leather curtains. The first man who made use of one of these carriages was Raimond de Laval, a cavalier of the court of Francis I, who was so large, that no horse could carry him. His coach, and that of the celebrated Diana of Poitiers, duchess of Valentinois (q. v.), were made about 1540, and were the first carriages on springs in Paris; and, 10 years after, there were not more than three such vehicles in that city. Under Henry III (1574—89), the fourth coach was introduced. This was kept by a private person. Before that time, they were considered as belonging exclusively to the royal family, or to very distinguished officers. Henry IV, who is known to have been murdered in a coach, kept but one carriage for himself and his wife, as appears from a letter, in which he tells a friend, as an excuse for his absence, that his wife was using the coach. The marshal Bassompierre, in 1599, brought the first coach with glass windows from Italy into France. In 1658, there were 520 coaches in Paris, and the number went on continually increasing. In Germany, the emperors and princes used coaches as early as the 15th century. The emperor Frederic III, for instance, went in one to Frankfort in 1474. In 1509, the wife of the elector Joachim I of Brandenburg had a gilded coach, and 12 others ornamented with crimson. Coaches are said to have been introduced into Spain in 1546, and into Sweden in the last half of the 16th centu-

ry. The oldest carriages used by the ladies in England were called *whirlicotes*. The mother of king Richard II, who accompanied him in his flight (1360), rode in a carriage of this sort. But *coaches*, properly so called, were first introduced into England from Germany or France, in 1580, in the reign of queen Elizabeth, and the first seen in public belonged to Henry, earl of Arundel. In 1601, the year before the queen's death, an act was passed to prevent men from riding in coaches, as being effeminate; but they were in common use, in London, about the year 1605. Twenty years afterwards, hackney-coaches were introduced. They were prohibited in 1635, and, in 1637, only 50 hackney-coachmen were licensed. The number of coaches was increased by degrees, and, in 1770, as many as 1000 were licensed. The duty on coaches in England in 1778, the number then kept being 23,000, amounted to £117,000. The total duty on coaches in England, in 1785, was £154,988; in Scotland, only £9000. The French invented the post-chaise, the use of which was brought into England by Tull, the well-known writer on husbandry. In Switzerland, coaches were a rarity as late as 1650.—Philadelphia (q. v.) surpasses all other places in America in the manufacture of coaches. The manufacture of elegant coaches is a proof of much wealth and mechanical skill in a place; many different artists being employed in their construction, who become skilful only when the demand for their work is considerable. A very large sort of coaches, called *omnibus*, has lately come into use in Paris, and still later in London. They serve as means of communication between different parts of the city, and contain a large number of passengers, with quantities of newspapers, furniture, &c. The fare at Paris is very cheap. Quite recently, a stage-coach began to run from Paris to Orleans, containing 60 passengers.

Coahuila y Texas; a state or province of Mexico, bounded E. by Tamaulipas, S. by New Leon, S. W. by Durango, W. by Chihuahua. Its northern boundary and extent are not well defined. It is watered by the Rio del Norte and its branches. The chief towns are Montelovez and Saltillo.

Coak. (See *Coal*.)

Coal consists essentially of carbonaceous matter, and, in one variety, the blind coal (see *Anthracite*), this is nearly pure; but, in the greater number of the varieties of coal, there is present a soft, bituminous matter, which communicates to them some peculiar properties. Those which contain much bitumen are highly inflammable, and burn with a bright flame; those in which the carbon predominates burn less vividly. Numerous varieties of coal exist, deriving distinctions partly from their state of aggregation, but principally from the proportions of their bitumen and carbon. Excepting the anthracite, they may be treated of under the two divisions of *black coals* and *brown coals*.—The color of *brown coal*, as its name imports, is brown: it possesses a ligneous structure, or consists of earthy particles. The color of *black coal* is black, not inclining to brown, and it does not possess the structure of wood.—The varieties of brown coal are the following:—*bituminous wood*, which presents a ligneous texture, and very seldom any thing like conchoidal fracture, and is without lustre; *earthy coal*, consisting of loose, friable particles; *moor coal*, distinguished by the want of ligneous structure, by the property of bursting and splitting into angular fragments, when removed from its original repository, and the low degree of lustre upon its imperfect conchoidal fracture; *common brown coal*, which, though it still shows traces of ligneous texture, is of a more firm consistency than the rest of the varieties, and possesses higher degrees of lustre upon its more perfect conchoidal fracture. Some varieties of black coal immediately join those of brown coal. They are, *pitch coal*, of a velvet-black color, generally inclining to brown, strong lustre, and presenting, in every direction, a large and perfect conchoidal fracture; *slate coal*, possessing a more or less coarse, slaty structure, which, however, seems to be rather a kind of lamellar composition than real fracture; *foliated coal*, resembling it, only the *laminæ* are thinner; and *coarse coal* in like manner, only the component particles are smaller, and approach to a granular appearance; *cannel coal*, without visible composition, and having a flat, conchoidal fracture in every direction, with but little lustre, by which it is distinguished from pitch coal. All these kinds are joined by numerous transitions, so that it often becomes doubtful to which of them we should ascribe certain specimens, though they undoubtedly are members of this species.—As the preceding varieties of coal consist of variable proportions of bitumen and carbon, they, of course, must vary in their inflammability. Several varieties become soft, and others coke, when kindled, or, in other words, allow of the separation of the bituminous from the carbonaceous part. We perceive this separation in its combustion in a common fire; the coal, when kindled, swelling and soft-

ening, exhaling a kind of bitumen, and burning with smoke and light; while, after a certain period, these appearances cease, and it burns only with a red light. The separation is effected more completely by the application of heat in close vessels: the bitumen is melted out, and there is disengaged ammonia, partly in the state of carbonate with empyreumatic oil, and the coal gas (a variety of carbureted hydrogen), often mixed with carbonic acid and sulphureted hydrogen, the carbonaceous matter being, in a great measure, left, forming coke.—The decomposition of coal is carried on, on a large scale, with a view to collect the products; the gas being used to afford an artificial light, which is clear, steady, easily regulated, and economical; the bituminous matter, or mineral tar, being applied to the uses for which vegetable tar and pitch are employed, and the coked coal being used in the smelting of metallic ores, and for various other purposes, where an elevated and steady temperature is needed.—Coal, excluding anthracite, has been supposed to be of vegetable origin. There is a remarkable graduation from bituminated wood to perfect coal. In some varieties, the structure, and even the remains, of plants are apparent, and its chemical composition agrees with that of vegetable matter. It is difficult to determine, however, in what manner it has been formed, or by what operations the vegetable matter, from which it has originated, has been so far modified, as to have assumed the properties under which it exists. And there are many geologists who regard it, in common with anthracite, as an original mineral deposit.—The varieties called *slate coal*, *foliated coal*, *coarse coal*, *cannel coal*, and *pitch coal*, occur chiefly in the coal formation; some varieties of pitch coal, also the moor coal, bituminous wood, and common brown coal, are met with in the formations above the chalk; the earthy coal, and some varieties of bituminous wood and common brown coal, are often included in diluvial and alluvial *detritus*. The coal seams alternate with beds of slaty clay and common clay, sandstone, limestone, sand, &c. They are often associated with vegetable organic remains, in slaty clay; sometimes, also, with shells, and having iron pyrites intermixed with them. Bituminous coal is so universally distributed, that it is unnecessary to attempt the enumeration of its localities. It abounds, in the U. States, in Pennsylvania, Virginia, Ohio, and the Western States generally.

Coalition, in chemistry; the reunion or combination of parts which had before been separated. In the beginning of the French revolution, the French authors used this expression, by way of contempt, to denote the confederation of several powers against France; the word *alliance* appearing to them, perhaps, too noble for the object. From that time, the word has been received into diplomatic language; but there is generally some idea of reproach connected with the use of it. The diplomatists of the continent of Europe have made this distinction between *alliance* and *coalition*, that the former is more general, the latter is directed against a particular enemy, for a distinct object. The first coalition against France was concluded between Austria and Prussia for the preservation of the constitution of the German empire, and for checking the progress of the French revolution (7th of Feb., 1792). The separate peace with Prussia, concluded at Bâle (5th of April, 1795), and the line of demarcation for the north of Germany, were the first steps to the dissolution of the German empire. The next coalition is that of 1793. Germany declared war (22d of March), and was afterwards joined by Portugal, Naples, Tuscany, and the pope. In addition to this, a treaty of alliance was concluded at London, between Great Britain and Russia. The third is the triple alliance entered into at St. Petersburg, by Russia, Austria and Great Britain (28th of Sept., 1795), at a time when several princes of the empire withdrew their troops. This coalition was dissolved by the peace of Campo-Formio, between Austria and France, in which, at the same time, a general congress for the conclusion of peace with the whole empire was appointed at Rastadt (9th of Dec., 1797, to April, 1799). The negotiations which took place here were declared null by Austria; for, during them, a new coalition (the fourth) had been formed between Russia, the Porte (23d of Dec., 1798) and England. Austria and Naples, also, were induced to join it. Separate treaties of peace dissolved it again, viz. the peace of Lunéville with Austria and Germany (9th of Feb., 1801), that of Florence with Naples (28th of March, 1801), that of Paris with Russia (8th of Oct., 1801), of Paris with the Porte (9th of Oct.), and of Amiens with Great Britain (25th of March, 1802). Of all these states, Great Britain first declared war against France (18th of April, 1803), and, in April, 1805, new negotiations were begun between England, Russia, Austria and Prussia, for another coalition (the fifth) against France. At Petersburg, the two first powers contracted to

effect a general confederation of the European states against France, for the restoration of peace and the political balance, and for the foundation of a federative system adapted to secure the rights of nations. All the powers were to be invited to join this confederacy. In the same year, it was partly dissolved by the peace of Presburg with Austria (26th of Dec., 1805), and completely, by the peace of Paris with Russia (20th of July, 1806). Prussia, which till then had not taken an active part, thought herself strong enough to encounter France single-handed. The accession of England and Russia (besides the previous junction of Saxony, and, probably, of other temporizing cabinets) produced the sixth coalition. The peace of Tilsit (7th and 9th of July, 1807), put an end to this union; and the peace at Vienna (14th of Oct., 1809) terminated the Austrian coalition with England (the seventh). Finally, we may mention under this head the last great alliance against France. It consisted first of Russia and England, but was increased in succession by the addition of Spain and Portugal, Sweden, Prussia, Austria, the German princes with few exceptions, Naples, and, at last, Denmark. It ended with the peace of Paris (31st of May, 1814). The return of Napoleon, however, in 1815, revived it. From this sprung the "holy alliance" of Russia, Austria and Prussia, which was joined by the king of France, at Aix-la-Chapelle (q. v.), in 1818. In England and the U. States of North America, the word *coalition* is used to denote the union of several parties or their leaders against another party; but it always expresses something odious. Thus, for instance, the party of Pitt denounced the *coalition* of Fox and North.

Coat of Arms; 1. the surcoat worn by a knight; 2. the ensigns armorial of a family; so called, because originally worn on some part of the armor. Their origin is to be referred to the age of chivalry, when they were assumed as emblematic of the adventures, love, hopes, &c., of the knight, and were useful for distinguishing individuals, whom it was difficult to recognise, covered, as they were, from head to foot, with armor. This, perhaps, may even have been the origin of the usage. As every thing else became hereditary in Europe,—estates, dignities, titles, privileges,—so the favorite emblem of the knight became the adopted badge of the family, the figures or characters employed in them began to receive names, and the language and science of heraldry (q. v.) was formed. The right to bear arms thus became a distinctive mark of gentle birth. In France, the feudal privileges and nobility were abolished by the revolution. Under Napoleon, the imperial *noblesse* wore a certain number of feathers, indicative of their rank; a simple chevalier, 1; a baron, 3; a duke, 7.

Cobalt occurs alloyed with arsenic, nickel and other metals, and mineralized by oxygen and by arsenic acid. It is obtained, after the ore has been roasted and calcined, in the state of an oxide, impure from the presence of other metallic oxides. When this oxide is obtained in a state of purity, and reduced to the metallic state, we are presented with a metal of a white color, inclining to gray, and, if tarnished, to red, with a moderate lustre. Its fracture is compact; it is hard, brittle, and of a specific gravity of 7.8. Like nickel, it is sensibly magnetic, and is susceptible of being rendered permanently so. It undergoes little change in the air, but absorbs oxygen when heated in open vessels. It is attacked with difficulty by sulphuric or muriatic acid, but is readily oxidized by means of nitric acid. There are but two oxides of cobalt known. The protoxide is of an ash-gray color, and is the basis of the salts of cobalt, most of which are of a pink hue. When heated to redness in open vessels, it absorbs oxygen, and is converted into the peroxide. It may be prepared by decomposing the carbonate of cobalt by heat, in a vessel from which the atmospheric air is excluded. It is easily known by its giving a blue tint to borax when melted with it, and is employed in the arts, in the form of smalt, for communicating a similar color to glass, to earthen ware, and to porcelain. *Smalt*, or powder blue, is made by melting three parts of fine white sand, or calcined flints, with two of purified pearl-ash and one of cobalt ore, previously calcined, and lading it out of the pots into a vessel of cold water; after which, the dark-blue glass, or zaffre, is ground, washed over, and distributed into different shades of colors, which shades are occasioned by the different qualities of the ore, and the coarser and finer grinding of the powder. Smalt, besides being used to stain glass and pottery, is often substituted, in painting, for ultra-marine blue, and is likewise employed to give to paper and linen a bluish tinge. The muriate of cobalt is celebrated as a *sympathetic ink*. When diluted with water, so as to form a pale pink solution, and then employed as ink, the letters which are invisible in the cold, become blue, if gently heated. It is

prepared by dissolving one part of zaffre in two of diluted nitric acid, with the aid of heat, adding to it of muriate of soda one part, and diluting with 20 parts of water. The peroxide of cobalt is of a black color, and is easily formed in the way already mentioned. It does not unite with acids; and, when digested in muriatic acid, the proto-muriate of cobalt is generated with the disengagement of chlorine. When strongly heated in close vessels, it gives off oxygen, and is converted into the protoxide.—*Ores of cobalt:* 1. *White cobalt ore*, or *bright white cobalt ore*, consists, principally, of cobalt and arsenic. Its color is tin-white, liable to tarnish, with little lustre. It occurs massive and crystallized, in cubes and in octohedrons. It is hard and brittle. Specific gravity, 7.3 to 7.7. Before the blowpipe, it melts, and gives an arsenical smoke and odor. It forms a metallic globule, and gives to borax a blue color. It occurs chiefly in primitive rocks, and is frequently accompanied with bismuth. It is found most abundantly in Germany, Sweden and Norway, and also occurs in several other European countries. 2. *Gray cobalt ore* is an alloy of cobalt with arsenic and iron, and is sometimes accompanied with small portions of nickel and bismuth. Its color is light-gray; liable to tarnish. It occurs massive or disseminated, and is never crystallized. It has been found in the U. States, at Chatham, Conn., but has not, hitherto, been wrought advantageously. It also occurs in Bohemia, Saxony and France. 3. *Red cobalt ore* is a hydrated arseniate of cobalt, of a beautiful peach-blossom red color. It occurs massive, disseminated, and in minute crystals. It accompanies other ores of cobalt.

Cobbett, William, a notorious political writer in England and America, was born in 1766, in the county of Surry, England, the son of a farmer, from whom he received the rudiments of his education—reading, writing and arithmetic. In 1783, he left the plough for London, where he became "an understrapping quill-driver," as he calls himself, to an attorney in Gray's Inn. This employment not suiting his restless disposition, he enlisted as a common soldier in 1784, and remained in England a year, spending his leisure hours in reading and study, particularly in the study of grammar. He wrote out the whole of Lowth's grammar two or three times, got it by heart, and repeated it every morning and evening. He then sailed to join his regiment in America, and remained there, in Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, till 1791, when the regiment was relieved and sent home. Serjeant-major Cobbett here left the service, and terminated his military career. In 1792, he first came to the U. States, after a short visit to France. He began his career in Philadelphia, as a writer of political pamphlets, under the well known name of *Peter Porcupine;* soon after engaged in the business of a bookseller in that city, and published, at the same time, a daily newspaper, called the *Porcupine*. The French interest, which then prevailed in the U. States, he opposed with great violence, mingling the coarsest personal abuse with the severest political invective. Having been convicted for a libel on doctor Rush, and condemned in $5000 damages, he left the country, and returned to England in 1800. Here he published the Works of Peter Porcupine, containing a faithful Picture of the U. States, &c. (London, 1801, 12 vols., 8vo.), consisting of selections from the *Porcupine*, with remarks illustrating them, and of his other personal and political writings, previously published in America. This work was dedicated "to a declared enemy of republicans and levellers." In it, doctor Priestley (*Observations on Priestley's Emigration*), doctor Rush (in the *Rush-Light*), doctor Franklin, &c., were unsparingly abused. He soon after established the Weekly Political Register (commenced in 1802), which has been conducted with considerable talent, but great bitterness. In 1810, he was convicted of a libel with intention to excite a mutiny, and condemned to confinement in Newgate, and to pay a fine of £1000. Although the fine was paid by a subscription among his friends, he addressed a letter to the king in 1828, praying his majesty to restore him the sum. In 1815, he became the champion of Napoleon, whom he had previously assailed with the utmost vehemence. In 1817, he again visited America; but we soon after find him in England, where, in 1819, he published his Year's Residence in America. He was never naturalized in the U. States, objecting to the oath required, abjuring all allegiance to any other power. He now connected himself with the party called *radicals;* and we often find him haranguing at public meetings with great success; but, a convicted libeller on both sides of the Atlantic, twice cast out by his own country, and as often rejected by America, alternately praising, abusing, calumniating and panegyrizing the same party, his inconsistency and self-contradictions have much diminished his influence, notwithstanding his great ad-

dress and his popular eloquence. Besides his works already mentioned, the principal are Parliamentary Debates, from 1803—10—11, 20 vols. 8vo.; *Maitre Anglais*, or English Grammar for the Use of Frenchmen, which has obtained great reputation in France, where it has passed through many editions (the examples, illustrating the rules, are severe attacks on royalty); his Life, written by himself (1816); Treatise on Cobbett's Corn* (1828); (the title-page of this work is printed on paper made of the husks of Indian corn). In the latter part of 1829, he was engaged in delivering lectures on the causes of the existing distress in England, and the best means of relieving it.

Cobentzl, Louis, count of, son of count John of Cobentzl, a diplomatist in the Austrian service, was born at Brussels in 1753. He entered first into the military service of Austria, was appointed minister at Copenhagen, after the revolution of 1771, and at the court of Frederic the Great, from 1775 to 1778. In 1779, he was sent on an embassy to Catharine II of Russia, whose favor he secured by his gallantry, and by composing and taking part himself in comedies at her private theatre. In 1795, he concluded a grand triple alliance between Russia, England and Austria, against the French republic. Being recalled to Vienna the following year, he was again employed in political negotiations. He was one of the plenipotentiaries who signed the treaty of Campo-Formio, between Austria and France, in October, 1797, and was also sent to the congress of Rastadt. In the following year, he held a conference, at Seltz, with Francis de Neufchateau, a member of the executive directory, respecting the insult offered to Bernadotte at Vienna. He then returned to Petersburg, whence he was summoned, and sent to Lunéville; and there concluded a treaty of peace with France, in February, 1801. A few months after, he was appointed minister of state and vice-chancellor for the department of foreign affairs at Vienna. In 1805, he followed the Austrian court to Olmütz, and died at Vienna in 1809.

Cobentzl, John Philip, count de, cousin of the last mentioned individual, was born in Carniola in 1741. He was made a counsellor of finance in 1762, and afterwards privy counsellor at Brussels. In 1779, he was employed as a diplomatist at the conclusion of the peace of Teschen. In 1790, he was sent to Brabant to treat with the insurgent Netherlanders; but the states refused to receive him, on which he retired to Luxembourg, where he published a declaration, by which the emperor of Germany revoked all those edicts which had caused the insurrection, and re-established the previous state of affairs. His failure on this occasion probably prevented him from being again employed till 1801, when he was sent ambassador to Paris, through the credit of his cousin, and remained there till 1805. He died Aug. 30, 1810. He was the last of the family of Cobentzl.

Cobi (in Chinese, *Shamo*); a great desert in the central part of Asia, extending from the sources of the Indus and Ganges, beyond those of the Amour, from 23 to 24 degrees of longitude in length, and varying from 3 to 10 degrees of latitude in breadth. But little is known of this immense region, of about 847,000 square miles in extent. Its great elevation, and the salt with which it is impregnated, render it very cold. The frightful uniformity of vast fields of sand and gravel is hardly broken by the small rivers, lined with narrow tracts of pasture, by the salt lakes, and a few fertile oases interspersed here and there, like islands in the ocean. A few little hills rise out of the general level, which extends all around the traveller, as far as the eye can reach. The small Mongolian horses wander about in large droves, and the wild *djiggetai* snatches a hasty meal from the pastures. The camel is commonly used by the Mongols to transport burdens.

Coblentz (anciently *Confluentia*, from its situation at the confluence of the Rhine and Moselle), formerly the residence of the elector of Treves, then chief place of the French department of the Rhine and Moselle, now the capital of the Prussian circle of government (*Regierungsbezirk*) of Coblentz (belonging to the province of the Lower Rhine), containing 1928 square miles, with 337,470 inhabitants, is situated on a most charming spot. Opposite Coblentz is Thalehrenbreitstein, a small place on the right bank of the majestic river, at the foot of the rock, on which the Prussians rebuilt the fortifications of Ehrenbreitstein, and rendered it one of the most remarkable productions of military architecture. Over the Moselle is a bridge of 536 paces, resting upon 14 arches of stone. From this bridge there is one of the finest views on the Rhine. Coblentz (1050 houses and 14,900 inhabitants) consists

* By this term this modest gentleman designates Indian corn or maize, the cultivation of which he has been endeavoring to introduce among his countrymen.

of the old city and the new, or Clement-city, and is, in general, well built. There are several fine public buildings. An aqueduct, constructed by the last elector, brings the finest water from a height near Metternich, over the Moselle bridge, into all quarters of the city. The chief articles of commerce are the Moselle wines and French wines. About one mile from the city is a building, formerly a Carthusian monastery, which is well worthy the attention of travellers, on account of the view which it affords of the two rivers on which the city stands. This building is now changed into a fort called *Hunnenkopf*. On the other side of the Moselle fort Francis is situated. These two forts protect the city on the left bank of the Rhine, and some other fortifications are to be added. These works, with those of the strong fortress of Ehrenbreitstein (q.v.), will render Coblentz one of the strongest fortresses, and a very important defence to Germany, particularly to the Prussian monarchy. The confluence of the two rivers has always given Coblentz great military importance, even in the time of the Romans, who built a strong camp here. On the road from Coblentz to Cologne is the monument of general Marceau, mentioned by lord Byron in Childe Harold's Pilgrimage.

Cobra da Capello; the Portuguese trivial name of the *vipera naja*; the *hooded snake*, or *viper*, of the English; *serpent à lunettes* of the French; a reptile of the most venomous nature, found in various degrees of abundance in different hot countries of the old continent, and in the islands adjacent. The species of the viper kind are all remarkable for the manner in which they spread out or flatten the sides of the neck and head when disturbed or irritated. In the *cobra da capello*, the conformation necessary to this action is found in the most perfect condition, as the animal is provided with a set of ribs or bony processes, moved by appropriate muscles on the sides of the neck, which, when expanded, give the anterior part of the body the appearance of an overhanging arch or hood; on the middle of which, posterior to the eyes, is a greenish-yellow mark, resembling the rim of a pair of spectacles. From this mark the French name is derived. When disturbed by the approach of an individual, or any noise, the *cobra* raises the anterior part of its body, so as to appear to stand erect, expands its hood, and is prepared to inflict a deadly wound. So exceedingly poisonous is its bite, that, in numerous instances which are well authenticated, death has followed within a few minutes; under ordinary circumstances, a few hours is the longest term that intervenes from the infliction of the bite till the death of the sufferer, where prompt measures for his relief have not been resorted to. So numerous are these dreadful vipers in some parts of India and Africa, that they are frequently found in dwelling-houses, and, in some instances, have taken up their quarters in the beds. Death of necessity must follow, under such circumstances, should the animal be alarmed or irritated by any sudden motion. In case a bite is received from this (or, indeed, any other) venomous creature, the first thing to be done is to make a firm and well-sustained pressure beyond the wound, on the side nearest the heart. The excellent experiments of doctor Pennock, which have been already referred to, prove that a sufficient degree of pressure thus kept up will prevent the poison from affecting the system; and this is rendered evident by the good effects derived from ligatures applied around bitten limbs, above the wound, by the natives of India, though such ligatures generally act but imperfectly. The good effects of pressure, combined with the advantage of withdrawing the poison, will be obtained by applying a well exhausted cupping-glass over the wound; a substitute for which may almost always be made of a drinking glass, small bottle, &c., if proper cups be not at hand. It would be well for persons travelling or residing where these vipers are common, to be provided with a bottle of volatile alkali, or spirits of hartshorn, which, applied to the wound several times a day, and taken internally, in doses of 30 to 40 drops, repeated according to circumstances, will avert the injurious consequence of the poison. To heighten the curiosity of the multitude, the jugglers of India select these venomous reptiles for their exhibitions, and, having extracted their fangs, keep them in cages or baskets, to exhibit as dancing snakes. When the cage is opened, the juggler begins playing upon a pipe or other instrument; whereupon the viper assumes the erect attitude, distends its hood, and remains balancing itself in this position until the music is suspended. It is, however, most probable, that this viper, in common with lizards and other animals, is peculiarly affected by musical sounds. A friend, who passed a considerable time in the kingdom of Ava, informed us, that a *cobra* entered a room while a gentleman was playing on

the flute, and advanced gently towards him so long as the music continued; whenever it was suspended, the animal halted, and when it was entirely stopped, it gradually withdrew. This circumstance induced them to spare the viper, which uniformly made its appearance on several successive days when the flute was played. With the exception of the spectacle mark on the back of the neck, and its distensible hood, the *cobra* is not especially distinguished from other vipers. Its colors are dull, being a dark-greenish-brown, lighter towards the inferior parts.

Coburg; a Saxon principality in central Germany, bounded by a number of other small German principalities. The country is mostly mountainous, with fertile plains: minerals and forests abound in it. According to the law of August, 1821, regulating the constitution of the principality, there is a body of representatives, who have a voice in legislation, and particularly in the imposition of taxes. According to the law of Dec. 11, 1809, the feudal privileges were to be abolished by degrees. Coburg has one vote in the general assembly of the diet, and is bound to furnish a contingent of 800 men to the forces of the German confederation. The duke of Saxe-Coburg received, in the division of the former dukedom of Gotha-Altenburg (edict of Nov. 15, 1826), the duchy of Gotha, and several smaller territories; so that the dominions of the present duke of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha comprise 969 square miles, and 139,440 inhabitants, of which 201 square miles and 83,000 inhabitants are comprised in the principality of Coburg and its dependencies, which were subject to the duke previous to the large accession of territory just mentioned.

Coburg, the capital of the above dukedom, is situated in the beautiful Itzgrund (valley of the Itz), with 8100 inhabitants, an excellent school (*gymnasium illustre*), several manufactories, two fairs, and considerable trade.

Coburg. Frederic Josias, duke of Saxe-Coburg, an Austrian field-marshal, was born in 1737; in 1788, took Choczim, and, in connexion with the Russian general Suwaroff, defeated the Turks at Focsani in 1789, and conquered Bucharest. In 1793, he commanded against the French, was victorious at Aldenhoven and Neerwinden, took Valenciennes, Condé, Cambray and Landrécy; but when the duke of York separated himself from the Austrians in order to besiege Dunkirk, Coburg was beaten at Maubeuge, Clerfayt at Tournay, and the English at Dunkirk; and, in consequence of this, Coburg was again defeated at Fleurus and Aldenhoven. He retreated over the Rhine, gave up his command, and died in his native city in 1815.

Coburg, Saxe, prince Leopold of. (See *Leopold*, and *Charlotte Augusta*.)

Cocagna; an annual public festival instituted by the government of Naples, in which food and wine in fountains and from barrels are given to the people. Hence it is said of a country of comfort and plenty, "It is the land of Cockaigne." Something similar were the *congiaria* of the ancient Romans.—*Mats de cocagne;* masts besmeared with soap for the public amusement, which those who have courage for the enterprise endeavor to climb, for the sake of a prize which is fixed on the top.

Cocceii, Henry, born, 1644, at Bremen, studied at Leyden in 1667, and, in 1670, in England; was, in 1672, professor of law at Heidelberg, and, in 1688, at Utrecht; in 1690, regular professor of laws at Frankfort on the Oder; repaired to the Hague, in 1702, without giving up his office, on occasion of the disputes as to the hereditary succession of the house of Orange; received for his services, in 1713, the rank of baron of the empire, and died in 1719. As a lawyer, he was the oracle of many courts, and his system of German public law (*juris publici prudentia*) was almost a universal academical text-book of this science. Cocceii did not owe his profound juridical learning so much to skilful teachers, for he had only heard lectures on the institutes, but to his great industry, which he carried to such an extent, that he allowed but a few hours each night to sleep, lived with the utmost temperance, and even abstained several years from taking dinner. He was mild, obliging, and of an exemplary honesty and disinterestedness. His disputations *Exercitationes curiosæ*, and *Dissert. varii Argumenti*, form 4 vols. 4to.; his *Consilia et Deductiones*, 2 vols. in folio; his *Grotius illustratus*, 3 vols. in folio.—His eldest son, Samuel, baron of Cocceii, born, 1679, at Heidelberg, was, in 1702, professor at Frankfort on the Oder, and rose, through many degrees, to the dignity of grand chancellor of all the Prussian dominions. He died in 1755.—Charles Louis Cocceii, who died in 1808, in Prussia, was the last of this distinguished family.

Coccus, in zoology; a genus of insects of the order of *heteroptera*, family *gallinsecta*. Generic character: *antennæ* filiform, of 10 or 11 articulations in both

sexes, shorter than the body; rostrum pectorale, conspicuous only in the females; males with two large incumbent wings; females apterous, subtomentose, fixed, and becoming gall-shaped or shield-shaped after impregnation. These little insects are remarkable for many peculiarities in their habits and conformation. The males are elongated in their form, have long, large wings, and are destitute of any obvious means of suction; the females, on the contrary, are of a rounded or oval form, have no wings, but possess a beak or sucker, attached to the breast, by which they fix themselves to the plants on which they live, and through which they draw their nourishment. At a certain period of their life, the females attach themselves to the plant or tree which they inhabit, and remain thereon immovable during the rest of their existence. In this situation, they are impregnated by the male; after which, their body increases considerably, in many species losing its original form, and assuming that of a gall, and, after depositing the eggs, drying up, and forming a habitation for the young. This change of form is not, however, constant to all the species, which has given rise to a division of the genus into two sections:—those which assume a gall shape, in which the rings of the abdomen are totally obliterated, are called *kermes* by some authors; and those which retain the distinct sections of the abdomen, notwithstanding the great enlargement of the body, are called *true cocci*, or *cochineal*. They are impregnated in the spring, after having passed the winter fixed to plants, particularly in the bifurcations, and under the small branches. Towards the commencement of summer, they have acquired their greatest size, and resemble a little convex mass, without the least appearance of head or feet, or other organs. Many species are covered with a sort of cottony down. Each female produces thousands of eggs, which are expelled by a small aperture at the extremity of the body. As soon as they are produced, they pass immediately under the parent insect, which becomes their covering and guard; by degrees, her body dries up, and the two membranes flatten, and form a sort of shell, under which the eggs, and subsequently the young ones, are found coccated. Soon after the death of the mother, the young insects leave their hiding-place, and seek their nourishment on the leaves, the juices of which they suck through the inflected rostrum, placed beneath their breast.—But it is with a view to their importance as an article of commerce, arising from their use in the arts, that the insects of this genus are particularly interesting. When it is considered that the most brilliant dyes and the most beautiful pigments, as well as the basis of the most useful kinds of cement, are their product, it will be acknowledged, that to none of the insect tribe, except, perhaps, to the bee and the gall insect, are we more indebted than to these singular and apparently insignificant little beings. Kermes, the scarlet grain of Poland, cochineal, lac-lake, lac-dye, and all the modifications of gum-lac, are either the perfect insects dried, or the secretions which they form. The first mentioned substance is the *coccus ilicis*. It is found in great abundance upon a species of evergreen oak (*quercus coccifera*), which grows in many parts of Europe, and has been the basis of a crimson dye from the earliest ages of the arts. It was known to the Phœnicians before the time of Moses; the Greeks used it under the name of κοκκος, and the Arabians under that of *kermes*. From the Greek and Arabian terms, and from the Latin name *vermiculatum*, given to it when it was known to be the product of a worm, have been derived the Latin *coccineus*, the French *cramoisis* and *vermeil*, and the English *crimson* and *vermilion*. The early Jews, the Greeks, the Romans, and, until lately, the tapestry-makers of Europe, have used it as the most brilliant red dye known. The scarlet grain of Poland (*coccus Polonicus*) is found on the roots of the *scleranthus perennis*, which grows in large quantities in the north-east of Europe, and in some parts of England. This, as well as several other species, which afford a similar red dye, have, however, fallen into disuse since the introduction of cochineal. This valuable and most important material is the *coccus cacti* (Lin.), a native of Mexico, and an inhabitant of a species of cactus, called *nopal*, which was long thought to be the *cactus cochinilifer* (Lin.), but which Humboldt considers a distinct species. The trees which produce the cochineal are cultivated for this purpose in immense numbers; and the operation of collecting the insects, which is exceedingly tedious, is performed by the women, who brush them off with the tail of a squirrel or stag. The insects are killed by being thrown into boiling water, placed in ovens, or dried in the sun. Those which are killed by the latter method fetch a higher price, from the white powder, covering the insect, being still retained, and thus preventing, in a great measure, the adulteration of the

article. The quantity annually exported from South America is immense; the export value being not less than £500,000. Cochineal was cultivated by the Mexicans previous to the conquest, but probably not to any great extent. Cortez received orders from the Spanish court to pay attention to this valuable dye; and, from that time, the quantity increased very rapidly; but, the trade having been carried on only through Spain, it was not until lately so generally used as it is likely to be in future. Cochineal is also raised in Peru, and several other parts of Spanish America, and becomes every year an article of greater importance to the commerce of that country. The finest, however, continues to be prepared in Mexico and Guatimala. In the East Indies, a very inferior kind has been reared, which produces a coarse scarlet dye. Hayti and Brazil have tried to encourage the propagation of this insect.—The natural dye which this little animal affords in such abundance is a deep crimson; and the color called *scarlet* was not discovered until the effect produced by infusing the animal matter in a solution of tin was noticed by a German chemist, in 1643; after which a manufactory of this color was established in London.—*Lac* is a secretion from a species of coccus inhabiting India, where it is found in astonishing abundance. In its native state, not yet separated from the twig on which it has been deposited, it is called *stick-lac*; when separated, powdered, and the coloring matter washed from it, it is denominated *seed-lac*; *lump-lac* when melted into cakes, and *shell-lac* when purified and formed into thin *laminæ*. *Lac-lake* is the coloring matter of stick-lac precipitated from an alkaline lixivium, by means of alum.

Cochabamba; a town of Bolivia, in the province of Cochabamba, in a fertile valley; 90 miles N. N. W. La Plata, 140 S. W. Potosi; lon. 67° 24′ W.; lat. 18° 25′ N. The province has a mild climate, and produces an abundance of grain, also sugar and cattle. Population, about 100,000.

Cochin, Charles Nicolas, engraver, born in Paris in 1688, practised painting till his 23d year, which was of considerable advantage to him in the art of engraving, to which he afterwards devoted himself. In 1731, he became a member of the academy of Paris, and died in 1754. His son, of the same name, devoted himself to etching, rather than to engraving. His productions are superior to those of his father. The collection of his works contains more than 1500 pieces, among which there are 112 likenesses, in the form of medals, of the most renowned French scholars and artists of his time, who were almost all his friends. We have, besides his essays in the memoirs of the academy, several printed works of his, which contain interesting observations on different subjects of art, for instance, on Herculaneum. His frontispieces and vignettes are remarkable for neatness and taste. His views of 16 French seaports are of great value. His composition, in general, is rich, delicate and pleasing. He was a member of the academy, and occupied several places of importance.

Cochin-China, empire of, consists of a part of the kingdom of Kamboja (Cambodia), of Cochin-China Proper, and of Tonquin: the two last are called, by the natives, by the common appellation *Annam*. This empire is bounded on the west by Siam and Laos, on the north by China; the sea is the southern and eastern boundary. Cochin-China extends from 8° 25′ to about 23° N. lat., the extreme length being a little over 1000 miles; the breadth varies from 70 to 220 miles; its area is estimated at about 135,000 square miles. It is politically divided into the vice-royalties of Kamboja and Tonquin, and Cochin-China, which is administered by the king in person. The country is traversed by a lofty chain of mountains, from which numerous small rivers descend into the sea, forming numerous sand-banks along the coast. The Kamboja or Mecon, and the Song-koy or river of Tonquin, are considerable streams. The climate is healthy. In Cochin-China, the rainy season continues from October till March, and neither the heat nor cold is excessive. In Tonquin, on the other hand, the rains commence in May, and terminate in August. The heat and cold are both extreme. The gulf of Tonquin and the neighboring seas are exposed to the ravages of the typhoons, which are rarely felt below the latitude of 16° N. The forests furnish the eagle-wood, the stick-lac, and valuable timber for building and furniture. The orange and the lichi are of excellent quality. Rice, sugar-cane, betel, indigo, cotton and potatoes are the principal productions of agriculture. The true cinnamon is a native of Cochin-China. The mulberry is extensively cultivated for the silk-worm, and the tea-shrub is common in the country. Elephants, used in war, buffaloes, which are yoked to the plough, tigers, rhinoceroses, the wild boar, the horse, which is small, the ox, a small, reddish-brown animal, and

several species of deer, are the principal quadrupeds. Sheep are very rare. The poultry is numerous and very good. The seas and rivers abound with fish, which supply a great number of the inhabitants with food. Neither the flesh of the buffalo nor that of the ox is eaten by the Cochin-Chinese, and milk they hold in abhorrence, considering it as blood. The Annam race, comprehending the Cochin-Chinese and the Tonquinese, are a short, but active and hardy people. In the useful arts, they have made considerable progress. Their language is monosyllabic. They have no literature of their own, and receive all their books from the Chinese. In writing the Chinese characters, the elementary ones are the same, but they make considerable changes in combining them. Their manners are lively and cheerful; their character mild and docile. There are two classes, the commonalty and nobility or mandarins. The government is despotic; the chief instrument is the rod, which is freely administered. The general administration is conducted by a supreme council and six ministers of state. Beside these, there are three other superior officers, called *kun*—the viceroys of Tonquin and Kamboja, and the minister of elephants, who is properly prime minister and minister for foreign affairs. Every male inhabitant, between 18 and 60 years of age, is at the disposal of the state; and, in Cochin-China, every third man on the rolls performs actual service during every other three years. These conscripts are called soldiers, and wear uniforms, but are, in reality, engaged as laborers on the public works and in the menial service of the public officers. The royal guard of 30,000 men is always stationed near the person of the king. The ordinary force consists of about 360,000 troops and 800 elephants, cavalry not being at all used. The effective force, regularly armed and disciplined, is not more than 50,000. They are armed partly with muskets and partly with spears. There is no established religion in Annam. The ministers of religion are few and little respected; the temples mean and little frequented. The lower orders, in general, follow the worship of Buddha or Fo. Persons of rank are of the sect of Confucius; but the only part of the religious belief, which assumes a systematic form, is the worship of the dead. Polygamy is permitted to any extent, as the wife is a mere chattel purchased by the husband. Marriages, however, are indissoluble, except by mutual consent. The population has been estimated, by some writers, at 22,000,000, but does not, probably, exceed 10,000,000, perhaps not 6,000,000. The direct commercial intercourse between Cochin-China and Europe and America, has been very inconsiderable, but is now on the increase. The foreign trade, by sea, is principally with China, Siam, and the British ports within the straits of Malacca. The principal places from which it is conducted are Saigon in Kamboja, Hue, the capital of the empire, in Cochin-China, and Cachao in Tonquin. The exports are cinnamon, pepper, areca, raw silk, sugar, dye-woods, cardamoms, ivory, elephant's and rhinoceros' hides, &c.—According to the Chinese annals, Annam was conquered by China, B. C. 214, and colonized by numerous bodies of Chinese. After various revolutions, in which the Chinese yoke was thrown off, and Tonquin and Cochin-China were alternately conquerors, the present order of things was established by events which took place at the end of the 18th century. The Taysons, three brothers from the lowest ranks of the people, had rendered themselves so powerful as to obtain possession of nearly the whole country; the king had perished in the war against them. His young son, Gialong, having been intrusted to the care of the bishop of Adran, a French missionary, obtained, through his influence, the assistance of some Europeans, by whose means he formed a navy, disciplined his troops, and constructed fortifications in the European manner. He succeeded, after a struggle of 12 years, in subduing the Taysons, conquered Tonquin in 1802, Kamboja in 1809, and left the empire, on his death, in 1819, to his present majesty, Meng-meng, his illegitimate son, who, in 1821, was regularly invested with the government of Annam by the court of China. (See La Bissachère's *État actuel du Tunquin, de la Cochinchine*, &c., Paris, 1812; White's *Voyage to the China Sea*, Boston, 1823; and particularly Crawfurd's *Embassy to Siam and Cochin-China*, London, 1828.)

COCHINEAL. (See *Coccus*.)

COCHRANE, Alexander Thomas, lord; born Dec. 2, 1775; a naval officer, distinguished by his boldness and success; eldest son of the well-known chemist, lord Archibald Cochrane, earl of Dundonald; educated by his uncle, admiral sir Alex. Forester Cochrane, who, in 1814, took the capital of the U. States, and burned the public buildings. In February, 1814, lord Cochrane, the subject of this article, then a member of parliament, was accused of

having spread a false report of the death of Napoleon, for the purpose of affecting the price of the stocks, was condemned to the pillory, to a year's imprisonment, and a fine of £1000, and excluded from parliament and from the order of the Bath. The royal clemency spared him the exposure in the pillory. The fine was paid by his friends. In 1818, lord Cochrane took the command of the naval force of Chile, which he conducted with success, and afterwards of that of Brazil. In 1823, the emperor Pedro created him marquis of Maranham. After the peace between Portugal and Brazil, he took his dismission, returned to England, and, in 1826, intended to enter the Greek service as admiral; but the steam-boats built for the use of the Greeks in England proved unfit for their purpose. He remained a long time at Marseilles and Genoa, waiting for other vessels, finally entered the Greek service in 1827, in which he continued until the following year, and then returned to England.

Cochrane, captain John Dundas, nephew of the above, travelled on foot through France, Spain and Portugal, then through Russia to Kamtschatka (see *Narrative of a Pedestrian Journey through Russia*, &c., 1820—23, London, 1824), and died in 1825, in Colombia, whither he had gone with a view of travelling through South America on foot.

Cock (*phasianus gallus*, L.); the well-known chieftain of the poultry-yard, and rural announcer of the passage of time; whose shrill clarion, heard in the still watches of the night, inspires the invalid with cheering hopes of the coming dawn, and informs the way-worn traveller of his approach to the habitations of his kind; the appropriate emblem of vigilance, virility, warlike daring and gallantry: domesticated, but not subdued, he marches at the head of his train of wives and offspring, with a port of proud defiance, not less ready to punish aggression against his dependents than to assert his superiority upon the challenge of any rival. At what time this valuable species of pheasant was brought under the immediate control of man, it is now impossible to determine; but, as the forests of many parts of India still abound with several varieties of the cock in the wild or natural condition, it is quite reasonable to conclude that the race was first domesticated in the Eastern countries, and gradually extended thence to the rest of the world. It is stated that the cock was first introduced into Europe from Persia; and Aristophanes speaks of it as the *Persian bird*. Nevertheless, it has been so long established throughout the western regions, as to render it impossible to trace its progress from its native wilds. —The cock has his head surmounted by a notched, crimson, fleshy substance, called *comb*: two pendulous fleshy bodies of the same color, termed *wattles*, hang under his throat. The hen has also a similar, but not so large nor so vividly colored excrescence on her head. The cock is provided with a sharp horn or spur on the outside of his tarsus, with which he inflicts severe wounds; the hen, instead of a spur, has a mere knot or tubercle. There is, in both sexes, below the ear, an oblong spot, the anterior edge of which is reddish, and the remainder white. The feathers arise, in pairs, from each sheath, touching by their points within the skin, but diverging in their course outwards. On the neck, they are long, narrow and floating; on the rump, they are of the same form, but drooping laterally over the extremity of the wings, which are quite short, and terminate at the origin of the tail, the plumes of which are vertical. In the centre of the cock's tail are two long feathers, which fall backwards in a graceful arch, and add great beauty to the whole aspect of the fowl. It is in vain to offer any description of the color of the plumage, as it is infinitely varied, being in some breeds of the greatest richness and elegance, and in others of the simplest and plainest hue. Except in the pure white breeds, the plumage of the cock is always more splendid than that of the hen. We cannot contemplate the cock, when in good health and full plumage, without being struck with his apparent consciousness of personal beauty and courage. His movements and gestures seem all to be influenced by such feelings, and his stately march and frequent triumphant crowing express confidence in his strength and bravery. The salacity of the cock is excessive, and one is known to be quite sufficient for the fecundation of 10 or 15 hens. His sexual powers are matured when he is about six months old, and his full vigor lasts for about three years, varying in earliness of maturity and duration with his size and the climate. The hen is ready to commence laying after she has moulted or changed her plumage, and is not at the trouble of making a regular nest. A simple hole, scratched in the ground, in some retired place, serves her purpose, and she generally lays from 12 to 15 eggs before she begins to sit upon them for the purpose of hatching. Having

thus taken possession of her nest, she becomes a model of enduring patience, remaining fixed in her place until the urgency of hunger forces her to go in search of food. A short time suffices; she runs eagerly about in quest of sustenance, and soon resumes her charge. Her eggs are diligently turned and shifted from the centre to the edge of the nest, so that each may receive a due degree of genial warmth, and it is not until about 21 days have elapsed that the incubation is completed. The strongest of the progeny then begin to chip the shell with the bill, and are successively enabled to burst their brittle prisons. She continues upon the nest till the whole are hatched and dry, and then leads them forth in search of food. The hen, except when accompanied by a young brood, is always timid, and ready to fly from disturbance; but when she is engaged in discharging the duties of maternity, her whole nature is changed. She fiercely and vigorously attacks all aggressors, watches over the safety of her young with the utmost jealousy, neglects the demands of her own appetite to divide the food she may obtain among her nurslings, and labors with untiring diligence to provide them sufficient sustenance. The limits within which we are restricted forbids the attempt to give a complete history of this valuable species, which is, in every point of view, interesting. To detail all that would be necessary to illustrate it, as an object of natural history and domestic economy,—the modes of breeding, rearing, preparing for the table, &c.,—would require a small volume. Fortunately, almost every one, who will employ his own observation, may readily arrive at such knowledge. Very full histories of the species are given by Buffon and other standard authors. Temminck has, perhaps, offered the most complete, in his *Histoire des Gallinacés*. (See *Incubation*.)

Cock-Fighting was an amusement of the Greeks and Romans. An annual cock-fight was instituted at Athens, and Æschines reproaches Timarchus, and Plato the Athenians in general, with their fondness for the cock-pit. The breeds of Rhodes and of Tanagra in Bœotia were in great esteem in Greece. The Romans seem to have used quails and partridges also for this purpose. Mark Antony was a patron of the pit, but, in his matches with Octavius, it was observed that Cæsar's cocks were always victorious. This barbarous and brutalizing spectacle, it is well known, has been a favorite sport with the English, although repeatedly denounced and prohibited by the laws; but it is now deservedly in disrepute. Many nice rules are given for the training and dieting of cocks, and for the choice of individual combatants. "The best cocks," says one of the many English writers on this subject, "should be close hitters, deadly heelers, steady fighters, good mouthers, and come to every point." Great difference of opinion has prevailed as to the size most proper for game-cocks. Hoyle settles it at not less than 4 lbs. 8 oz., nor above 4 lbs. 10 oz. The *strain* from which the cock is chosen ought to be distinguished for victory. For the combat, they are armed with steel or silver spurs, or *gaffles*. The place appropriated to fighting is called the *pit*, and consists generally of a mound of earth, covered with sod, and surrounded by seats in circular tiers. The battle is conducted by two setters, who place the cocks beak to beak. When they are once pitted, neither of the setters-to can touch his cock, so long as they continue to fight, unless their weapons get entangled.—Cock-fighting is prevalent in China, Persia and Malacca.

Cock-Pit; the place where cock-fights are held.—In navigation, the *cock-pit* of a man-of-war comprises the apartments of the surgeon and his mates, being the place where the wounded men are dressed in battle, or at other times. It is situated under the lower-deck.

Cockade (from *cocarde*); a plume of cock's feathers, with which the Croats adorned their caps. A bow of colored ribbons was adopted for the cockade in France, which soon became a national emblem and party signal. During the French revolution, the tri-colored cockade became the national distinction. National cockades are now to be found over all Europe. In some countries, the law requires every citizen to wear one, and the deprivation of them is a disgraceful punishment, as in Prussia. In point of fact, the rule requiring them to be worn is but little observed.

Cockchaffer; a species of coleopterous insect, belonging to the genus *melolontha* (Fab.), remarkable for the length of its life, in the worm or larve state, as well as for the injury it does to vegetation, after it has attained its perfect condition. By Linnæus, this species, which is also known by the trivial names of *may-bug*, *dorr-beetle*, &c., was placed in the genus *scarabæus*, or *beetle* (see *Beetle*); and it is true, that the *melolontha* have the general aspect, conformation and habits of the beetles. They dif-

fer from them, however, in having the body less depressed, swelling out above and below into a sort of hump. The head is engaged in the corselet, which is slightly narrowed in front, and most commonly attached to the *elytra* behind. The *antennæ*, which are foliated in a mass, are composed of 10 joints, the last of which terminates the mass like a plume, which the insect displays at will, sometimes to the number of seven plates, larger and more perfectly developed in the males than females. The bodies of *melolontha* are very often velvet-like, and covered with hairs and imbricated scales, differently colored, like the butterflies. Some species are very highly adorned in this way, and present combinations of brilliant and beautiful colors.—The may-bug (*melolontha vulgaris*) is hatched from an egg which the parent deposits in a hole about six inches deep, which she digs for the purpose. Her eggs are oblong, of a bright yellow color, and are placed regularly side by side, though not included in any common envelope. At the end of about three months, the insects come out of the eggs as small grubs or maggots, and feed upon the roots of vegetables in the vicinity with great voracity. As they increase in size and strength, they become able to make their way with ease under ground, and continue their ravages upon the roots of plants. When the worm has attained its greatest size, it is an inch and a half long by more than half an inch thick, perfectly white, with a red head, having a semi-circular lip, and a strong pair of jaws, with which it cuts the roots, for the purpose of sucking out their fluids. It has two *antennæ*, but is destitute of eyes. The subterranean existence of these animals is extended to four years, and, as their food is not accessible during the cold season, they bury themselves sufficiently deep in the soil to be safe from the frost, and pass the winter in a state of torpidity. When the spring restores them to animation and activity, they revisit the upper stratum of the ground, having, at each annual awakening, undergone a change of skin.—At the end of the third year, they have acquired their full growth as larves; they then cease eating, and void the residue of their food, preparatory to the change or metamorphosis which they are about to undergo. If opened at this period, their strongly muscular integument is found to be completely filled with a mass of white, oily matter, resembling cream, apparently destined as a reserve for the alimentation of the insect during the period of its remaining in the form of a nymph, which is scarcely less than six months. To undergo their final change, these larves bore into the earth to the depth of two feet or more, where they form a rounded cavity, the sides of which are smoothed and consolidated by the application of a fluid disgorged from their mouths. The larve being thus secured, it soon begins to contract in length, swells, and bursts its skin, coming therefrom as a soft, whitish nymph, having all the members shrunk and folded, uniformly arranged in the same manner, exhibiting the rudiments of *elytra*, *antennæ*, &c. The insect then gradually acquires consistence and color, becoming of a brownish hue. This state continues about three months, by the end of which time, the insect disengages its wings, limbs and *antennæ*, and assumes its rank as a perfect coleopterous insect. It is in the month of February that the larve changes to nymph. During the months of March and April, it approaches the surface of the earth, and, about the beginning of May, escapes from its grovelling mode of life to soar through the air, disporting in sunshine and shade. From this circumstance, the German trivial name of *Maikäfer*, and the English *may-bug* or *beetle*, have been given. The term *cockchaffer*, applied to the common species, is evidently made up from the German.—Cockchaffers, in their perfect state, pass the greater part of the day in a state of slumber or quietude, on the leaves of the trees which they feed on, unless disturbed by the too great heat of the sun, which arouses them to fly to the shade. At eventide, the whole of this drowsy population take wing, for the sake of procuring food. Their flight is loud, humming, and generally with the wind; and so little is the insect capable of directing its course, that it strikes violently against every object in the way. This peculiarity has given origin, in France, to a proverbial expression, applied to a thoughtless, blundering person, who is said to be *as stupid as a may-bug; Étourdi comme un hanneton.*—. The generative act of these insects has some peculiarities. The male, which is generally smaller than the female, and always cognizable by the greater size of his foliated *antennæ*, previous to this operation, is very active. As soon, however, as this object is accomplished, he seems to fall into a state of faintness and lethargy, and the female, in flying from place to place, carries him with her, hanging in a helpless, inverted position, with his back downwards, and his feet in the air. The male organs are quite singular, being formed in such a manner that the organ

conveying the fecundating fluid is introduced by the aid of two elongated horns, which, by their approximation, form a sort of stiff point. These two pieces lie over another, within which are muscles that, at the proper moment, contract, and thus dilate the sheath, which may be compared to a surgical dilator. To this expansion of the sheath the adherence of the sexes during the act of generation is owing. The males perish as soon as they have fulfilled this great object of their being, as they thenceforth cease to eat. The fecundated female forsakes the trees for the earth, into which, with her claws, she bores a hole six or eight inches deep, in which she places from 50 to 80 eggs. This completes the circle of her actions, and she soon after dies; though it has been said, without any foundation in observation or analogy, that the females, after laying their eggs, resume their former habits, and live among the trees.

Cock-Fighting. (See *Cock.*)

Cock-Pit. (See *Cock.*)

Cockroach (*blatta*, Lin.); a genus of insects belonging to the orthopterous or straight-winged order, characterized by an oval, elongated, depressed body, which is smooth on its superior surface. The head is inclined, short, and concealed under the corselet; the *antennæ* are long, bristly, formed of numerous pieces, and inserted in a groove within the eyes. The corselet is scutiform, covering the head and origin of the *elytra;* the abdomen is terminated by two conical appendages. The legs are beset with little spines; the feet are long and compressed; the *tarsi* have five joints. They have a longitudinal crop or craw; the gizzard, or muscular stomach, is internally provided with strong hooked teeth: from 8 to 10 *cæca* are found about the pylorus.—These insects are among the most disagreeable of the annoyances to which the dwellings of man are subject, and, where their multiplication is permitted, the ravages they commit are extensive and vexatious. They are all nocturnal, and exceedingly agile; their flattened bodies allow them to hide, with ease, in every crevice, whence they sally forth in hordes during the night, to devour every sort of provision which is not secured from their voracity. Like all other depredators, they are thrown into confusion and put to flight by the presence of light, whence they were, in ancient times, appropriately called *lucifugæ*, or *light-shunners*. Their destructiveness is not confined to articles of provision for the table; silk, woollen, and even cotton cloths are devoured, or rendered useless by being gnawed through. At some seasons of the year, when the male cockroaches fly about, they are very troublesome, especially about twilight, when they dash into rooms, and often strike against the faces of those present, to the great alarm of females, who generally dread them excessively. The presence of a light, it is true, would secure us against such invasions from the cockroach, but a great number of other nocturnal insects would be attracted by its glare, and induce a greater degree of annoyance. When a cockroach takes refuge or seeks concealment upon any person, he will inflict a smart bite, if particularly hurt or alarmed.—The sapient Sancho Panza declares, that there is a remedy for every thing but death; and it is truly happy for mankind, that the multiplication of this pestilent race may be repressed by aid of their own voracity. If to a quantity of Indian corn meal about one third of white or red lead is added, and the mixture is moistened with molasses, so as to make it moderately adhesive, the cockroaches will greedily devour it. The repetition of this poisoned food for a few nights is generally sufficient to reduce their numbers to a very few, even in the most infected houses, and will eventually cause the destruction of the whole. They may also be poisoned with preparations of arsenic, sublimate, &c., mixed with sugar or molasses, of which they are very fond. Traps especially designed for their capture are sometimes to be found at the potteries. A paste-board or card cover, well balanced upon two pins, and placed upon the edge of a vessel, nearly filled with molasses and water, makes a very good trap. The dish should be so placed, that they can readily mount upon the cover, which revolves on its axis whenever the equilibrium is disturbed, and throws the cockroaches into the fluid.—Cockroaches, like other orthopterous insects, do not undergo a complete metamorphosis: the larves and nymphs resemble the perfect insect, except that they have merely rudiments of wings. The females lay their eggs successively and singly. The egg has a very singular appearance, being large, cylindric, rounded at both ends, and having a projecting dentated line or keel, throughout its length, on one side. This egg is half as large as the belly of the female, and she carries it for seven or eight days, attached to the posterior part of the abdomen, and, finally, attaches it to some solid body, by means of a gummy fluid.—The species of cockroach at present determined, are about 12 in number.

Among these, the *blatta Americana* and the *blatta Orientalis* are the especial pests of our country. The first mentioned is the largest of the genus, and grows to be two or three inches long, including the *antennæ*. Throughout the southern portion of this continent, and in the West India islands, this species (*blatta Americana*), called *Kakkerlac* by the Dutch, is very numerous and troublesome. The *blatta Orientalis*, or common kitchen cockroach, was originally brought from Asia to Europe, and thence to America. It is now thoroughly domiciliated in all parts of our country, to the great vexation of its inhabitants. This species is fond of warmth, and makes its abode near to the kitchen fire-place, about ovens, stoves, &c.

Cockswain, or Coxen; the officer who manages and steers a boat, and has the command of the boat's crew. It is evidently compounded of the words *cock* and *swain*, the former of which was anciently used for a yawl, or small boat, as appears from several authors, but has now become obsolete.

Cocles. (See *Horatius*.)

Cocoa-Nut. The cocoa-nut is a woody fruit, of an oval shape, from three or four to six or eight inches in length, covered with a fibrous husk, and lined internally with a white, firm and fleshy kernel.—The tree (*cocos nucifera*) which produces the cocoa-nut, is a kind of palm, from 40 to 60 feet high, having on its summit only leaves or branches, appearing almost like immense feathers, each 14 or 15 feet long, 3 feet broad, and winged. Of these, the upper ones are erect, the middle ones horizontal, and the lower ones drooping. The trunk is straight, naked, and marked with the scars of the fallen leaves. The nuts hang from the summit of the tree in clusters of a dozen or more together. The external rind of the nuts has a smooth surface, and is of a somewhat triangular shape. This encloses an extremely fibrous substance, of considerable thickness, which immediately surrounds the nut. The latter has a thick and hard shell, with three holes at the base, each closed with a black membrane. The kernel lines the shell, is sometimes nearly an inch in thickness, and encloses a considerable quantity of sweet and watery liquid, of a whitish color, which has the name of *milk*. This tree is a native of Africa, the East and West Indies, and South America, and flourishes best in a sandy soil.—Food, clothing, and the means of shelter and protection, are all afforded by the cocoa-nut-tree. The kernels of the nuts, which somewhat resemble the filbert in taste, but are of much firmer consistence, are used as food in various modes of dressing, and sometimes are cut into pieces and dried. When pressed in a mill, they yield an oil, which, in some countries, is the only oil used at table; and which, when fresh, is equal in quality to that of almonds. It, however, soon becomes rancid, and, in this state, is principally used by painters. The milk or fluid contained in the nut is an exceedingly cool and agreeable beverage, which, when good, somewhat resembles the kernel in flavor. Cocoa-nut-trees first produce fruit when 6 or 7 years old; after which each tree yields from 50 to 100 nuts annually. The fibrous coats or husks which envelope the cocoa-nuts, after having been soaked for some time in water, become soft. They are then beaten, to free them from the other substances with which they are intermixed, and which fall away like saw-dust, the stringy part only being left. This is spun into long yarns, woven into sail-cloth, and twisted into cables, even for large vessels. The cordage thus manufactured is, in several respects, preferable to that brought from Europe, but particularly for the advantages which are derived from its floating in water. The woody shells of the nut are so hard as to receive a high polish, and are formed into drinking cups, and other domestic utensils, which are sometimes expensively mounted in silver. On the summit of the cocoa-nut-tree, the tender leaves, at their first springing up, are folded over each other, so as somewhat to resemble a cabbage. These are occasionally eaten in place of culinary greens, and are a very delicious food; but, as they can only be obtained by the destruction of the tree, which dies in consequence of their being removed, they are in general considered too expensive a treat. The larger leaves are used for the thatching of buildings, and are wrought into baskets, brooms, mats, sacks, hammocks, and many other useful articles. The trunks are made into boats, and furnish timber for the construction of houses; and, when their central pith is cleared away, they form excellent gutters for the conveyance of water. If, whilst growing, the body of the tree be bored, a white and sweetish liquor exudes from the wound, which is called *toddy*. This is collected in vessels of earthen ware, and is a favorite beverage in many parts where the trees grow. When fresh, it is very sweet; in a few hours, it becomes somewhat acid, and, in this state, is peculiarly agreeable; but, in the space of 24 hours, it is

complete vinegar. By distillation, this liquor yields an ardent spirit, which is sometimes called *rack*, or *arrack*, and is more esteemed than that obtained by distillation from rice or sugar, and merely fermented, and flavored with the cocoa-nut juice. If boiled with quick-lime, it thickens into a sirup, which is used by confectioners in the East Indies, though it is much inferior to sugar produced from the sugar-cane.

Cocytus (from κωκυειν, to lament); a river of ancient Epirus, which falls into the Acheron. The waters of both are tinged with black. The Greek poets call this river *the black Cocytus, echoing with groans*. It encircles the region of Tartarus, and is composed of the tears of the damned.—According to mythology, Cocytus is the son of Styx, and father of Phlegethon and Menthe. Pausanias advances the following conjecture respecting this river: "At Cichyrus is lake Acheron, with the rivers Acheron and Cocytus, whose waters are very ungrateful to the taste. Homer, I imagine, had seen these rivers, and, in his bold description of hell, gave to the streams in it the names of those in Thesprotia."

Cod (*gadus*, L., Bloch.); a genus of fishes belonging to the order *jugulares* (soft-finned, sub-brachial, of Cuvier), distinguished by the following characters:—a smooth, oblong or fusiform body, covered with small, soft, deciduous scales; ventrals attached beneath the throat, covered by thick skin, and drawn out to a point; head scaleless; eyes lateral; opercle not dentated; jaws and anterior part of the vomer furnished with several ranges of moderate-sized, unequal, pointed teeth, forming a card or rasp-like surface; the gills are large, seven-rayed, and opening laterally; a small beard at the tip of the lower jaw; almost all the species have two or three dorsal fins, one or two anal, and one distinct caudal fin; the stomach is sacciform and powerful, the cœca very numerous, and the intestines of considerable length; they have a large, strong swimming-bladder, frequently dentated or lobed at its borders.—The most interesting of all the species is the *common* or *Bank cod* (*G. morrhua*, L.). Regarded as a supply of food, a source of national industry and commercial wealth, or as a wonder of nature in its continuance and multiplication, this fish may justly challenge the admiration of every intelligent observer. Though found in considerable numbers on the coasts of other northern regions, an extent of about 450 miles of ocean, laving the chill and rugged shores of Newfoundland, is the favorite annual resort of countless multitudes of cod, which visit the submarine mountain known as the *Grand Banks*, to feed upon the crustaceous and molluscous animals abundant in such situations. Hither, also, fleets of fishermen regularly adventure, sure of winning a rich freight in return for their toils and exposure, and of conveying plenty and profit to their homes and employers. Myriads of cod are thus yearly destroyed by human diligence; myriads of millions, in the egg state, are prevented from coming into existence, not only by the fishermen, who take the parents before they have spawned, but by hosts of ravenous fishes, and an immense concourse of other animals, which attend upon their migrations to feed upon their spawn: yet, in despite of the unceasing activity of all these destructive causes, year after year finds the abundance still undiminished, inexhaustible by human skill and avidity, irrepressible by the combined voracity of all the tribes of ocean. This, however, is by no means the sum of destruction to which the species is liable. After the spawn is hatched, while the fry are too young and feeble to save themselves by flight or resistance, they are pursued and devoured in shoals by numerous greedy tyrants of the deep, and, still worse, by their own gluttonous progenitors, clearly showing that without some extraordinary exertion of creative energy, the existence of the species could not have been protracted beyond a few years. Such, however, is the fecundity with which the All-wise has endowed this race, that if but one female annually escaped, and her eggs were safely hatched, the species would be effectually preserved. This is not so surprising when we recollect that the ovaries of each female contain not fewer than 9,344,000 eggs, as has been ascertained by careful and repeated observation.—Few members of the animal creation contribute a greater mass of subsistence to the human race; still fewer are more universally serviceable than the cod-fish, of which every part is applied to some useful purpose. When fresh, its beautifully white, firm and flaky muscles furnish our table with one of the most delicious dainties; salted, dried, or otherwise conserved for future use, it affords a substantial and wholesome article of diet, for which a substitute could not readily be found. The tongue, which is always separated from the head when the fish is first caught, even epicures consider a delicacy; and tongues, salted or pickled along

with the swimming-bladders, which are highly nutritious, being almost entirely pure gelatine, are held in much estimation by house-keepers, under the title of *tongues and sounds*. The sound or swimming-bladder of codfish, if rightly prepared, supplies an isinglass equal to the best Russian, and applicable to all the uses for which the imported is employed. The liver of the cod, when fresh, is eaten by many with satisfaction, but it is more generally reserved, by fishermen, for the sake of the large quantity of fine limpid oil which it contains. This is extracted by heat and pressure, and forms the well-known *cod-liver oil* of commerce, which, in many respects, and for most uses, is superior to the commonly-used fish-oil. The heads of codfish, after the tongues are cut out, and the gills are saved for bait, are thrown overboard, on account of want of room, and because salting would not preserve them to any advantage. Yet the head, being almost entirely composed of gelatine, is, when fresh, the richest, and perhaps the most nutritive part of the fish. The fishermen, it is true, make use of it for their own nourishment, but the great mass is thrown into the sea—a circumstance we can scarce reflect upon without regret, when we remember how many poor, in various charitable institutions, and through the country generally, might be luxuriously fed with this waste. If vessels were provided with the requisite implements and fuel, these heads would furnish a large amount of strong and valuable fish-glue or isinglass, that would well repay the trouble and expense of its preparation. The intestines of the codfish also yield a tribute to the table; the French fishermen, especially, prepare from them a dish somewhat similar, and not far inferior, to the sounds. Finally, the ovaries or *roes* of the females are separated from their membranes, and the eggs, nicely pickled, afford an agreeable and gustful relish, far more delicate and inviting to the palate than the celebrated Russian caviare. In addition to these usual modes of employing the different parts of our fish, the Norwegians, Icelanders and Kamtschadales pound up the backbones and other refuse parts, for the purpose of feeding their dogs and other domestic animals during the winter. Strange as such diet may appear, it is stated as a well-established fact, that cows, fed upon these pounded bones, mingled with a small quantity of vegetable matter, yield a larger supply and a better quality of milk than those supported upon more ordinary provender.—The usual mode of preserving codfish for commercial purposes is by salting them immediately after they are caught, having first removed the head, bowels, &c. Those which are carefully selected and salted with greater attention to their whiteness, are usually called *dun-fish*, and bring a better price than such as are salted in bulk, with little regard to the discoloration caused by imperfect washing and draining before being packed. Where facilities are afforded for drying, by an adjacent shore, or by the construction of the vessel, cod are cured by drying alone, or with a very small quantity of salt. This process requires several days' exposure to sun and air, and, when skilfully conducted, keeps the fish, for an indefinite period, in a very desirable condition of whiteness and freshness, both peculiarly advantageous to the appearance of the fish at respectable tables. Cod thus cured are called *stock-fish*, and, before being cooked, require to be softened, by soaking in water and pounding with a wooden mallet.—The spawning season, on the Banks of Newfoundland, begins about the month of March, and terminates in June; consequently the regular period of fishing does not commence before April, on account of the storms, ice and fogs; and, indeed, many fishermen consider the middle of May as sufficiently early. After the month of June, cod commence their migrations to other quarters, and, of course, the fishing is suspended until the ensuing season. During the months of April and May, fresh cod, of several species, are caught, in considerable abundance, on the Atlantic coast of the U. States, as far south as the capes of Delaware, and perhaps still more to the southward. At this season, the markets of this country are, for a short time, supplied with this fine fish. The inhabitants of the north-eastern cities, being near to the great fisheries, and employing vessels built for the conveyance of live fish, are liberally provided with all the luxuries obtainable from this great gift of Providence.—The common or Bank cod (*cabeliau* or *morue*) varies in size and weight according to its age and the season of the year. The average length is about 2½ or 3 feet, and the weight between 30 and 50 pounds. Single cod have been caught weighing three times as much, measuring 5½ feet in length; but such specimens are uncommon, the greater number approaching the average above given. The color is a yellowish-gray on the back, maculated with yellowish and brown; the belly white or reddish, with

golden spots in young individuals. The fins are yellowish, with the exception of the anal, which are grayish; the head is large and flattened, with an enormous gape to the mouth; the upper jaw projects beyond the lower, which has a cirrhus or beard about the length of a finger; the eyes are very large, and veiled by a transparent membrane; the scales are of large size; first ray of the first anal fin not articulated and spinous.—Professor Mitchill, in his interesting paper on the fishes of New York, enumerates 10 species of cod among the supplies brought to the market of that city, caught on the coasts adjacent. To his valuable researches, published in the first volume of the New York Philosophical Transactions, the reader may advantageously refer, who desires to be intimately acquainted with the distinctions by which these species are discriminated. They are named as follows:—*Gadus morrhua*, Bank cod; *G. callarias*, dorse cod; *G. tomcodus*, tomcod; *G. æglefinus*, haddock; *G. blennoides*, blennoid cod; *G. purpureus*, New York pollock; *G. merluccius*, hake; *G. tenuis*, slender cod; *G. longipes*, codling; *G. punctatus*, spotted cod. The whole process of cod-fishing is highly interesting, but the briefest description of it would require far more space than can be afforded here. The importance of this fishery, and the great national interests which it involves, has made it a fruitful source of diplomatic discussion, and led to the establishment of various regulations, to which all are obliged to conform who participate in its advantages. It is obviously out of our power satisfactorily to treat of these topics, and all the interesting matter connected with the subject, in an article solely designed to give a general sketch of the characters of the genus, and of the most interesting species of cod.

Cod, Cape. (See *Cape Cod.*)

Code, in jurisprudence, is a name given, by way of eminence, to a collection of laws. (For the derivation of the word, see *Codex*. For the different parties, among the lawyers of our times, respecting the advantages of codes and codifying, see *Law*. For the different codes of modern times, see the respective countries, and the following list.)

Code Civil. (See *Codes, les Cinq.*)

Code Henri. (See *Christophe.*)

Code Napoléon. (See *Codes, les Cinq.*)

Code of Frederic, or Codex Fredericianus. (See *Prussia, Code of.*)

Code of Justinian. (See *Civil Law.*)

Code of Louisiana. (See *Louisiana.*)

Codes, les cinq (*French*; the five codes); the new French digests of laws. The civil code (*Code civil*) or general law of the country, the commercial code, the penal code, the codes of civil and criminal procedure, form, together, a whole, which, whatever may be their absolute value, will remain a perpetual monument of the state of things in France which proceeded from the revolution, and particularly of Napoleon's administration. They originated from the spirit of the times and of the nation; and are, in some respects, the key-stone of the revolution, as they secure, in a great measure, its reasonable demands. Like all human works, they are chargeable with imperfection, and they have been criticised with severity by some political parties and some learned works. (See Savigny *Von dem Beruf unserer Zeit zur Gesetzgebung*, 1816—On the Aptitude of the present Age for Legislation and Jurisprudence; translated from the German of F. C. von Savigny, by a Barrister of Lincoln's Inn.) Yet, compared with the preceding condition of jurisprudence in France, they must be acknowledged by all to have been a great and undeniable benefit to the country, as well as to the age in which they were produced. The laws in France, before the revolution, were in a state of the greatest confusion. The Roman or civil law was universally in force as subsidiary to the local customs, and was applied, particularly, to the regulation of contracts. But with regard to the rights of property of married people, the modifications of landed property, feudal rights, &c., the greatest differences prevailed in different parts of the kingdom. The invasions of the German tribes must have effaced, in a great measure, with the Roman law, the last traces of the ancient laws of the Gallic nation; and that more or less completely, according to the degree to which the Roman constitution had taken root among the ancient inhabitants, and to the political importance which they themselves maintained under their new masters. Hence, in the northern part of France, and under the dominion of the Franks, the Roman institutions were more generally supplanted by the German, than in the south, nearer to Italy, where the country was more populous and under the dominion of the Visigoths and Burgundians. Here some portions of the Roman municipal and judicial institutions had always been preserved; the civil law, particularly, as it was contained in the collection of Theodosius II, remained valid, especially with regard to the rights of

property between married people. The provinces where it thus continued in force were called *pays du droit écrit*. The many *droits coutumiers* of different districts, baronies and counties which were to be found in France, even in the *pays du droit Romain*, originated when the authority of a general government had given place to feudal anarchy, when every barony and every city formed an independent whole, and the king was nothing but the first among the great feudal lords of France (the dukes of Normandy, Aquitaine, Burgundy and Brittany, the counts of Champagne, Flanders, Provence, &c.), and, in his own domains, scarcely more than the first among the inferior barons. In each of these divisions, a particular system of law developed itself in the struggle of the old, free municipal institutions with the usurpations of the barons, in which the former perished entirely. The peculiarities of these different laws, however, proceeded less from the true wants and the spirit of the nation, than from accidental circumstances and events. It must, however, be acknowledged, that the laws of the provinces or ancient principalities of the realm, which were founded partly on express provisions adopted by the sovereign in unison with the states, are of greater importance. Among these, the laws of Normandy are of the most consequence, since they are, at least with regard to the feudal rights and the general principles of landed property, the foundation of the whole English law. (See Houard's *Traité sur les Coutumes Anglo-Normandes*, Dieppe, 1776, 4 vols., 4to.) William I made the feudal law of the Normans the predominant law of England, and founded the different branches of his government on feudal principles; even the language of the courts of justice and of the official papers of the government in England remained French for centuries; and French formulas are still used in parliament and in legal language, though sometimes singularly perverted. After the law of Normandy, the customs and statutes of the city and county of Paris were of chief importance, since they served as a model for many others, and were considered, in some measure, as a subsidiary source of law in the jurisdiction of the parliament of Paris. Some of these particular systems of law had been reduced to writing in very early times; for instance, the *Établissements de St. Louis*, which were in force in the royal baronies, and were revised by Louis IX; and the *conseils* of Peter Desfontaines, of the 13th century. Besides the general privileges of the cities, particular municipal laws were sometimes granted. (See examples in the great collection of royal ordinances, begun by Laurière, 1723.) Most of these particular laws, however, were preserved only in the memory of the inhabitants and of the judges, and were, consequently, very uncertain in their application. Therefore, after Charles VII had driven the English from the French territory, it was decreed in the assembly of the states, 1453, that all customary laws should be reduced to writing. The inhabitants were first questioned as to the law in use (by tens, or *per turbam*) until it was believed that sufficient certainty was obtained: the laws were then arranged by men learned in the law, examined in the council of state, and confirmed by the king. This operation continued almost a hundred years, and produced several hundreds of such particular systems, the most complete collection of which, containing more than 400, was made by Bourdot de Richebourg (*Coutumier général*, Paris, 1724, 8 vols., folio). Besides this mass of particular laws, some general laws were passed. The first and second dynasty promulgated *capitularia*, with the consent of the nation. But the third dynasty, as we have already observed, was not only obliged, in the time of feudal anarchy, to grant complete independence and sovereignty to the great vassals and lords of the kingdom (*pays hors l'obéissance du roy*), but even the inferior barons, the king's particular vassals, who had been enfeoffed by him out of his own domains, made themselves almost entirely independent. The legislative power of the king could, therefore, at first, be exercised only by granting privileges to the cities, by which the power of the barons was limited, to the advantage not only of the citizens, but also of the crown. From the time of Philip Augustus (1180—1223), it became an established principle, that the king could unite vacant fiefs of the kingdom with his hereditary domains, as crown lands; and one of the first acquisitions of this kind was the duchy of Normandy. The great power which thus accrued to the king was so much strengthened by the address and personal authority of Louis IX (1226—1270), that he was enabled to make general laws, partly with, partly without, the consent of the barons. These were called *ordonnances*. They were in force, however, only in the hereditary domains of the king: the great barons exercised an equal legislative power in their own territories. After almost all these fiefs had

been united with the crown, excepting some small sovereignties, as the principalities of Dombes, Orange, Bouillon, the counties of Avignon and Venaissin; and after the marriage of king Charles VIII with the daughter and heiress of the duke of Bretagne, the authority of the *ordonnances* extended over the whole kingdom. At the same time, the royal power approached that absoluteness, which was prepared under Richelieu by the entire subjection of the nobles, completed under Louis XIV, and the abuse of which, under Louis XV, produced the revolution. Among the *ordonnances* of this period, are distinguished those on jurisdiction and the order of procedure, in which France was then in advance of the rest of Europe. The more ancient refer to local subjects, and the connexions of the church with the state. To the former belong the *ordonnances* of 1446 and 1453, and that of Villers Cotterets (1539), which was almost contemporaneous with the law of criminal procedure of Charles V, in Germany, and introduced the written trial instead of the usual irregular and tumultuous process, which was different in every *seigneurie*. Its author was the chancellor Guillaume Poyet, from whom it was also called *Guillelmine*. We might also mention the *ordonnance* of Orleans (1560), the *ordonnance* of Blois (1579), and others. None of these *ordonnances*, nor any collection of them, bore the name of *code*. The earlier incomplete collections of them (a systematic one was first made by Fontanon, 1611, 4 vols, folio; a chronological one by Neron and Girard, 1620, 4 vols., folio) were superseded by that published by the chancellor Pontchartrain, the first volume of which, edited by De Laurière, appeared in 1723. The work has been continued by Secousse, Villevaults, Bréquigny, Camus and Pastoret, 1816, 18 vols., folio. It is to be concluded with the reign of Francis I. Henry III intrusted the systematic arrangement of the *ordonnances* of his predecessors to the famous Brisson, who published them under the name of *Code Henri*, or *Basiliques*, though they acquired no legal authority. Under Louis XIII (1629), an express *ordonnance* respecting the judicial procedure, and other subjects, which had furnished matter of complaint to the states, was sketched, in 461 articles, by the chancellor Michael de Marillac, but was not acknowledged by the courts, as it was not registered. It was called *Code Marillac* or *Code Michau;* and, in later times, the name *code* has been applied to several private collections of the *ordonnances* of a certain period (for instance, *Code Louis XV*, by Chaussepierre, containing the *ordonnances* from 1722 to 1740, 12 vols., 12mo.; or relating to single objects, *Code noir; Code des Curés*, Paris, 1780, 4 vols., 12mo.; *Code pénal*, by l'Averdy, 1777, 12mo., &c.), but never as a legal designation. The government of Louis XIV was distinguished for its legislative activity. Comprehensive *ordonnances*, or rather real codes of law, appeared on the civil process (1667), on the criminal process (1670), on commercial law (1673), on the forest law (1669), on the marine (1681), and on ecclesiastical jurisdiction (1695). The most important *ordonnances* of Louis XV relate to donations (1731), wills (1735), and substitutions (1747). In this state of things, the great diversity in the existing laws was as burdensome as it was revolting to reason. It would betray but a superficial acquaintance with history, to suppose that such a diversity of laws could exist without great disadvantages. It retards the developement of the science of law, as it requires the study of many accidental details, rather than of the general principles of universal right, by which the Roman law has attained its high perfection. It is also a very injurious check to civil intercourse, and a source of insecurity and loss to those who enter into any legal connexions with the inhabitants of other provinces. Nothing contributes more to promote the internal intercourse of a nation, the foundation of its greatness, than uniformity of laws. Hence the reduction of those 400 particular systems of customs into one civil code, was one of the things most desired by the French nation; and Napoleon, after having restored peace, and settled the subject of ecclesiastical relations, could think of nothing which would contribute more to promote his popularity and the good of France, than the execution of this project, which had been attempted in vain during the revolution. The emperor himself remarked at St. Helena, that he considered the code which bears his name to be the best monument which he had erected for himself. The abolition of so many systems of law, of the feudal privileges, of the family trusts, of the indivisibility of the fiefs, made the preparation of a general civil code possible, and even necessary, which was acknowledged as early as in the first constitution of 1791. Yet the three projects of Cambacérès, then deputy, afterwards second consul, and finally grand chancellor of the empire, in 1793

and 1795, did not meet with approbation. The code of civil law was prepared with the greatest care; its defects must, therefore, be attributed to the then state of legal science in France. The restoration has caused no essential changes in it, but only deprived it of its name, *Code Napoléon.* A new official edition was prepared, in the *Bulletin des Lois* (vii. ser. ii. 109), in which, however, nothing but the expressions referring to Napoleon and the imperial constitution was changed. A similar alteration had been made by Napoleon when he assumed the imperial dignity. The only essential change in the civil code, down to the present time, is the abolition of the law of divorce, which, contrary to the principles of the Catholic church, had been made entirely free during the revolution, but had been subjected to some restrictions during the reign of Napoleon. If we leave out of the question ecclesiastical considerations, and examine the subject only in a moral point of view, there can be no doubt that the sanctity and moral dignity of matrimony are better secured by declaring it dissoluble, under certain circumstances and with the observance of proper restrictions, than by increasing the mutual dislike of the parties, by making the bond indissoluble, preserving thus the appearance only, and not the essentials of marriage. Next to the code of civil law, the code of criminal procedure is particularly the creation of the spirit of the time. The criminal *ordonnance* of 1670, by its severity (allowing a double torture, the *question préparatoire*, to compel confession, and the *question préalable*, before the execution, to discover the accomplices), but still more by the manner in which it was administered by the tribunals, had excited universal indignation. The ambition of the higher courts, which aspired not only to the securing of independence for the judicial authority, but also to political influence; the pride of the judges in their infallibility, and the *esprit du corps*, united the higher and lower courts in endeavors to conceal and defend their errors. The principle that confession was not necessary for condemnation, but that circumstantial evidence alone was sufficient (the exclusion of which was the chief trait of the German code of criminal procedure of 1532), was accompanied by many revolting abuses, and the execution of innocent persons—Lebrun, Langlade, Calas, Sirwen, Montbailli, Labarre, Lally and others. The authority of Beccaria and Voltaire, and the example of the English criminal law, eulogized by Montesquieu and his disciples, were instrumental in bringing about a better state of things. The abolition of torture, the complete reform of the criminal courts and procedure, was one of the first objects of the revolution. The courts were modelled on the plan of the English, juries were introduced, and an order of criminal procedure (Sept. 29, 1791), which was followed (Oct. 6) by a penal code, and (Oct. 21) by a complete *instruction* on criminal procedure, was among the labors of the constituent assembly. Though several changes have been made in the later laws on criminal procedure, in the *Code des Délits et des Peines* of Oct. 25, 1795, and in single ordinances (see Dupin's *Lois criminelles extraites de la Collection du Louvre et du Bulletin des Lois*, Paris, 1821), nevertheless the rule requiring, after a preliminary written trial, oral process and the verdict of a jury, remained unaltered, and was preserved in the *Code d'Instruction criminelle* of Napoleon, of Nov. 27, 1808. Still a general dissatisfaction prevails in France in regard to this branch of the law, particularly as it is thought that too much influence is left to the officers of government in the choice of jurymen. Among many writings against the French criminal law, some are very distinguished (for instance, Berenger *De la Justice criminelle en France*, Paris, 1818; Dupin's *Observations sur plusieurs Points importans de notre Législation criminelle*, Paris, 1821). A greater conformity with the English law is wished for by many, and is, of course, much opposed by another party. The penal law (*Code pénal*) of the 22d of Feb., 1810, is a modification of the earlier code of the 8th Oct., 1791, and of the *Code des Délits et des Peines*, of the 25th Oct., 1795. Before the revolution, there was no penal code, but disconnected ordinances, and a theory constructed chiefly on the Roman law, which, with some mitigations of its severity in particular cases, is also the foundation of the modern codes. The penal code has also been repeatedly attacked; the codes being, of course, among the most prominent subjects of party controversy. (Bavoux, in his *Leçons Préliminaires sur le Code pénal*, Paris, 1821.) The code of civil procedure (*Code de Procédure civile*) of April 24, 1806, is only a new version of the ordinance of procedure of 1667, resting on the same basis. The accusation, answer, replication, and the statement of the points at issue, are managed by the advocates, without the interference and direction of the court. Written evidence is required by the laws; but the insufficiency of this kind of proof is

supplied by the liberty of demanding from the opposite party, at every stage of the process, an explicit statement respecting facts and circumstances (*interrogation sur faits et articles*). This statement has the same force, and is subject to the same conditions, as if delivered on oath. The last declaration of the parties is made verbally before the court, and, according to rule, is followed immediately by the judgment. The basis of this process is the same as that of the German in earlier times, particularly before 1654, until the courts were obliged to examine the accusation and defence, and the last oral process was changed into a written one.—The *Code de Commerce*, of the 20th and 21st September, 1807, is a modification and extension of the above-mentioned ordinances of 1673 and 1681, on commerce and navigation.—These five codes have had a number of commentators and editors. They are founded on the basis of usage and experience, though it is evident, at least in the civil code, that it has been an object to avoid the particular and incidental, and to establish general principles. The ancient laws of France are as indispensable for their illustration as the history of their origin, the projects, the observations of the courts and of the tribunate, the discussions in the council of state, and the speeches in the legislative body. Most of these materials are printed. At the same time, the history and study of the French codes is indispensable for a right understanding of the French revolution, its real character and tendency, as well as of the extraordinary man whom it produced. It is worthy of notice, that, in the discussions of the articles of the codes, we find the consul Bonaparte, who usually partook in the discussions, inclining, generally, to the milder side. Besides the official editions, we have several editions of single codes, and of the five codes together, of which two deserve to be particularly mentioned, as they contain, at the same time, useful annotations and additions: *Les Cinq Codes, annotés par Sirey* (1818, 5 vols. 4to.); and, as a manual, *Manuel du Droit Français, contenant la Charte Constitutionnelle et les Cinq Codes*, etc., *par Pailliet* (Paris, 5th edit., August, 1821, 4to. and 12mo.). The history of French law has been given by Fleuri of Silberrad (in his edition of Heineccius's *Hist. Jur.*), and by Bernardi (*De l'Origine et des Progrès de la Législation Française*; Paris, 1816).—The *Code Forestier*, or the collection of laws respecting the administration of the woods, those belonging to cities, villages, &c., as well as those of the king, was published Aug. 1, 1827, under Charles X. It is to be found, with the *Charte Constitutionnelle*, the five codes, &c., in a very convenient edition, the title of which runs thus: *Les Six Codes, avec Indication de leurs Dispositions corrélatives et Rapports entre eux, augmentés de la Charte Constitutionnelle, du Tarif des Frais de Justice, de la Loi sur le Sacrilége; d'un Choix des autres Lois, Décrets, Ordonnances, formant le Complément de la Législation civile, commerciale et criminelle, et d'une Table des Matières; Paris, Froment et Lequien*, 1828. Though this title speaks of the *Six Codes*, the five first given are of course considered as constituting one whole.

Having given, in the preceding paragraph, the general history of the Five Codes, we shall offer here a brief outline of the particular history of the *Code Napoléon*, or, as it is now called, *Code civil*. One of the first labors of Bonaparte, when consul, was, to give France a code. By a consular decree, dated 24th of Thermidor, year 8 (Aug. 12, 1800), a committee was instituted "to compare the order which had been followed in the preparation of the *projets* for a civil code hitherto published, to determine the plan which the committee shall think best to adopt, and to discuss the chief principles of civil legislation." Portalis, Tronchet, Bigot-Preameneu, Maleville, and the minister of justice, formed this committee. Portalis and Maleville were of the *pays du droit écrit*. (*See the preceding paragraph.*) In the following year, 1801, these commissioners reported a draft of a civil code, which was, in the first instance, submitted to the court of cassation (of errors; see *Cassation, Court of*) and the various courts of appeal. With the reports of the judges of these courts, the draft was submitted to the council of state, over which the consul Bonaparte presided, and in which every part was thoroughly discussed. In the work entitled *Conférence du Code civil, avec la Discussion particulière du Conseil d'État et du Tribunat*, &c., 8 vols. 12mo., Paris, 1805, a detailed and very carefully-prepared report of these discussions is contained. Each article, after having been discussed in this body, was presented to the tribunate, where it underwent another discussion, and was returned to the council of state as adopted, rejected or amended. In this way, the five codes, already mentioned, were successively produced. The *Code civil* was called, by way of eminence, *Code Napoléon*. It is divided into

2281 paragraphs, which are numbered, and consist of a few lines each. The work is divided into 3 books (*livres*); each book into a certain number of titles; each title is comprised in one or more chapters. A preliminary title, "On the Publication, Effects and Application of the Law in General," precedes the whole. The first book is entitled "Of Persons," and, in 11 titles, treats, 1. of the enjoyment and privation of civil rights; 2. of civil acts, such as the registry of births, marriages and deaths; 3. of domicil; 4. of absentees; 5. of marriages; 6. of divorce; 7. of the relations of father and son; 8. of adoption and officious guardianship; 9. of the paternal power; 10. of minority, guardianship and emancipation; 11. of majority, of guardianship of persons of age (interdiction) and judicial counsel. The second book is entitled "Of Property and the different Modifications of Ownership," and, in 4 titles, treats, 1. of the distinction of property into real and personal (*immeubles et meubles*); 2. of ownership; 3. of usufruct, of use and habitation; 4. of servitudes (easements; *des servitudes ou services fonciers*). The third book is entitled "Of the different Modes of acquiring Property," and, in 20 titles, treats, 1. of successions; 2. of donations *inter vivos* and testaments; 3. of contracts, or conventional obligations in general; 4. of engagements formed without a convention; 5. of the contract of marriage, and the rights of the parties respectively; 6. of sale; 7. of exchange; 8. of the contract of letting to hire; 9. of partnership; 10. of loan; 11. of deposit and sequestration; 12. of contracts connected with chance (*aléatoires*, such as wagers and life-rents); 13. of powers of attorney; 14. of becoming security; 15. of transactions; 16. of bodily duress in civil cases; 17. of furnishing security; 18. of mortgages; 19. of taking and setting off by execution; 20. of prescriptions. It would be necessary to give the heads of the chapters also, in order to present a clear view of the code, but our limits do not permit it. The work already quoted, *Conférence du Code civil*, is indispensable to a complete understanding of the code, because it gives the history of each law. It first presents each article in the code, as finally adopted. Next follow the different forms and draughts of each article discussed in the council of state, with the report of the discussions. To this succeed the observations made in the section of legislation of the tribunate. We learn, from this work, how active a part Napoleon took in the formation of the code, as his remarks are given as well as those of the others, and he was present during almost the whole of the debates. By the conquests of the French, the *Code Napoléon* was introduced into Holland, the kingdom of Westphalia, the kingdom of Italy, of Naples and Spain, and the dukedom of Berg. It had much influence, moreover, on the administration of justice in several smaller countries, as Baden; but it has nowhere, out of France, retained the authority of law, since the overthrow of Napoleon, except in the Prussian dominions on the left bank of the Rhine, and in some parts of the kingdom of the Netherlands: in the former, however, the government intends to introduce the Prussian code. In America, it has served as a model to the Code of Louisiana and the *Code Henri*. (See *Louisiana, Code of*, and *Christophe*.)

Codes, les Six. (See *Codes, les Cinq*.)

Codex; with the ancients, that part of the wood of a tree next to the bark. Before the invention of paper, wooden tablets, covered with wax, which were written on with the style, and put together in the shape of a book, were called *codex*. The word was afterwards retained, in times when paper was used for writing, to denote a large book. Thus, important works, particularly old manuscripts of poets, historians, &c., which had been preserved, were called *codices manuscripti*. (See *Manuscripts*.) In like manner, a collection of laws was called *codex*, with the addition of the name of the sovereign under whom it had been compiled, as *Codex Carolinus, Code Napoléon*.

Codex rescriptus (*Latin*; a re-written codex). This name is given to ancient manuscripts, which, in the middle ages, were used, after the original writing had been in a great measure effaced, for the copying of other works, generally ecclesiastical treatises. Thus the Institutions of Gaius, recently discovered by Niebuhr, at Verona, are a *codex rescriptus*. Some skill is required to read the ancient letters under the others. The Greek name for *codex rescriptus* is *palimpsest* (q. v.), now more frequently used. The Holy Scriptures themselves have been sometimes effaced, to make way for homilies and legends. One of the oldest manuscripts of the Bible, described by Wetstein, in his preface to his New Testament, as number C, is a *codex rescriptus*.

Codex Alexandrinus. (See *Alexandrian Copy*.)

Codicil, in law; a supplement to a

will, to be considered as a part of it, either for the purpose of explaining or altering, or of adding to or subtracting from the testator's former disposition. A codicil may be annexed to a will, either actually or constructively. It may not only be written on the same paper, or affixed to or folded up with the will, but may be written on a different paper, and deposited in a different place. If intended to effect a devise of lands, it must go through the forms required by the statute of frauds; but, to a will of personal estate, it may be either written or nuncupative, provided, in the latter case, it only supplies an omission in the will.

Codrington. (See *Navarino*, and *Greece, Modern.*)

Codrus, son of Melanthus, was the 17th and last king of Athens. During his reign, Attica was attacked by the Dorians, or, according to some, by the inhabitants of the Peloponnesus, or the Thracians. The assailants, on inquiring of an oracle what would be the result of their incursion, received for answer that they would be successful if they avoided killing the Athenian king. Codrus, becoming acquainted with this answer, resolved to sacrifice himself for his country. He disguised himself in a peasant's dress, entered the enemy's camp, provoked a quarrel with the soldiers, and was slain. The Athenians, upon hearing of this, sent a herald to demand the body of their king. The courage of the assailants was so damped, when they became acquainted with the circumstances, that they retired without striking a blow. In honor of their patriotic monarch, the Athenians now abolished the royal dignity, esteeming no one worthy to be the successor of Codrus. They also used his name as a common term to express a man of distinguished excellence.

Coefficients, in algebra; figures put before the letters, to indicate how many times the letter is to be added to itself. Thus 4 a signifies $a+a+a+a$. If the coefficient is indefinite, it is expressed by a letter, as $b\ a$.

Coehorn, Menno, baron of; an engineer; born, 1641, near Lewarden, in Friesland. His father, a distinguished officer, early instilled into him an inclination for military science, which he studied thoroughly. In his 16th year, he entered the service as captain. He distinguished himself at the siege of Maestricht (1673), and at the battles of Senef, Cassel, St. Denis and Fleurus, and soon rose to the rank of a colonel. In 1675, not having received the command of a regiment, which had been promised him, he negotiated with Louvois for entering into the French service. The prince of Orange, however, detained his wife and eight children as hostages, and thus obliged him to return, and secured his attachment by acts of favor. In the war of 1689, against France, he again distinguished himself. His defence of fort William, in 1692, which he himself had planned, against the attacks of Vauban, attracted much attention. Both commanders displayed all their talents. Coehorn was finally wounded, and had but 150 men left able to do duty, when he surrendered the fort, June 23, 1692. In 1702, he destroyed the French lines near St. Donat. In the same year, he published at Lewarden his new theory of fortification. In 1703, he directed several sieges. In 1704, Marlborough invited him to the Hague, to concert a plan of operations, where he died, March 17, 1704. Coehorn was a man of good principles, and honorable feelings and habits. He fortified almost all the strong places in Holland. Bergen-op-Zoom he considered his masterwork. His system, and that of Vauban, are entirely different. Vauban operated by manœuvres, and, by the skilful direction of his ordnance and his men, saved both, and wearied and divided the forces of the enemy; Coehorn crushed by an overpowering mass of artillery and of men, and sacrificed both for a rapid and powerful effect. Vauban's manœuvres were founded on calculations which are always in one's power; Coehorn founded his on superiority of force, which is not always at the disposal of the combatant. His system, however, is well deserving the study of the military engineer.

Cœlius, Mons (now *Monte Celio*); one of the seven hills of Rome, so called from an Etruscan leader, *Celes Vibenna*, who dwelt there. It gave its name to a part of Rome, called *Cœlimontium*, or *Cœlimontana*, the valley between the Mons Cœlius and Mons Esquilinus. The Palatine was on the west, the Esquiline on the north of the Mons Cœlius. There were five temples on this hill. At present, the church of the *SS. Quattro Coronati* stands on the top of the hill. (See *Rome.*)

Cœnobite. (See *Anchorite.*)

Cœur de Lion. (See *Richard, Cœur de Lion.*)

Coffee is the seed of an evergreen shrub, which is cultivated in hot climates, and is chiefly imported from Arabia and the East and West Indies.—This shrub (*coffea Arabica*) is from 15 to 20 feet in height. The

leaves are 4 or 5 inches long, and 2 broad, smooth, green, glossy on the upper surface; and the flowers, which grow in bunches at the base of the leaves, are white and sweet-scented. The berries and fruit are somewhat of an oval shape, about the size of a cherry, and of a dark-red color when ripe. Each of these contains two cells, and each cell a single seed, which is the coffee as we see it before it undergoes the process of roasting.—Coffee is an article of but recent introduction. To the Greeks and Romans it was wholly unknown. Its use appears to have originated in Ethiopia; and it is stated to have been first introduced into Constantinople in 1554, from whence it was gradually adopted in the western parts of Europe. The information we have respecting its introduction into England is, that, in 1652, Daniel Edwards, a Turkey merchant, brought home with him a Greek servant, whose name was *Pasqua*, and who understood the methods of roasting coffee, and making it into a beverage. This man was the first who publicly sold coffee in England, and kept a house for that purpose in George yard, Lombard street. At Paris, coffee was nearly unknown, until the arrival of the Turkish ambassador Solomon Aga, in 1669; about three years after which the first coffee-house is said to have been established in that city. The coffee-shrub was originally planted in Jamaica in 1732. —Great attention is paid to the culture of coffee in Arabia. The trees are raised from seed sown in nurseries, and afterwards planted out in moist and shady situations, on sloping grounds, or at the foot of mountains. Care is taken to conduct little rills of water to the roots of the trees, which, at certain seasons, require to be constantly surrounded with moisture. As soon as the fruit is nearly ripe, the water is turned off, lest the fruit should be rendered too succulent. In places much exposed to the south, the trees are planted in rows, and are shaded from the otherwise too intense heat of the sun, by a branching kind of poplar-tree. When the fruit has attained its maturity, cloths are placed under the trees, and upon these the laborers shake it down. They afterwards spread the berries on mats, and expose them to the sun to dry. The husk is then broken off by large and heavy rollers of wood or iron. When the coffee has been thus cleared of its husk, it is again dried in the sun, and, lastly, winnowed with a large fan, for the purpose of clearing it from the pieces of husks with which it is intermingled. A pound of coffee is generally more than the produce of one tree; but a tree in great vigor will produce three or four pounds.—The best coffee is imported from Mocha, on the Red sea. This kind, which is denominated *Mocha* and *Turkey coffee*, is of a better quality than any which the European colonists are able to raise, owing, as it is supposed, to the difference of climate and soil in which it grows. It is packed in large bales, each containing a number of smaller bales, and, when good, appears fresh, and of a greenish-olive color. The coffee next in esteem to this is raised in Java and the East Indies; and that of lowest price, in the West Indies and Brazil. When stowed in ships, with rum, pepper, or other articles, it is said that coffee contracts a rank and unpleasant flavor; and this has been assigned as a reason of the inferiority of that which is imported from the European plantations. —The quantity of coffee annually supplied by Arabia is supposed to be upwards of 14,000,000 of pounds. Before the commencement of the French revolution, the island of St. Domingo alone exported more than 70,000,000 of pounds per annum; and, at the present day, such is the fertility of this island, that sufficient coffee is raised to reduce the price greatly in all parts of the civilized world. Almost all the Mohammedans drink coffee at least twice a day, very hot, and without sugar. —The excellence of coffee depends, in a great measure, on the skill and attention exercised in roasting it. If it be too little roasted, it is devoid of flavor, and if too much, it becomes acrid, and has a disagreeable, burnt taste. In Europe, it is usually roasted in a cylindrical tin box, perforated with numerous holes, and fixed upon a spit, which runs lengthwise through the centre, and is turned by a jack, or by the hand. Coffee is used in the form either of an infusion or decoction, of which the former is decidedly preferable, both as regards flavor and strength. Coffee, as very commonly prepared by persons unacquainted with its nature, is a decoction, and is boiled for some time, under a mistaken notion that the strength is not extracted unless it be boiled. But the fact is just the reverse. The fine aromatic oil, which produces the flavor and strength of coffee, is dispelled and lost by boiling, and a mucilage is extracted at the same time, which also tends to make it flat and weak. The best modes are, to pour boiling water through the coffee in a biggin or strainer, which is found to extract nearly all the strength; or to pour boiling water upon it, and set it upon the fire, not

to exceed 10 minutes. Prepared in either way, it is fine and strong. As a medicine, strong coffee is a powerful stimulant and cordial, and, in paroxysms of the asthma, is one of the best remedies; but it should be very strong, and made with almost as much coffee as water. In faintness or exhaustion from labor and fatigue, and from sickness, coffee is one of the most cordial and delicious restoratives. There are coffee-machines, in which the water is boiled, and the steam penetrates the coffee, and extracts, to a great degree, the fine aroma. Immediately after, the boiling water is poured over it. Thus the best coffee is made. As we have already said, in Europe, coffee is generally roasted in a cylinder; in Asia, however, open pans or tin plates are used, and, if the time allows, a boy is employed, who picks out every bean, when it has reached the right degree of brownness. The same is done by some French people. The second difference in the Asiatic way of preparing coffee is, that they pound the beans, and do not grind them, much preferring the former mode. In Marseilles, we have seen coffee likewise pounded. Whether this is really preferable, we do not venture to decide; but experience has taught us that the Asiatic coffee is, on the whole, much better than the European. The difference is probably owing to the different way of roasting. The Turks and Arabs boil the coffee, it is true, but they boil each cup by itself, and only for a moment, so that the effect is, in fact, much the same as that of infusion, and not like that of decoction. They do not separate the coffee itself from the infusion, but leave the whole in the cup. It improves the beverage very much to roast and grind the coffee just before it is used.—The Turks drink coffee at all times of day, present it to visitors both in the forenoon and afternoon, and the opium-eater lives almost entirely on coffee and opium. Beaujour, in his excellent work on Greece, tells of a *theriacophage* (an opium-eater), who drank more than 60 cups of coffee in a day, and smoked as many pipes. Coffee has been the favorite beverage of many distinguished men. Napoleon and Frederic the Great drank it freely; Voltaire liked it very strong; and Leibnitz drank it also during the whole day, but mixed with more than an equal quantity of milk. The best coffee, in the western part of the world, is made in France, where this beverage is in universal request. In fact, throughout the continent of Europe, it is generally drank. In England, however, tea is a more common drink. In England and the U. States, coffee, almost always, is badly made. The coffee-houses in France, it is well known, are places which afford much opportunity for interesting observation. In the south of France, they are still more frequented than in the north. The different *cafés* of the *palais royal* in Paris are famous: the *café des mille colonnes* is one of the most splendid. The *café de la paix* contains a small theatre. In the *café des aveugles*, every evening, blind men and women of the *hospice des quinze-vingts* play and sing. Those coffee-houses, in France, where smoking is allowed, are called *estaminets*, which is also the name of the beer-houses in Holland. One of the greatest attractions in French coffee-houses is the *limonadière*, a woman who sits in an elevated seat, to attend to the sale of the refreshments. She is generally very pretty, and is dressed with much taste. With genuine French tact, she represses all improper freedoms. The coffee-houses in London are poor.—In the East, the coffee-houses, or rather booths, form a very essential part of the social system; all men of leisure assembling there. In these places are also to be found the famous story-tellers, who repeat long tales to attentive hearers, who show their interest by exclamations of "God save him! Allah deprive him of his eyes!" &c., or utter warning cries to alarm the hero when danger awaits him. It often happens, that the story is broken off, and continued the next day. There is a highly interesting manuscript in the royal library at Paris, in Arabic, entitled, the *Support of Innocence*. It relates to the lawfulness of using coffee. The author is Aljeziri Alhanbali. Of this De Sacy gives an account and extracts in his *Chrestomathie Arabe* (vol. i, p. 441). It appears that a question arose, whether coffee was to be included among the intoxicating beverages which the Koran prohibits; and the manuscript proves that it is not. There are many other interesting matters in these extracts. The sheikh, the writer of the manuscript, proves that the use of coffee was first introduced by a famous sheikh, imam, mufti and scholar of Arabia Felix, called *Dhabani*, about the year 870 of the Hegira. In Egypt, the drinking of coffee seems to have been at first regarded almost as a religious ceremony. The devotees, who introduced it there, assembled for the purpose of enjoying it on Monday and Friday evenings, when it was handed round with great solemnity, accompanied with many prayers, and ever and anon with exclamations of "There is no God

but God!" There are also mentioned, in the manuscript above cited, two different methods of making coffee, one called *buniyya*, in which the grain and husk are used together, and another called *kishariyya*, in which the husk is used alone. Many sermons against coffee-drinking are extant, written at the time when it was introduced into Europe; as there are also many sermons against smoking. We recollect having read the following passage in an old sermon: "They cannot wait until the smoke of the infernal regions surrounds them, but encompass themselves with smoke of their own accord, and drink a poison which God made black, that it might bear the devil's color."—The following table shows the amount of coffee imported into, and exported from, the U. States, during several years:

	Imported.			*Exported.*
In 1821,	21,273,659 lbs.	coffee.		$2,087,479
" 1822,	25,782,390 "	"		1,653,607
" 1823,	37,337,732 "	"		4,262,699
" 1824,	39,224,251 "	"		2,923,079
" 1825,	45,190,630 "	"		3,254,936
" 1826,	37,319,497 "	"		1,449,022
" 1827,	50,051,986 "	"		2,324,784

England imported,

in 1824,	50,674,249
" 1825,	52,597,518
" 1826,	42,017,092
" 1827,	47,938,047
Quarter ending April 5, 1828,	7,108,889

Quantity of coffee exported from Great Britain, from Jan. 5, 1827, to Jan. 5, 1828:

British plantation,	12,442,246
Foreign plantation,	12,378,340
East India,	4,655,104
Total,	29,475,690

Coffin. Coffins were used by the ancients only to receive the bodies of persons of the highest distinction. Even at the present time, they are not used in the East, either by Mohammedans or Christians. The modern Jews do not use coffins, but only two boards, between which the corpse is tied. But in Egypt, coffins seem to have been used in ancient times universally. They were of stone, wood, or a kind of paste-board made by gluing cloth together. Coffins among Christians were probably introduced with the custom of burying. (See *Burying-Grounds.*) It has been often proposed that they should be made with a hole opposite the place of the mouth of the body, so as to allow breathing, in case of revival. Of course, it would be necessary, at the same time, to let the coffin stand for some days in a convenient place, as is the custom in many parts of Germany.

Cofra de Perota; a mountain of Mexico; lon. 97° 8′ W.; lat. 19° 45′ N. It is 13,414 feet above the level of the gulf of Mexico. The Mexican name of this mountain is *Nauhcampapetl;* the English, the *Four parts*, or the *Square mountain.* It is evident that the mountain has been a volcano, and is formed of basaltic porphyry.

Cognates; the relations by the mother's side.

Cohesion is that force which preserves in union particles of a similar kind. Its action is seen in a solid mass of matter, the parts of which cohere with a certain force which resists any mechanical action that would tend to separate them. In different bodies, it is exerted with different degrees of strength, and is measured by the force necessary to pull them asunder. According to Sickingen, the relative cohesive strength of the metals is as follows:

Gold,	150,955
Silver,	190,771
Platina,	262,361
Copper,	304,696
Soft iron,	362,927
Hard iron,	559,880

Cohesion in liquids is very much weaker, the parts being disjoined with much more facility; and, in substances existing in the aërial form, it is entirely overcome, the particles, instead of attracting, repelling each other.—Cohesion in bodies is weakened or overcome by two general causes—by the repulsion communicated by caloric, or by the attraction which may be exerted by the particles of one body on those of another.—Caloric communicated to a solid body separates its particles to greater distances, as is evident from the enlargement of volume which it produces. By thus increasing the distances, the force with which the attraction of aggregation or cohesion is exerted is diminished; if the heat be carried to a sufficient extent, the cohesion is so far weakened, that the body passes into the liquid form; and, if carried still farther, the attractive force is entirely overcome, repulsion is established between the particles, and the body passes into the aëriform state.—The same effects are produced by the exertion of that attraction which unites the particles of one body with those of another. If a liquid be poured on a solid, it often happens that

their mutual attraction is sufficiently powerful to overcome the cohesion of the solid: its particles are consequently disunited, to combine with those of the liquid, and it entirely disappears. This forms the chemical process of *solution*. A similar effect is sometimes produced by the chemical action of an aëriform body.—When these powers, whether of heat or of chemical attraction, are withdrawn, cohesion resumes its force, but with results which are different, according to the circumstances under which this happens.—When the attraction of aggregation is suddenly and forcibly exerted, the particles are united, in general, indiscriminately, and according to no regular law. If a body, which has been melted, is suddenly cooled to a sufficient extent, it becomes solid, and forms a mass of no regular structure or figure; or, if its cohesion has been suspended by the chemical attraction exerted by another body towards it, and if this attraction suddenly cease to operate, the force of cohesion is resumed, and the solid substance appears in the form of a powder. This latter case forms the chemical operation denominated *precipitation*.—But, if the force of cohesion is exerted more slowly, the particles are united, not indiscriminately, but usually with regularity, so as to form masses of regular structure and figure, bounded by plane surfaces and determinate angles. This forms the operation of *crystallization;* and such masses are denominated *crystals*.—Crystallization takes place from fluidity, produced either by heat or by the exertion of a chemical attraction. Ice is an example of the first, which shoots in long, slender crystals, when water is cooled to a sufficient extent; and salts, which, when they have been dissolved in water, separate in crystals, on withdrawing a part of their water by evaporation, or reducing its solvent power by a diminution of its temperature, is an example of crystallization from fluidity, produced by affinity. In either of these cases, if the operation is conducted slowly, so as to admit of the particles uniting by those faces most disposed to union, crystals are formed; and these are, in general, larger, more transparent, and more regular in their form, the slower the crystallization has taken place. The production of these regular forms is favored by the introduction of an already formed crystal, or of some foreign substance, into the solution, which operates as a nucleus, and upon which the crystallization commences. The access of air and light exerts an important influence, also, on the crystallization of certain salts.—An enlargement of volume is often produced by crystallization, as in the examples of ice, of several metals, and of a number of salts; while, in other cases, the reverse is the case, the volume of the crystallized substance being less than while it existed in the liquid state—differences evidently depending on the mode in which the particles unite.—Crystals formed from a watery solution generally retain a portion of water in a combined state; and this is the case not only with those salts which are formed by the chemist, and in the arts, but with nearly all of the earthy and saline crystals found in nature. This water is named their *water of crystallization*. When deprived of it, they lose their transparency and density. Some part with it from mere exposure to the air, and suffer these changes; they are then said to *effloresce*. If they attract water and become humid, they are said to *deliquesce*. In some salts, the water of crystallization is in such large quantity, that, on the application of a moderate heat, it causes them to melt—a change called the *watery fusion*.—Water, which has dissolved one salt to the point of saturation, will still take up a considerable proportion of a second, and even of a third. Sea-water contains several well-known saline compounds. In such cases, as the salts have different degrees of solubility, they may often be obtained separately, by a gradual evaporation of the water, the least soluble being the first to separate. The water of the ocean, evaporated to a certain degree, yields common salt; evaporated still further, it deposits Glauber's salts, and the remaining liquid holds dissolved a compound containing magnesia.—Crystallization also takes place in the transition from the aërial form, as is well exemplified in the arrangement of a flake of snow.—Every substance in crystallizing is disposed to assume a certain regular figure: sea-salt, for example, takes the form of the cube; nitre, that of a prism. Carbonate of lime is found crystallized in rhomboids, a particular class of prisms and pyramids; and garnet, in regular dodecahedrons.—The important application, therefore, of this law becomes at once obvious. The form of the crystal, in mineralogy, enables us to determine the species to which it belongs. The same is true of pharmaceutical preparations; their crystalline forms furnish a certain test of the nature of the crystallized body.—The theory of crystallization is still obscure. It may be conceived that the particles of bodies are of certain regular figures, and

that, in uniting, they may be disposed to approach by certain sides, in preference to others, probably by those which admit of the most extensive contact. Hence a regular structure and figure, uniform with regard to each substance, will be produced. —The numerous diversified figures of crystals may be reduced to others more simple; thus the equilateral, six-sided prisms, and the double six-sided pyramid of calc-spar, or carbonate of lime, may be reduced by successive sections (parallel to natural joints in these crystals) to the rhomboid. The figure thus arrived at by mechanical division, and which is supposed to constitute the nucleus of the crystal, is called the *primitive form.* The number of original forms thus obtained, according to M. Haüy, amounts to six; 1. the regular tetrahedron; 2. the parallelopipedon, which includes the cube, the rhomboid, and all the solids, which have six faces parallel, two and two; 3. the octohedron, the surfaces of which are triangles, and, according to the species, equilateral, isosceles, or scalene; 4. the hexagonal prism; 5. the dodecahedron, with rhombic faces; 6. the dodecahedron, with triangular faces.—The secondary forms of crystals, or such as are usually exhibited by nature, are supposed to grow out of the primitive forms in the following manner:—The particles first unite to produce the primitive form, and from this proceeds the secondary form by the application of successive layers of particles parallel to its faces; which layers are denominated *laminæ of superposition.* The modification of figure is the consequence of the abstraction of one, two, or more rows, or ranges of particles, from the planes or angles of each of these *laminæ*, by which a decreasing series of particles will be formed. Thus, supposing that upon one side of a cube successive layers of cubic particles be placed, and each layer be less, by one range of particles, than the surface upon which it rests, it is obvious that the lines which bound the sides must be continually approaching each other, and that the last layer must consist of a single cube. It follows, then, that a four-sided pyramid will be raised upon one of the surfaces of the cube; and that, if the same thing happen upon the five other sides, the cube must be converted into a dodecahedron, with rhombic faces. The last figure is then secondary. Its formation has generally been quoted to illustrate the law of *decrement*, as it has been termed, and it is easy to represent it, although coarsely, by models. "But if," says M. Haüy, "for this kind of rude masonry, which, however, has the advantage of speaking to the eyes, we substitute the infinitely delicate architecture of nature, it will be necessary to conceive the nucleus as consisting of an incomparably greater number of imperceptible *moleculæ*, and then the number of *laminæ* of superposition being itself considerably augmented, while their thickness has become imperceptible, the channels which these *laminæ* form at their edges will likewise escape our senses." Hence the surfaces of crystals appear to us planes.—The facts which have been discovered, relative to the laws of decrement, are sufficient to prove that an immense variety of crystals may be made to grow out of the combinations of the particles producing the primitive forms; for the decrements may take place on the edges, or parallel with the faces of the primitive forms, on the angles, in which the lines are parallel with the diagonals of the faces, in lines parallel to those which intersect the diagonals and faces, constituting the intermediate decrements, or in a mode which combines, more or less, the decrements already mentioned, and which is, therefore, said to be mixed. These primary decrements may be so modified, as that they shall take place on certain edges, or certain angles only; or in uniform and alternate ranges; or from one edge, or one angle, to another; or, at the same time, on all the edges and all the angles, &c. Nevertheless, such is the fecundity allied to this simplicity, that, when limited to ordinary decrements, and to form ranges on the edges and angles of a rhomboid, it may be demonstrated, that this species of nucleus is susceptible of producing 8,388,640 varieties of distinct forms.

COHORT. (See *Legion.*)

COIMBETORE, or COIMBETOOR; a province of Hindostan, in Mysore, and southern part of the dominions of Tippoo Sultan. The country is separated from the country of Travancore, Cochin and the Nayrs, by lofty mountains, called the *Western Ghauts;* a continuation of which also bounds it on the north; on the east it is bounded by the Carnatic, and south by Dindigul; and it is divided into North and South Coimbetore. It is fertile, producing sugar, cotton, rice and betel leaf; and well watered by several rivers. The principal towns are Coimbetore, Erroad and Carroor. In 1799, on the death of Tippoo, and the division of his territories, Coimbetore was ceded to the English East India company.

Coimbetore; a town of Hindostan, and capital of the province to which it gives name; situated at the foot of the Western

Ghauts, on the river Noyel; 90 miles S. Seringapatam, 252 S. W. Madras; lon. 77° 7′ E.; lat. 10° 58′ N.; population, 12,000; houses, 2000. This city formerly contained upwards of 40,000 inhabitants; but it suffered much by the wars of the British and the Mysore sovereigns. It is now recovering. The exports are tobacco, cotton, thread, cloth, sugar, betel, &c.

Coimbra (anciently *Coimbriga* or *Coimbrica*); a city of Portugal, capital of the province of Beira, situated on a mountain, near the river Mondego, 90 miles N. N. E. Lisbon; lon. 8° 25′ W.; lat. 40° 13′ N.: the population was lately given at 15,200; but the disturbances in Portugal have, according to recent accounts, reduced the number much. It is a bishop's see, and seat of the inquisition. It contains a cathedral, 7 churches, an hospital and a university. It was built by the Romans, about 300 B. C. The university was originally founded in A. D. 1291, at Lisbon, but was transferred hither in A. D. 1308, and is now the only one in Portugal. It consists of 18 colleges with ample funds. The course of study here is divided into six branches, viz. theology, taught by 8 professors; canon law, by 9; civil law, by 8; medicine, by 6; mathematics, by 4; and philosophy, by 4. The number of students, in 1804, was 1431, and, in 1817, about 1400. To the university belong a botanic garden and a library of 40,000 volumes. The aqueduct, on 20 arches, is remarkable. The environs of Coimbra produce oil, wine and lemons. The inhabitants manufacture linen, pottery, earthen ware, articles of horn, and wooden toothpicks.

Coins. The relative value of the different species of coin which are enumerated in the following table is given in the Companion to the British Almanac for 1830, in English currency. We have reduced the values given in the English table into the currency of the U. States. The subject is one which does not admit of perfect accuracy, but we believe the estimates are sufficiently correct for all the purposes for which such a table can be used. The rates used in the custom-houses of the U. States for some of the most important monies of account mentioned, are as follows, being somewhat different from the value assigned to them in the table:—

	$	cts.
English pound sterling, . . .	4	$44\frac{4}{9}$
——— shilling sterling, . . .	0	$22\frac{2}{9}$
——— penny sterling, . . .	0	$01\frac{85}{100}$
France—franc, ...	0	$18\frac{3}{4}$
Holland and the Netherlands —florin or guilder, ...	0	40
——— sou or stiver,	0	02

The method of obtaining the results in the table below (we use the words of the Companion) is founded upon the following principle. In a coin we consider the weight and standard. By *standard* is meant the proportion of pure gold or silver which it contains: the rest is alloy. Thus, if we suppose a coin to contain a thousand parts of metal, of which 917 are pure gold or silver, the 83 remaining parts being alloy, the 917 represent the standard, or relative purity of the coin. Suppose we wish to know what is the value, in English money, of the Russian imperial of 10 rubles: the weight is 13.073 gram., the standard at 917; deducting the alloy, that is, 1.08 gram., there remain, in pure gold, 11.988 grammes. The English sovereign weighs 7.9808 gram., the standard is at 917, the alloy, consequently, 0.662 gram., and the weight of pure gold contained in it, 7.3184 gram. Now, by the rule of three, the question will thus be resolved: 7.318 gram. : 11.988 gram. : : 20 shillings : = £1 12*s.* 9*d.* By this method, we can ascertain the relative value of all coins; but sometimes the value thus ascertained will not exactly agree with the sum allowed in exchange. This difference arises from political causes and commercial vicissitudes. This fall and rise, in the relative value of money, principally takes place wherever there is a paper currency.—A report of the director of the U. States' mint, in 1827, gives the weight, value and fineness of several of the English coins, as follows:—

	Weight.		Pure gold.		Cur. val. by tale.		Val. pr. dwt.	Actual val.		
	dwt.	*grs.*	*dwt.*	*grs.*	$	*cts.*	*cts.*	$	*cts.*	*m.*
Sovereign, ...	5	3.27	4	17	4	55	$88\frac{8}{9}$	4	56	6
Guinea, ...	5	9.44	4	22.65	4	75	do.	4	79	4

The silver coins of late emissions are of less value than the older ones:—

	Weight.		Fine silver.		Cur. val. by tale.		Val. pr. oz.			Actual val.		
	dwt.	*grs.*	*dwt.*	*grs.*	$	*cts.*	$	*cts.*	*m.*	$	*cts.*	*m.*
Crown, before 1816, ...	19	8.5	17	21.7	1	15	1	19	6	1	15	
——— 1816 to 1820, . . .	18	4	16	19.3	1	15		do.		1	08	6
Shilling, before 1816, . . .	3	20.5	3	13.6		23		do.			23	
——— 1816 to 1820, . . .	3	15	3	8.5		23		do.			21	7

*A General Table of the Gold and Silver Coins of different Countries, giving their national Denominations and Value, Weight in Dwts. and Grammes, the Number of Parts of pure Metal which they contain, and their Value in English Money and in Dollars and Cents.**

1. United States of America.

National denominations.	dwt.	grs.	Grammes.	Standard.	Eng. value. £	s.	d.	Amer. val. $	cts.	m.
Gold.										
Eagle, of 10 dollars,	11	6	17.480	917	2	3	9¾	10	0	0
Half-eagle, of 5 dollars,	5	15	8.740	917	1	1	10¾	5	0	0
Quarter-eagle, of 2½ dollars,	2	19½	3.370	917	0	10	11¼	2	50	0
Silver.										
Dollar,	17	10	27.000	903	0	4	3½	1	0	0
Half-dollar,	8	17	13.500	903	0	2	1¾	0	50	0
Quarter-dollar,	4	8½	6.750	903	0	1	0¾	0	25	0

2. Austria and Bohemia.

Gold.										
Emperor's ducat,	2	5¾	3.491	986	0	9	5	2	19	4
Hungarian ducat,	2	5¾	3.491	990	0	9	5¼	2	19	9
Half-sovereign,	3	7½	5.567	917	0	14	9	3	46	6
Quarter-sovereign,	1	15¾	2.7835	917	0	7	4½	1	71	8
Silver.										
Crown, since 1753,	18	1	28.064	833	0	4	1½	0	96	1
Half rix-dollar, or florin,	9	0½	14.032	833	0	2	0¾	0	48	0
20 kreutzers,	4	6½	6.682	583	0	0	8¼	0	16	0
10 ditto,	2	3¼	3.341	500	0	0	4	0	7	7

3. Baden.

Gold.										
Piece of 2 florins,	4	9	6.800	901	0	16	8¼	3	88	8
——— 1 florin,	2	4½	3.400	901	0	8	4⅛	1	94	4
Silver.										
Piece of 2 florins,	16	2	25.450	750	0	3	3¾	0	77	2
——— 1 florin,	8	1	12.725	750	0	1	3¾	0	30	5

4. Bavaria.

Gold.										
Carolin,	6	5¼	9.744	771	1	0	4¼	4	74	2
Maximilian,	4	4	6.496	771	0	13	7½	3	17	4
Silver.										
Crown,	18	2	29.343	868	0	4	6	1	4	8
Rix-dollar of 1800,	17	12	27.513	833	0	4	0½	0	94	2
Teston, or kôpfstuck,	4	6½	6.643	583	0	0	8¼	0	16	0

5. Denmark.

Gold.										
Ducat current since 1767,	2	0	3.143	875	0	7	6	1	74	7
Ducat specie, 1791 to 1802,	2	5¾	3.519	979	0	9	4¾	2	18	9
Christian, 1773,	4	7	6.735	903	0	16	7	3	86	4
Silver.										
Rix-dollar, or double crown, of the value of 96 Danish shillings of 1776,	18	14	29.126	875	0	4	6	1	4	8
Rix-dollar, or piece of 6 Danish marks of 1750,	17	6	26.800	833	0	4	0	0	93	2
Danish mark of 16 shillings of 1776,	4	0	6.286	688	0	0	7½	0	14	5

* The weight of the coins has been given both in *grammes* and in dwts. It is very easy for any one to convert grammes into dwts., by means of the rule of three, knowing that 1 lb. troy weight, or 200 dwts., are equal to 373.095 grammes. The ratio of gold to silver, in the U. States, is as $15\frac{11}{27}$ to 1. Any one, therefore, by deducing from the above table the weight of the pure metal, in the gold and silver coins, can obtain their precise relative value.

6. France.

The money unit, in France, is the *franc*, which, according to the decimal system, is divided into 100 parts, called *centimes*. In government accounts and legal deeds, all sums must be expressed in francs and centimes; but among the people, and in the purchase of goods sold by retail, and in small quantity, the denomination of *sous* is still in use. This practice does not create confusion, because the sou is a multiple of the centime,—that is, there are 20 sous to the franc, and each contains 5 centimes. The two sous piece may also be called *décime*, or tenth of a franc. Although the franc and the livre tournois now appear to be of equal value, there is, however, a slight difference in favor of the franc:—100 fr. = 101 livres 5 sous. Hence, if an individual had to discharge a debt contracted previously to the year VIII of the republic, and stipulated in livres tournois, he would be entitled, in making his payment in francs, to a deduction in the proportion above mentioned. Formerly, the livre tournois was the money unit of France. Its value has varied much, although it has retained the denomination which, originally, was the expression of its nature. Under Charlemagne, in the 9th century, its weight was 12 ounces, or 1 lb. troy weight, and its value 78 liv. 17 sous of present money. The weight and value progressively decreased down to the time of Louis XV, when it only amounted to 8 sous. Under Louis XVI, it rose again to 20 sous. Besides the new coinage issued during the republic, under the empire, and since the restoration, the old one is still in circulation. There is, however, but little of it extant. The value of the silver pieces was not only reduced in 1810, as will be seen here, but the pieces of 24, 12, and 6 sous are not to be taken in payment, except they have preserved some part of the stamp (*empreinte*); consequently, all those which were defaced have been withdrawn from circulation. There is also in France a coin composed of copper and silver, in the proportion of 4 to 1, called *billon*, and denominated, by the people, *monnaie grise*. Before the revolution, there were, of this mixture, *pieces of six liards* (the French sou being divided into four liards), and of two sous and a half, called *pieces of six blancs*: there are few of this value now extant, but there are pieces of two sous, or décimes.

New Coin.

National denominations.	dwt.	grs.	Grammes.	Standard.	Eng. value. £	s.	d.	Amer. val. $	cts.	m.
Gold.										
20 franc piece,	4	3½	6.4516	900	0	15	10½	3	69	9
40 ———	8	7	12.9032	900	1	11	8½	7	38	8
Silver (argent blanc).										
5 franc piece,	16	1	25.000	900	0	4	0	0	93	2
2 ———	6	11	10.000	900	0	1	7	0	36	8
1 ———	3	5½	5.000	900	0	0	9½	0	18	4
½, or 50 centimes,	1	15	2.500	900	0	0	4¾	0	9	2
¼, or 25 ———	0	18½	1.250	900	0	0	2¼	0	4	3
Billon (monnaie grise).										
Piece of 0 10 centimes,					0	0	0¾.80	0	1	8
Copper (old and new).										
Décime, or 2 sous,					0	0	0¾.80	0	1	8
Sou, or 5 centimes,										
Sou, or 1 centime,										

Value of the Old Coin in Francs.

	Livres.		Fr. Cent.	dwt.	grs.	Grammes.		£	s.	d.	$	cts.	m.
Louis of	24	=	23 55	4	22	7.649	901	0	18	8⅓	4	35	0
Double ditto	48	=	47 29	9	20	15.297	901	1	17	4⅔	8	70	2
Silver.													
Écu, or piece of	6	=	5 80	18	18	29.488	906	0	4	7⅙	1	6	8
Petit écu, or piece of	3	=	2 75	9	9	14.744	906	0	2	2⅓	0	50	6
Piece of 24 sous		=	1 0	3	20	5.897	supposed	0	0	9½	0	18	4
——— 12 sous		=	0 50	1	22	2.948	at	0	0	4¾	0	9	2
——— 6 sous		=	0 25	0	23½	1.474	906	0	0	2⅜	0	4	4
——— 30 sous		=	1 50	6	12	10.136	660	0	1	2¼	0	27	6
——— 15 sous		=	0 75	3	6	5.068	660	0	0	7⅛	0	13	8

7. Hamburg.

Gold.

National denominations.	dwt.	grs.	Grammes.	Standard.	Eng. value. £	s.	d.	Amer. val. $	cts.	m.
Ducat ad legem imperii,	2	5¾	3.491	986	0	9	4¾	2	18	9
New town ducat,	2	5¾	3.488	979	0	9	4	2	17	4
Silver.										
Mark banco (imaginary),			....	...	0	1	5¾	0	34	4
16 shilling piece, convention,	5	20	9.164	750	0	1	2½	0	28	1
Rix-dollar specie,	18	18	29.233	889	0	4	7	1	6	8

8. Holland and the Netherlands.

Gold.

Ducat,	2	5¾	3.512	986	0	9	5⅜	2	20	1
Ryder,	6	10½	9.988	920	1	5	1¼	5	84	9
20 florins, 1808,	9	7¾	13.659	917	1	14	2¾	7	97	5
10 florins,	4	15⅞	6.829	917	0	17	1⅜	3	96	3
10 Williams, 1818,	4	7½	6.700	900	0	16	5½	3	83	4
Silver.										
Florin,	6	22	10.597	917	0	1	8½	0	39	8
Escalin (6 sous),	3	4⅚	4.976	583	0	0	6	0	13	9
Ducaton, or ryder,	20	22	32.750	941	0	5	5	1	26	2
Ducat, or rix-dollar,	18	6	28.230	873	0	4	4	1	0	9

The florin is divided into 20 sous, and the sou into 5 cents.

9. Japan.

Gold.

Old kobang of 100 mas,	It has not been possible to ascertain the legal weight and title of these coins. Their value is, therefore, only approximate.				2	7	3	11	0	9
Half ditto,					1	3	7½	5	5	4
New cobang,					1	5	11	6	3	8
Half ditto,					0	12	10½	3	0	0
Silver.										
Tigo-gin, of 40 mas,					0	11	5	2	66	0
Half ditto,					0	5	8½	1	33	0
One fourth ditto,					0	2	10¼	0	66	5
One eighth ditto,					0	1	5	0	33	0

10. Lombardo-Venetian.

Gold.

Sovereign, 1823,	8	18	11.332	900	1	7	1	6	31	0
Half ditto,	4	9	5.666	900	0	13	6½	3	15	5
Silver.										
Crown,	17	7¾	25.986	900	0	4	1½	0	96	1
Half-crown, or florin,	8	15⅞	12.993	900	0	2	0¾	0	48	0
Austrian livre,	2	18⅔	4.331	900	0	0	8¼	0	16	0

11. Mogul (East Indies).

Gold.

Mohur of Bengal,	7	23		993	1	13	8	7	84	4
——— of Bombay,	7	10½		953	1	10	1	7	0	9
Gold rupee, Bombay,	7	11		922	1	9	2	6	79	6
—— ——, Madras,	7	12		916	1	9	3	6	81	5
Star pagoda, Madras,	2	4½		792	0	7	6	1	74	7
Silver.										
Rupee, Sicca,	7	12		979	0	2	0½	0	47	5
———, Arcot,	7	9		941	0	1	11¾	0	46	1
———, Bombay,	7	11		926	0	1	11	0	44	6
———, Broach,	7	10		883	0	1	9	0	40	7

12. Naples.

Gold.

National denominations.	dwt.	grs.	Grammes.	Standard.	Eng. value. £	s.	d.	Amer. val. $	cts.	m.
New ounce of 3 ducats,	2	10¼	3.786	996	0	10	5¾	2	44	1
Silver.										
12 carlini, 1804,	17	15	27.533	833⅓	0	4	1¼	0	95	6
Ducat of 10 carlini, 1784,	14	16	22.810	839½	0	3	4¼	0	78	1
2 carlini, 1804,	2	22	4.588	833⅓	0	8	0	1	86	4
1 ———, 1804,	1	11	2.294	833⅓	0	0	4	0	7	7
Ducat of 10 carlini, 1818,	14	18	22.943	833	0	3	4¼	0	78	1

13. Papal States.

Gold.

Pistola of Pius VI and VII,	3	12⅛	5.471	916⅔	0	13	11¼	3	24	7
Half ditto,	1	18⅙	2.735	916⅔	0	6	11¼	1	62	3
Zecchino, 1769,	2	4½	3.426	1000	0	9	4½	2	18	4
Half ditto,	1	2¼	1.713	1000	0	4	8¼	1	9	2
Silver.										
Crown of 10 paoli,	17	1	26.437	916⅔	0	4	3¼	0	99	5
Testone of 3 paoli,	5	2	7.932	916⅔	0	1	3½	0	30	0
——— of 20 paoli,	3	10	5.287	916⅔	0	0	10½	0	20	3
Paolo,	1	17	2.644	916⅔	0	0	5¼	0	10	1

The paolo is divided into 10 bajocchi; the crown into 10 paoli.

14. Parma.

Gold.

Zecchino,	2	5¾	3.468	1000	0	9	5⅜	2	20	1
Pistola of 1784,	4	19⅚	7.498	891	0	18	3	4	25	2
——— of 1786,	4	14	7.141	891	0	17	4½	4	4	8
40 lire of Maria Louisa, since 1815,	8	7¾	12.903	900	1	11	9	7	39	8
20 ditto,	4	3⅞	6.451	900	0	15	10½	3	69	9
Silver.										
Ducat of 1784,	16	11	25.707	906	0	4	1¼	0	95	6
Piece of 3 lire,	2	8¾	3.672	833	0	0	6½	0	12	6
5 lire of Maria Louisa,	16	0	25.000	900	0	3	11½	0	92	2

15. Persia.

Gold.

Rupee,					1	9	1¾	6	79	1
Half ditto,					0	14	6¾	3	34	4
Silver.										
Double rupee of 5 abassis,					0	3	10½	0	90	2
Rupee,					0	1	11½	0	45	6
Abassi,					0	0	9	0	17	4
Mamoudi,					0	0	4½	0	8	7
Larin,					0	0	9½	0	18	4

The weight and title have not been ascertained.

16. Portugal.

Gold.

Lisbonine, or moidore of 4800 reis,	6	22	10.752	917	1	6	11¼	6	22	8
Half ditto of 2400 reis,	3	11	5.376	917	0	13	5½	3	13	6
Quarter ditto of 1200 reis,	1	17½	2.688	917	0	6	8¾	1	56	7
Portuguese, or moiadobra of 6400 reis,	9	5½	14.334	917	1	15	11	8	32	0
Half Portuguese of 3200 reis,	4	14⅔	7.167	917	0	17	10½	4	16	5
Piece of 16 testons, or 1600 reis,	2	7½	3.583	917	0	8	11¼	2	8	2
—— of 12 testons, or 1200 reis,	1	17⅚	2.538	917	0	6	4¼	1	61	6
—— of 8 testons, or 800 reis,	1	3⅔	1.792	917	0	4	5¾	1	4	3
Cruzada of 480 reis,	0	16¼	1.045	917	0	2	7¼	0	60	7

National denominations.	dwt.	grs.	Grammes.	Standard.	Eng. value. £	s.	d.	Amer. val. $	cts.	m.
Silver.										
New cruzada of 480 reis,	9	1	14.633	903	0	2	7¼	0	60	7
17. Prussia.										
Gold.										
Ducat,	2	5¾	3.491	979	0	9	4	2	17	5
Frederic,	4	7	6.689	903	0	16	6	3	84	4
Half ditto,	2	3½	3.345	903	0	8	3	1	92	2
Silver.										
Rix-dollar, or thaler of 30 silbergroschen of 1823,	14	6½	22.272	750	0	2	11¼	0	68	4
Piece of 5 silbergroschen,	2	9	3.712	750	0	0	5¾	0	11	1
Silbergros,			2.192	208	0	0	0¾	0	1	4
18. Ragusa.										
Silver.										
Ragusan, or talaro,	18	22	29.400	600	0	3	0	0	69	9
Half ditto,	9	11	14.700	600	0	1	6	0	34	9
Ducat,	8	19	13.666	450	0	1	1	0	25	2
12 grossettes,	2	9½	4.140	450	0	0	4	0	7	8
6 ditto,	1	4¾	2.070	450	0	0	2	0	3	9
19. Russia.										
Gold.										
Ducat from 1755 to 1763,	2	5¾	3.495	979	0	9	4¼	2	18	0
—— of 1763,	2	5¾	3.473	969	0	9	2¼	2	14	1
Imperial of 10 roubles, from 1755 to 1763,	12	19	16.585	917	2	1	6½	9	67	9
Half ditto,	6	9½	8.293	917	1	0	9¼	4	83	9
Imperial of 10 roubles, since 1763,	7	17¼	13.073	917	1	12	9	7	63	1
Half ditto,	3	20½	6.536	917	0	16	4½	3	81	5
Silver.										
Rouble of 100 copecks, from 1750 to 1762,	18	1	25.870	802	0	3	7¾	0	84	9
——————, from 1763 to 1807,	15	10	24.011	750	0	3	2	0	73	8
20. Sardinia.										
Gold.										
Carlin, since 1768,	10	7¾	16.056	892	1	19	1½	9	11	6
Half ditto,	5	2⅜	8.028	892	0	19	6¾	4	55	8
Pistola,	5	10⅛	9.118	906	1	2	6¾	5	25	7
Half ditto,	2	17⅙	4.559	906	0	11	3¼	2	62	6
Silver.										
Crown, since 1768,	15	2½	23.590	896	0	3	8¾	0	86	9
Half-crown,	7	13¼	11.795	896	0	1	10¼	0	43	2
Quarter ditto,	3	18⅝	5.897	896	0	0	11	0	21	4
New crown of 1816,	16	0	25.000	900	0	3	11¼	0	91	7
21. Savoy and Piedmont.										
Gold.										
Zecchino,	2	5¾	3.468	1000	0	9	5¾	2	20	9
Double new pistola of 24 livres,	6	4½	9.620	906	1	3	9½	5	54	3
Half ditto,	3	2¼	4.810	906	0	11	10¾	2	77	2
New pistola of 20 livres, 1816,	4	3⅜	6.451	900	0	15	10	3	68	9
Carlino, since 1755,	30	22⅜	48.100	906	5	19	0	27	72	8
Half ditto,	15	11⅓	24.050	906	2	19	6	13	86	4
Zecchino of Genoa,	2	5¾	3.487	1000	0	9	6¼	2	21	8

Silver.

National denominations.	dwt.	grs.	Grammes.	Standard.	Eng. value. £	s.	d.	Amer. val. $	cts.	m.
Crown of 6 livres, since 1755,	22	14	35.118	906	0	5	7¼	1	30	5
Half-crown,	11	7	17.559	906	0	2	9½	0	65	0
Quarter ditto, or 30 sous,	5	15½	8.779	906	0	1	4¾	0	32	5
One eighth ditto, or 15 sous,	2	19¾	4.389	906	0	0	8½	0	16	5
New crown of 5 livres, 1816,	16	1½	25.000	900	0	4	0	0	94	0

22. Saxony.

Gold.

Ducat,	2	5¾	3.491	986	0	9	5	2	19	4
Double Augustus, or 10 thalers,	8	13 11/12	13.340	903	1	12	11	7	67	0
Augustus, or 5 thalers,	4	6 10/12	6.670	903	0	16	5½	3	83	5
Half ditto,	3	3 5/12	3.339	903	0	8	2¾	1	91	7

Silver.

Rix-dollar specie, or convention, since 1763,	18	1	28.064	833	0	4	1¼	0	95	6
Half ditto, or florin,	9	0½	14.032	833	0	2	0½	0	47	5
Thaler of 24 groschen (imaginary coin),	....		....	...	0	3	1	0	71	8
Groschen, 24 to the thaler, 32 to the rix-dollar,	1	3⅓	1.982	368	0	0	1½	0	2	9

23. Sicily.

Gold.

Ounce, 1748,	2	20½	4.399	906	0	10	10¼	2	52	9

Silver.

Crown of 12 tarins,	17	14	27.533	833⅓	0	4	0½	0	94	1

24. Spain.

Gold.

Doubloon of 8 crowns, 1772 to 1786,	17	9	27.045	901	3	6	7	15	51	4
——— 4 crowns,	8	16½	13.522	901	1	13	3½	7	75	7
——— 2 crowns,	4	8¼	6.761	901	0	16	7¾	3	87	8
Half-pistole, or crown,	2	4⅛	3.380	901	0	8	3¾	1	93	7
Doubloon of 8 crowns, since 1786,	17	9	27.045	875	3	4	8	15	6	8
——— 4 crowns,	8	16½	13.522	875	1	12	4	7	53	4
——— 2 crowns,	4	8¼	6.761	875	0	16	2	3	28	1
Half-pistole, or crown,	2	4⅛	3.380	875	0	8	1	1	88	3

Silver.

Piaster, since 1772,	17	8	25.045	903	0	4	3¾	1	0	6
Real of 2, or peseta, or one fifth of a piaster,	3	18	5.971	813	0	0	10½	0	20	4
Real of 1, or half peseta, or one tenth of a piaster,	1	21	2.985	813	0	0	5¼	0	10	2
Reallillo, or one twentieth of a piaster,	0	22½	1.492	813	0	0	2½	0	4	8

These three last coins have currency in the peninsula only.

25. Sweden.

Gold.

Ducat,	2	5	3.482	976	0	9	3¼	2	16	0
Half ditto,	1	2½	1.741	976	0	4	7½	1	7	8
Quarter ditto,	0	13¼	.870	976	0	2	3¾	0	53	9

Silver.

Rix-dollar of 48 shillings, from 1720 to 1802,	18	17	29.508	878	0	4	6	1	4	8
Two thirds of rix-dollar, or 32 shillings,	12	11⅓	19.672	878	0	3	0	0	69	9
One third, or 16 shillings,	6	5⅔	9.836	878	0	1	6	0	34	9

26. Switzerland.

Gold.

National denominations.	dwt.	grs.	Grammes.	Standard.	Eng. value. £	s.	d.	Amer. val. $	cts.	m.
32 franken piece,	8	22	15.297	904	1	17	9	8	79	6
16 ditto,	4	11	7.648	904	0	18	10½	4	39	8
Ducat of Zurich,	2	5¾	3.491	979	0	9	5	2	19	4
——— Berne,	2	5⅓	3.452	979	0	9	2¾	2	15	0
Pistole of Berne,	4	21	7.648	902	0	18	10	4	38	8

Silver.

Crown of Basle of 30 batz, or 2 florins,	15	1	23.386	878	0	3	7¼	0	84	0
Half-crown, or florin,	7	12⅓	11.693	878	0	1	9¼	0	41	5
Franken of Berne, since 1803,	4	17¼	7.512	900	0	1	2¼	0	27	7
Crown of Zurich, of 1781,	16	0	25.057	844	0	3	8½	0	86	4
Half-crown, or florin, since 1781,	8	0	12.528	844	0	1	10¼	0	43	2
Crown of 40 batz of Basle and Soleure, since 1798,	18	23	29.480	901	0	4	8	1	8	8
Piece of 4 franken of Berne, 1799,	18	22	29.370	901	0	4	8	1	8	8
——— Switzerland, of 1803,	18	23	30.049	900	0	4	9	1	10	7
Ditto of 2 franken of Switzerland, of 1803,	9	11½	15.025	900	0	2	4½	0	55	3
Ditto of 1 franken,	4	17¾	7.512	900	0	1	2½	0	28	1

27. Turkey.

Gold.

Zecchin zermahboub of Sultan Abdoul Hamet, 1774,	1	16	2.642	958	0	6	11	1	61	2
Half ditto,	0	20	1.321	958	0	3	5½	0	80	6
Roubbié, or ¼ zecchin fondoukli,	0	13⅔	0.881	802	0	1	11	0	44	7
Zecchin zermahboub of Sel. III,	1	16	2.642	802	0	5	9½	1	35	0
Half ditto,	0	20	1.321	802	0	2	4¾	0	55	8
Quarter ditto,	0	10	0.660	802	0	1	2¼	0	27	7

Silver.

Altmichlec of 60 paras, since 1771,	15	50	28.822	550	0	2	9½	0	65	0
Yaremlec of 20 paras, or 60 aspers,			.....	...	0	0	9¼	0	18	0
Rouble of 10 paras, or 30 aspers,			.....	...	0	0	4½	0	8	8
Aspre, 120 in the piaster,			.....	...	0	0	0	0	0	0
Piastre of 40 paras,			.....	...	0	1	7	0	36	9
Piece of 5 piastres,			.....	...	0	2	3¼	0	52	9

28. Tuscany.

Gold.

Ruspone, 3 zecchini, with the lily,	6	17¼	10.464	1000	1	8	7	6	66	0
One third ruspone, or zecchino,	2	5¾	3.488	1000	0	9	6⅓	2	22	1
Half zecchino,	1	2¾	1.744	1000	0	4	9	1	10	7
Zecchino with effigy,	2	5¾	3.418	1000	0	9	6⅓	2	22	1
Rosina,	4	11½	6.976	896	0	17	1	3	98	0
Half ditto,	2	5¾	3.488	896	0	8	6½	1	99	0

Silver.

Francesconi of 10 paoli, or crown of 10 paoli,	17	13½	25.507	917	0	4	5¼	1	3	4
Piece of 5 paoli,	8	18¾	12.753	917	0	2	2½	0	51	5
——— 2 paoli,	3	6½	5.501	917	0	10	0	2	33	0
——— 1 paoli,	1	15¼	2.751	917	0	0	5	0	9	7

29. Venice.

Gold.

National denominations.	dwt.	grs.	Grammes.	Standard.	Eng. value. £	s.	d.	Amer. val. $	cts.	m.
Zecchino,	2	5¾	3.484	1000	0	9	6	2	21	4
Half ditto,	1	2⅞	1.742	1000	0	4	9	1	10	7
Ozella,	8	19	13.666	1000	1	17	4	8	70	0
Ducat,	1	9⅔	2.175	1000	0	5	11¼	1	39	0
Pistola,	4	8½	6.764	917	0	15	11½	3	71	6

Silver.

Ducat of 8 livres,	14	15½	22.777	826	0	3	3⅚	0	77	0
Crown of the cross,	20	10	31.788	948	0	5	3¾	1	23	8
Ducatoon,	18	0	27.914	948	0	4	8	1	9	0
Talaro,	18	13	28.990	826	0	4	2⅔	0	98	3
Ozella,	6	8	9.843	948	0	1	7⅔	0	38	1

(For further information in regard to coins, see *Standard*, *Mint*, *Money* and *Exchange*.)

Coire (*Chur*); the capital of the Swiss canton of the Grisons, on the rivers Plessur and Rhine, with 3350 inhabitants. The trade between Germany and Italy is the cause of the wealth of this city. Not far from Coire the Rhine begins to be navigable for small vessels. This town contains several scientific establishments, and a bishop's see, whose income amounts to 10,000 guilders, chiefly derived from the Tyrol. The secular possessions of the bishops were given, in 1802, to the Helvetic republic, as an indemnification for losses which it had suffered in other quarters. Until 1498, Coire was a free imperial city, but at that time came under the government of the bishop, who was under the archbishop of Mentz. There is a very good school here.

Coke. (See *Coal*.)

Coke, sir Edward, one of the most eminent English lawyers, the son of Robert Coke, esquire, of Norfolk, was born in 1550. He received his early education at the free-school of Norwich, whence he was removed to Trinity college, Cambridge. From the university he went to London, and entered the Inner Temple. He pleaded his first cause in 1578, and was appointed reader of Lyon's Inn, where his lectures were much frequented. His reputation and practice rapidly increased, and he was placed in a situation of great respectability and affluence, by a marriage with a coheiress of the Paston family. He was chosen recorder of the cities of Norwich and of Coventry; was engaged in all the great causes at Westminster hall, and, in the 35th year of Elizabeth, chosen knight of the shire for his county, and speaker of the house of commons. In 1592, he became solicitor-general, and, soon after, attorney-general; and the death of his wife, who brought him 10 children, gave him another opportunity of increasing his influence, by a marriage with the widow lady Hatton, sister to the minister Burleigh. He acted the usual part of a crown lawyer in all state prosecutions; and one of the most important that fell under his management as attorney-general, was that of the unfortunate earl of Essex, which he conducted with great asperity. Soon after the accession of James I, he was knighted. The celebrated trial of sir Walter Raleigh followed, in which Coke displayed a degree of arrogance to the court, and of rancor and insult towards the prisoner, which was universally condemned at the time, and has been deemed one of the greatest stains upon his character, by all posterity. On the discovery of the gunpowder plot, he obtained great credit by the clearness and sagacity with which he stated the evidence; and, in 1606, he became chief justice of the common pleas. In 1613, he succeeded to the important office of chief justice of the court of king's bench, but was in much less favor with James than his rival, lord Bacon. He was, in fact, too wary and stanch a lawyer to commit himself on the subject of prerogative; and as his temper was rough, and his attachment to law truly professional, he could scarcely forbear involving himself with a court so notorious for arbitrary principles as was the English during the reign of James. The honorable zeal which he displayed in the execrable affair of sir Thomas Overbury, and in the prosecution of the king's wretched minions, Somerset and his countess, for that atrocious murder, made him enemies; and advantage was taken

of a dispute, in which he erroneously engaged with the court of chancery, to remove him, in 1616, both from the council and his post of chief justice. His real offence, however, was a refusal to favor the new favorite Villiers in some pecuniary matter. Coke meanly made up this breach by marrying his youngest daughter, with a large fortune, to the elder brother of Villiers, and was, in consequence, reinstated in the council in 1617, and actively engaged in prosecutions for corruption in office, and other crimes, of a nature to recruit an exhausted treasury by the infliction of exorbitant fines. He, however, supported the privileges of the commons with great tenacity; for which, after the prorogation of parliament, in 1621, he was committed to the Tower. He was, however, quickly liberated; but was again expelled the privy council, with peculiar marks of displeasure on the part of James. On the accession of Charles I, he was nominated sheriff of Buckinghamshire, in order to prevent his being chosen member for the county, which, however, he represented in the parliament which met in 1628. The remainder of his career was highly popular; he greatly distinguished himself by his speeches for redress of grievances; vindicated the right of the commons to proceed against any individual, however exalted; openly named Buckingham as the cause of the misfortunes of the kingdom; and, finally, sealed his services to the popular part of the constitution, by proposing and framing the famous "petition of rights," the most explicit declaration of English liberty which had then appeared. This was the last of his public acts. The dissolution of parliament, which soon followed, sent him into retirement, at Stoke Pogis, in Buckinghamshire, where he spent the remainder of his life in tranquillity. He died in Sept., 1634, in the 85th year of his age, leaving behind him a numerous posterity and a large fortune. Sir Edward Coke was a great lawyer, but a great lawyer only. In mere legal learning he has, perhaps, never been excelled; but he was essentially defective in the merits of systematic arrangement and regard to general principles, without which law is a mere collection of arbitrary rules, undeserving the name of science. It must be admitted, however, that his writings, and especially his Commentary on Littleton's Treatise on Tenures, form a vast repository of legal erudition. In short, he was a man of immense professional research, and great sagacity and perseverance in a chosen pursuit; and, as usual, more philosophical and general powers were sacrificed to its exclusiveness. His principal works are, Reports, from 1600 to 1615: A Book of Entries (folio, 1614): Institutes of the Laws of England, in four parts; the first of which contains the Commentary on Littleton's Tenures; the second, a Commentary on Magna Charta and other statutes; the third, the criminal laws or pleas of the crown; and the fourth, an account of the jurisdiction of all the courts in the kingdom: A Treatise of Bail and Mainprise (1637, 4to.): Reading on the Statute of Fines, 27 Edw. I (4to.): Complete Copyholder (1640, 4to.).

Coke, Thomas, a missionary, was born in 1747, at Brecon, in South Wales. In 1775, he took his degree of LL. D. at Oxford, and, soon after, became acquainted with the celebrated John Wesley, who soon brought him over to his own opinions, and, in 1780, appointed him to superintend the London district: he also made him one of the trustees, on his execution of the deed of declaration as to all his chapels. In 1784, Wesley is said to have consecrated him as a bishop, for the purpose of superintending the Methodistical societies in America. The doctor now, therefore, made several voyages to the U States and the West Indies, establishing meeting-houses, organizing congregations, and ordaining ministers. He subsequently returned to England, where he had some misunderstanding with Mr. Wesley, who, as the founder of a sect, expected more submission than doctor Coke was inclined to bestow. He accordingly determined on visiting Nova Scotia; but, in consequence of a storm, the ship in which he embarked took refuge in the harbor of Antigua, which led him to preach there, and to visit several other islands; and he examined the state of religion generally, both in the West Indies and America, before he again returned to England. He made, altogether, nine voyages to this quarter of the globe, on the same business, and met with great success as a missionary. He was the author of a Commentary on the Bible, undertaken at the request of the Methodists; A History of the West Indies, and several other works, among which was a Life of Wesley, written in conjunction with Henry More. In 1814, he sailed for the East Indies, but died on the voyage. He was of a zealous, but also of an amiable character.

Colberg; a Prussian fortress and seaport in Pomerania, in the district of

Köslin, on the river Persante, one mile from the sea, with about 7000 inhabitants. Here is an important salt manufactory. This small fortress was often attacked and besieged by the Russians, in the war against Frederic the Great; and, in 1807, it was admirably defended by general Gneisenau (q. v.), Schill (q. v.), and the citizen Nettelbeck (q. v.), against the French generals Feulié, Loison and Mortier (q. v), who commanded in succession the besieging corps, consisting of 18,000 men, which fired into the town 6775 balls, besides those thrown against the works. The garrison, which was only 6000 men strong, lost 429 men killed, 1093 wounded, 209 prisoners, and 159 missing. The fortress was not taken. The remnant of the garrison was formed into one regiment, called the *Colberg regiment*, which was considered one of the bravest in the Prussian army. Blücher returned thanks to them, in particular, for their conduct in the battle of Ligny, June 16, 1815, on which occasion they had been engaged from one o'clock till about dark, and had suffered great loss. The editor will always consider it an honor to have fought in their ranks.

Colbert, Jean Baptiste, French minister of finances, born 1619, at Rheims, son of a draper and wine-merchant, entered, in 1648, the service of Le Tellier, secretary of state, by whom he was made known to cardinal Mazarin, who discovered his talents, and made him his intendant, and availed himself of his assistance, in the financial administration of the kingdom. Mazarin rewarded him, in 1654, with the office of secretary to the queen, and recommended him, at his death, to the king (1660). Louis XIV made Colbert intendant of the finances. Colbert and Le Tellier now joined to effect the fall of Fouquet, for which purpose they had united, the former from ambition, the latter from envy. After effecting this object, Colbert, with the title of a *controleur-général*, assumed the direction of the finances. He had a task to remedy the evils which the feeble and stormy reign of Louis XIII, the splendid but arbitrary measures of Richelieu, the troubles of the Fronde, and the confused state of the finances under Mazarin, had occasioned. He found fraud, disorder and corruption prevailing every where. The domains were alienated. Burdens, privileges and exemptions were multiplied without measure; the state was the prey of the farmers-general, and, at the same time, maintained only by their aid. The people were obliged to pay 90,000,000 of taxes, of which the king received scarcely 35,000,000; the revenues were anticipated for two years, and the treasury empty. Colbert had to proceed from the same point as Sully; but the jealous and impetuous Louvois, the wars, the luxury and the prodigality of Louis XIV, increased his difficulties, and he was forced, in the latter half of his career, to retrace the steps which he had taken in the former. He began with establishing a council of finances and a chamber of justice, the first that he might have an oversight of the whole; the other, that he might watch the embezzlements of the farmers-general, and liquidate the debts of the state. For the purpose of alleviating the public burdens, he endeavored to lower the interest of the public debt; and, in order to mitigate the odium of this measure, he consented to a considerable diminution of the taxes, and to the remission of all arrears up to 1656. He abolished many useless offices, retracted burdensome privileges, diminished salaries, put a stop to the infamous trade in offices, and the no less injurious custom of making the courtiers interested, as farmers-general, in the produce of the public revenue; he exposed the arts and abuses, and limited the immense gain, of the collectors; established a loan-bank; diminished the interest of money; reëstablished the king in the possession of his domains, and appropriated suitable funds for each expenditure. A better distribution and collection of the taxes enabled him to reduce them almost one half. The happiest success crowned his wise and courageously-executed measures. Notwithstanding the expenses of nearly ten years' war; notwithstanding the prodigality of a luxurious king, Colbert succeeded, in 22 years, in adding to the revenues more than 28,000,000, and making an equal diminution in the public burdens; and, at his death, in 1683, the revenue actually received amounted to 116,000,000. In 1664, Colbert was superintendent of buildings, of arts and manufactures, and, in 1669, minister of the marine. To his talents, activity and enlarged views, France owes the universal developement and the rapid progress of her industry and commerce. France was not only freed from the taxes which its luxury had hitherto paid to foreign countries, but it partook also of the advantages of that industry which had previously distinguished England, Holland, Venice, Genoa, the Levant, and some cities of Flanders and Germany. Manufactures were established, and flourished; the public roads were improved, and new roads laid out. Colbert built the canal of Languedoc; formed

the plan of that of Burgundy; declared Marseilles and Dunkirk free ports; granted premiums on goods exported and imported; regulated the tolls; established insurance offices; made uniform laws for the regulation of commerce; labored to render the pursuit of it honorable, and invited the nobility to engage in it. In 1664, two commercial companies were instituted to trade with the East and West Indies, to which the king advanced considerable sums. The colonies in Canada, Martinique, and particularly in St. Domingo, received new life from their union with the crown, and began to flourish. New colonies were established in Cayenne and Madagascar. For the purpose of maintaining these distant possessions, a considerable naval force was required. Colbert created this also. When he entered the ministry of the marine, the navy consisted of a few old vessels, which Mazarin had permitted to rot in the harbors. Colbert at first purchased vessels in foreign countries, but soon had them built in France. The ports of Brest, Toulon and Rochefort were repaired; those of Dunkirk and Havre were fortified. Naval schools were established, and order was introduced into all branches of the marine. In 1672, France had 60 vessels of the line, and 40 frigates: in 1681, victorious by land and sea, she had 198 men-of-war, and 166,000 seamen. By the advice of Colbert, Louis XIV caused the civil and criminal legislation to be improved, and the arts and sciences encouraged. Under the protection and in the house of the minister (1663), the academy of inscriptions was founded. Three years afterwards, he founded the academy of sciences, and, in 1671, the academy of architecture. The academy of painting received a new organization. The French academy in Rome was established. He enlarged the royal library, and the garden of plants, and built an observatory, in which he employed Huygens and Cassini. He began the mensurations of the meridian in France, and sent men of science to Cayenne. Paris was indebted to him for numerous embellishments, and many learned men in Europe received his patronage. But, notwithstanding all this, many objections have been made to this great minister. The most important is, that he promoted manufactures at the expense of agriculture, and left the peasantry without resources. With more justice, he is charged with having introduced an excess of minute and vexatious regulations into all branches of the administration. But Colbert must be judged with regard to the circumstances under which he acted. He did all that was possible; not every thing he wished. He had not such an influence on the undertakings, resolutions and inclinations of his prince as was enjoyed by Sully. Sully gave the law to his master; Colbert received it from his. The former might be called the minister of the nation; the latter, only of the king. Henry IV and Louis XIV had both great aims; but the one for France, the other for himself; and this difference produced the most important results in their administration. Sully, ever independent and sure of approbation, enriched the state by a wise economy, which was promoted by Henry, who considered the people as his family: Colbert, always dependent and thwarted in his plans, maintained the state, notwithstanding the prodigality of the king, and rendered it flourishing, notwithstanding the burdens of numerous armies and expensive wars. He was forced to have recourse to measures which he desired to see abolished forever; and he predicted to the president, who recommended a loan, "You open a wound which our grandchildren will not see healed." As soon as peace permitted him to breathe more freely, he returned to his own principles, and corrected the consequences of measures which he had adopted against his own will so rapidly, that the end of his administration was the most splendid epoch of the reign of Louis XIV. Colbert was ambitious, but honest; and, living in a continual struggle with intrigue and jealousy, enjoyed no tranquillity. He died in 1683, at the age of 64 years, exhausted by incessant labor, worn out with anxiety and grief, remedying, with difficulty, the present embarrassments, and looking with apprehension to the future. The people of Paris, imbittered by new taxes on provisions, disturbed his funeral, and threatened violence to his remains; but the misfortunes which soon afterwards afflicted the state, opened the eyes of his enemies, and obliged them to respect the memory of him whom they had unjustly persecuted.

Colchester; a town in England, in Essex, on the river Colne; 18 miles S.S.W. Ipswich, 51 N.E. London; lon. 0° 59′ E.; lat. 51° 53′ N.; population, 14,016. It is situated on the north side of an eminence on the Colne, 8 or 9 miles from the sea. Vessels of 100 tons can come up to it. It contains an ancient castle, and has been encircled by walls, now much decayed. It is a place of considerable trade and manufacture. The principal manufacture consists of woollen cloth, particularly baize.

Oysters form a considerable article of trade. It sends two members to parliament; has two weekly markets, and four annual fairs. It is an ancient town, supposed to be the *Colonia* of the Romans, and the native place of the empress Helena, mother of Constantine. In 1648, this city sustained a memorable siege against the forces of the parliament, and did not surrender till after it had experienced the horrors of famine.

COLCHESTER, lord. (See *Abbot.*)

COLCHICUM. The *colchicum autumnale*, or meadow saffron, is a bulbous-rooted plant, which grows in various parts of Europe, and which, of late years, has become quite noted as a remedy for that bane of a luxurious life—the gout. It is a very powerful remedy, and should never be used without the attendance and advice of a well-educated medical practitioner, as its effects might otherwise be highly injurious. It is now believed to be identical with the base of the *eau médicinale*, which has been, for so long a period, a celebrated empirical remedy for the gout. It is used in various forms, either the powdered root, or vinegar or wine, in which it has been steeped, or, which is considered the best, wine in which the fresh seeds have been steeped. It is also used with benefit in many cases of rheumatic affections, which often so much resemble the gout.

COLCHIS; a fertile country on the Black sea, now *Mingrelia* and *Guriel*, on the Rione (*Phasis* of the ancients). The expedition of the Argonauts first made the Greeks acquainted with this country, the original population of which, according to tradition, was derived from Egypt. The people were celebrated for frugality and industry. Strabo and others tell us that the inhabitants used to place fleeces in the streams, in order to intercept the particles of gold brought down from the mountains by the water. (See *Argonauts.*)

COLCOTHAR (also called *crocus martis*, and *rouge d'Angleterre*) is an impure, brownish-red oxide of iron, which remains after the distillation of the acid from the sulphate of iron. It forms a durable color, but is most used by artists, in polishing glass and metals.

COLD. (See *Catarrh.*)

COLDEN, Cadwallader, was the son of the reverend Alexander Colden, of Dunse, in Scotland, and was born Feb. 17, 1688. After studying at the university of Edinburgh, he devoted himself to medicine and mathematics, in which he made great proficiency. In 1708, he emigrated to Pennsylvania, and practised physic for some years, when he returned to England, and there acquired considerable reputation by a paper on animal secretions. From London he went to Scotland, and repaired again to America, in 1716. He settled a second time in Pennsylvania, but, in 1718, removed to New York. After a residence of a year in this city, he was appointed the first surveyor-general of the lands of the colony, and, at the same time, master in chancery. In 1720, he obtained a seat in the king's council, under governor Burnet. For some time previous to this, he had resided on a tract of land, about nine miles from Newburgh, on Hudson river, for which he had received a patent, where he was exposed, at every moment, to the attacks of the Indians, the tract being situated on the frontier. In 1761, he was chosen lieutenant-governor of New York, and occupied this station during the remainder of his life, being placed repeatedly at the head of affairs by the absence or death of several governors. During one of those periods, the paper intended to be distributed in New York, under the British stamp-act, arrived, and was put under his care, in the fortification called *fort George.* The people assembled in multitudes, under several leaders, and determined to cause the paper to be delivered up and destroyed. But, though the fort was declared untenable by the engineers, and the people threatened to massacre him, Colden defended his trust, and finally succeeded in securing it on board of a British man-of-war, then lying in the port. The populace burned him in effigy, and destroyed his carriages, in his sight. After the return of governor Tryon, in 1775, he retired to a seat on Long Island, where he died, Sept. 28, 1776, in the 89th year of his age, a few hours before nearly one fourth part of the city of New York was reduced to ashes.—Mr. Colden's productions were numerous, consisting of botanical and medical essays. Among them is a treatise, showing the causes, and pointing out the remedies, of the yellow fever, which, about the year 1743, desolated New York. He also wrote an account of the prevalent diseases of the climate, and a history of the five Indian nations. But the work which cost him most time and labor, was one published, at first, under the title of the Cause of Gravitation; but which, being afterwards much enlarged, appeared in 1751, with the title of the Principles of Action in Matter, to which is annexed a Treatise on Fluxions. He corresponded with many of the most dis-

tinguished characters of the day, among whom were Linnæus, Gronovius, the earl of Macclesfield, doctor Franklin, &c. Mr. Colden always took great delight in the study of botany. His descriptions of between three and four hundred American plants were published in the *Acta Upsaliensia.* He paid attention also to the climate, and left a long course of diurnal observations on the thermometer, barometer and winds.

Coleridge, Samuel Taylor; an English poet, born in 1773, at Ottery St. Mary, in Devonshire, where his father, who had a numerous family, was a clergyman. By the influence of friends, Coleridge, who was the youngest son, was admitted into the *Blue-coat school*, as it is called, Christ's hospital, London, a well-known charitable institution. Here he received an excellent education, and distinguished himself, even then, by uncommon talents and by his eccentricities. In his 19th year, he entered Jesus' college, Cambridge. Poetry and metaphysics were his favorite studies. A volume of his poetical attempts appeared in 1794, and excited great expectations, which he has but partially satisfied, owing to his invincible indolence and fickleness. In the same year appeared his Fall of Robespierre, a historical drama, which was well received. He did not escape the enthusiasm for liberty and equality, which then prevailed. At Oxford, he met with congenial spirits in the poet Southey, since so celebrated, and Robert Lovell. The three young enthusiasts left the academical halls with the view of reforming the political world. They agreed to begin in Bristol. Coleridge delivered lectures on the approaching happiness of the human race by means of republicanism, with unbounded applause from many enthusiastic young people. *Conciones ad Populum*, or Addresses to the People, and a Protest against certain bills then pending, for suppressing seditious meetings, also excited a great sensation in Bristol. In other cities, he was less successful, and his journal, the Watchman, attracted but little notice. He was indemnified by the success of a second volume of poems, which passed through several editions. Despairing of the reform of the old world, the young preachers of liberty took the resolution of carrying their theory into execution in the new, by the foundation of a state, which should bear the name of *Pantisocracy.* It was a great pity that this project was broken off by their acquaintance with three beautiful sisters, of the name of Fricker, whom Coleridge, Southey and Lovell married. Coleridge took up his abode in Nether-Stowey, near Bridgewater, where he formed an intimacy with the poet Wordsworth. Having no fixed support, he suffered some pecuniary embarrassments, but was fortunately relieved by the celebrated Messrs. Wedgewood, who enabled him to complete his studies in Germany. He learned German in Ratzeburg. His *Biographia Literaria* (London, 1817, 2 vols.) gives some account of his residence in Germany. Among other things, it contains some remarks on Ebeling, and an account of a conversation with Klopstock (2d vol., page 237—253), in which the latter gives his opinion of Lessing, Göthe, Wieland, Kotzebue and others. Coleridge then went by the way of Hanover to Göttingen, where he attended the lectures of Blumenbach and Eichhorn. After his return, he wrote the leading articles for the Morning Post, translated some dramas of Schiller, and accompanied sir Alexander Ball, as secretary, to Malta. He returned from thence, however, without having obtained any permanent situation. He lives, at present, in private, and seems to suffer all the disadvantages of a literary life, against which he warns others in his biography. He gives lectures, which reward him but poorly, though his talents are universally acknowledged. The London booksellers, by whom his labors would be well received, complain that he cannot confine himself to any regular work. His Christabel has fine passages, and was very highly praised by lord Byron. The miscellaneous essays, which he published under the title of the *Friend*, are his most popular productions. He contributes to the *Encyclopædia Metropolitana.* A list of his works is to be found in the Biographical Dictionary of the living Authors of Great Britain and Ireland, and his likeness (with a biographical notice) in the New Monthly Magazine of April, 1819. Coleridge is considered, among his countrymen, as a wild and eccentric genius. For German literature he has a great predilection. Schiller and Göthe are his favorites. He is also well acquainted with German criticism, and seems to belong to the school of the Schlegels. He has an antipathy to French literature almost amounting to a passion.

Colibri. (See *Humming-Bird.*)

Colic (from κῶλον, *colon*, the name of one of the intestines). The appellation of *colic* is commonly given to all pains in the abdomen, almost indiscriminately; but, from the different causes and circumstances of this disorder, it is differently

denominated. When the pain is accompanied with a vomiting of bile, or with obstinate costiveness, it is called a *bilious colic;* if *flatus* causes the pain, that is, if attended with temporary distention, relieved by the discharge of wind, it takes the name of *flatulent* or *windy colic;* when accompanied with heat and inflammation, it takes the name of *inflammatory colic*, or *enteritis.* When this disease arises to a violent height, and is attended with obstinate costiveness, and an evacuation of fæces by the mouth, it is called *passio iliaca*, or *iliac passion.* Doctor Cullen enumerates seven species of colic. One of the most important is the *colica pictonum.* This is called, from the places where it is endemial, the *Poictou*, the *Surinam*, the *Devonshire colic;* from its victims, the *plumbers'* and the *painters' colic;* from its symptoms, the *dry belly-ache*, the *nervous* and *spasmodic colic.* It has been attributed to the poison of lead, and this is undoubtedly the cause, when it occurs to glaziers, painters, and those employed in lead works; but, though this is one, it is by no means the only cause. In Devonshire, it certainly more often arises from the early cider, made of harsh, unripe fruit, and in the West Indies from new rum. The characteristics of this disease are, obstinate costiveness, with a vomiting of an acrid or porraceous bile, pains about the region of the navel, shooting from thence to each side with excessive violence, strong convulsive spasms in the intestines, and a tendency to a paralysis of the extremities. It is occasioned by long-continued costiveness; by an accumulation of acrid bile; by cold applied either to the extremities, or to the belly itself; by a free use of unripe fruits, and by great irregularity in the mode of living. From its occurring frequently in Devonshire, and other cider countries, it has been supposed to arise from an impregnation of lead received into the stomach; but this seems to be a mistake, as it is a very prevalent disease in the West Indies likewise, where no cider is made, and where there is only a very small quantity of lead in the mills employed to extract the juice from the sugar-canes. One or other of the causes just enumerated may justly be said always to give rise to this species of colic. The dry belly-ache is always attended with some degree of danger, which is in proportion to the violence of the symptoms, and the duration of the disease. Even when it does not prove fatal, it is too apt to terminate in palsy, and to leave behind it contractions of the hands and feet, with an inability in their muscles to perform their office; and in this miserable state of existence, the patient lingers out many wretched years.

Coligny, Gaspard de, admiral of France, born in 1516, at Chatillon-sur-Loin, distinguished himself, under Francis I., in the battle of Cerisoles, and under Henry II., who made him colonel-general of the French infantry, and, in 1552, admiral of France. He was distinguished for valor in battle, for strict discipline, and for his conquests over the Spaniards, in particular for his defence of St. Quentin. When St. Quentin was taken by storm, the admiral was made prisoner. After the death of Henry II, the intrigues of Catharine de' Medici induced him to place himself at the head of the Calvinists against the Guises. He formed so powerful a party, that the Catholic religion in France seemed to be in danger. Condé was more ambitious, enterprising, active; Coligny more considerate, prudent, and more fit to be the leader of a party; equally unfortunate in war with Condé, but skilled in remedying even what appeared irretrievable losses, and more to be feared after a defeat than his enemies after a victory, he was, besides, endowed with virtues, which he practised as far as party spirit and the violence of the times permitted him. The first battle between the Huguenots and Catholics (1562, at Dreux) was lost by the admiral, but he saved his army. When the duke of Guise was murdered at the siege of Orleans, he was accused of being the author of the murder, but he cleared himself by an oath: it was unnecessary, the nobleness of his spirit raising him above suspicion. The civil war recommenced with increased fury, in 1567. Coligny and Condé encountered the constable Montmorency at St. Denis. This indecisive action was followed by the battle of Jarnac (in 1569), which was fatal to the Calvinists. Condé fell, and the whole burden of command devolved on Coligny. He alone sustained his party, and was beaten again at Moncontour, without, however, losing his courage. An advantageous peace seemingly put a stop to this contest (1570). Coligny appeared at court, and was, with his adherents, loaded with favors. Charles IX gave him 100,000 francs, as an indemnification for his injuries, together with a seat in the council. From all sides he was warned not to trust to these caresses. As the admiral was leaving the Louvre, Aug. 22, 1572, his right hand and left arm were wounded by a shot from a window. A certain Maurenel had fired at him from a building belonging to the

monastery of St. Germain l'Auxerrois, according to the plan of Catharine de' Medici, probably with the knowledge of the duke of Guise. Charles testified the deepest sorrow, caused search to be made for the assassin, and said to Coligny, "My father, you have the wounds, but I the pain." This he said at a moment when the massacre of the Protestants was already prepared. The slaughter began on the night of St. Bartholomew's, Aug. 24, 1572. (See *Bartholomew's Day, Saint.*) The duke of Guise hastened with a numerous suite to the house of the admiral. A certain Behme, or Besme, at their head, entered with his drawn sword into the chamber of the old man, who, sitting in an easy chair, said, with a calm mien, to their leader, "Young man, my gray hairs ought to command thy respect; but do as thou pleasest; thou canst shorten my life but a few days;" upon which the wretch pierced him with several stabs, and threw the body out of the window into the court-yard. The corpse was given up for three days to the fury of the people, and finally was hung up by the feet on a gibbet, at Montfaucon. Montmorency, a cousin of Coligny, caused it to be taken down, and had it secretly buried in the chapel of the castle of Chantilly. An Italian carried the head to Catharine, who ordered it to be embalmed and sent to Rome.

Colin, also Collin; a town in Bohemia, with 4400 inhabitants, 11 leagues from Prague, famous on account of the battle which Frederic the Great lost here, June 18, 1757, the first which he lost in the seven years' war. Colin is also known for the precious stones found there.

Coliseum; a gigantic ruin in Rome. This building, which was 1612 feet in circumference, and contained 80 arcades, was the greatest amphitheatre which Roman magnificence ever erected. It was built by Vespasian, and is said to have been erected in one year by the compulsory labor of 12,000 Jews and Christians. Authors rank it above the pyramids of Egypt, and other wonderful works of the ancient world. It is said to have held about 110,000 spectators, of whom above 90,000 were seated. For the greater part, it consists of *travertino*, and has three rows of columns, one above the other; the lowest is the Doric, the second, the Ionic, and the highest, of the Corinthian order. Down to the 13th century, this monument of ancient grandeur remained almost uninjured; afterwards pope Paul II took all the stones from it which were used for the construction of the palace of St. Mark, and, in later times, some other palaces were erected from its fragments. At present, care is taken not to touch the ruins of the Coliseum, but it is gradually crumbling away of itself, and in a few centuries, perhaps, nothing more may be seen of its upper part; the lower part, however, will last for ever. The enclosures in which the wild animals were kept are still standing, and remind us of the times when their builders were devoured by the beasts, to gratify the savage taste of the people. Benedict XIV caused a cross to be erected in the centre of the arena, where, every Sunday afternoon, Catholic worship is performed. A hermit resides in these vast ruins. The Coliseum received its name from the colossal statue of Nero, which was placed in it. There is in Rome a model of the Coliseum, as it was when complete, on a pretty large scale. The traveller, after having viewed this immense building by day light, should return to gaze again by the light of the moon, when its grandeur is really amazing.—Very recently, an enormous structure, called *Coliseum*, has been erected in Regent's park, London, chiefly by a Mr. Horner. It is divided into three parts—the panorama, or grand view of London, of which many points of view are afforded by the ascent of a winding staircase (for people who do not want the trouble of walking up, an ascending room is provided); the suites of rooms for subscribers, and the conservatory with greenhouses and fairy creations. The whole shows great ingenuity, applied to objects of comparatively little importance.

Collateral Relations (*collaterales*); descendants of brothers or sisters, or the brothers or sisters of the ascending lines. In politics, collateral lines have often played an important part; and great jealousies have frequently existed between the collateral lines of a ruling family.

Collation is the comparison of manuscripts, in order to ascertain the true reading of an author. This is often a very important operation, as manuscripts were frequently made by people who did not understand what they wrote, or wrote very carelessly. Among the moderns, the Germans have done most in collation; for instance, Emanuel Bekker, of Berlin, for Plato; Niebuhr and Bluhme, for various authors in the libraries of Italy; G. H. Pertz, in regard to manuscripts relating to the early history of Germany, in the Italian and German libraries.

Collé, Charles; a dramatic poet, born

in 1709, at Paris. His early connexion with Haguenier, Gallet and Pannard, writers of Anacreontic songs and *vaudevilles*, instilled into him the same inclination for pleasure, the same gay philosophy. Dramatic poetry he loved from his earliest youth. Some of his pieces are still found in the *Répertoire du Théâtre Français*. He paints freely, nay, boldly, the manners of his time. He died in 1783. In 1807 appeared his posthumous work, *Journal Historique*, giving an account of interesting events in the history of literature from 1748 to 1772, in 3 vols.

College (Latin, *collegium*); in its primary sense, a collection or assembly. In a general sense, a collection or society of men invested with certain powers and rights, performing certain duties, or engaged in some common employment or pursuit. Among the Romans, three were required to make a college (*tres faciunt collegium*).—In a particular sense, *college* signifies an assembly for a political or ecclesiastical purpose. There were several such at Rome, e. g., *collegium pontificum, augurum, septemvirorum*, &c. In modern times, we have the college of electors, or their deputies, at the diet of Ratisbon; so, also, the college of princes or their deputies, the college of cities or deputies of the imperial cities, the college of cardinals, or sacred college. In Russia, this denomination is given to councils of state, courts or assemblies intrusted with the administration of the government, and called *imperial colleges*.—In Great Britain and the U. States, a society of physicians is called a *college*. So, also, there are colleges of surgeons, a college of philosophy, a college of heralds, &c. Colleges of these kinds are usually incorporated or established by the supreme power of the state. This name is also given to a society of persons engaged in the pursuits of literature, including the officers and students. The English literary colleges are academical establishments, endowed with revenues, whose fellows, students and tutors live together under a head, in particular buildings, in a monastic way. The buildings form quadrangles connected with gardens and grounds. The more ancient establishments, formerly monasteries, derive their origin from the 13th and 14th centuries. The college of Christ-church (Oxford) was founded in the time of Henry VIII, by cardinal Wolsey. The colleges are distinguished for their old Gothic architecture, and for collections in different branches of science and of art. They are also admired for their fine paintings on glass. The president of such a college (master, warden, rector) forms, with the other members of the government, the teachers and students, a corporation independent of the other colleges, as well as of the university. Graduates, maintained by the endowments of particular founders, are called *fellows* (in Latin, *socii*). There are other classes also supported in part by the funds of the colleges, and called *post-masters* and *scholars*, *exhibitioners* or *stipendiaries* and *servitors* (young men who wait on the others at table, and have board and instruction gratis during four years). Many colleges have also chaplains, choristers, clerks or sextons, and a great number of servants. The president and the officers administer the college according to the statutes of the foundation. The visitor, who is a bishop or lord, named by the founder, decides in contested cases. The under-graduates are subjected to a severe discipline. They are obliged to go every day to the chapel, and are not allowed to sleep out of the college. Whoever wishes for a degree, must be presented to the university, as a candidate, by a dean. The fellows at the universities keep their fellowships for life, unless they marry or inherit estates which afford a greater revenue. They are successively promoted, so that their income amounts to from £30 to £150, and more, annually. From them the parishes are supplied, in which case they commonly lose their fellowships. Oxford has 19 colleges, and 6 halls, or mere boarding-places, which have no funds, and consequently no fellows, where every student lives at his own expense. (The dining-rooms of the colleges are also called *halls*.) In Cambridge, there are 12 colleges and 4 halls, which are all provided with funds. Most of the colleges in Oxford and Cambridge have, besides their dependent members, that is, those who are supported from the college funds, independent ones, who live at their own expense, but are subjected to most of the college laws: they are called, according to their rank and the sum they pay for board, *noblemen*, *fellow-commoners* and *commoners*. The school at Eton has also a college, consisting of a provost, 7 fellows and 70 boys, who are called *collegers*. The fellows of Eton have a right to marry, and to hold a living besides their fellowship. They are also considered as dignitaries of the church. They and the provost are the directors of the whole, manage the property of the college, fill the livings and fellowships connected with the institution, and choose

the teachers. Of the collegers in Eton, the best scholar in the highest class is admitted into the first vacant place of King's college at Cambridge as a scholar, and then becomes, in three years, a fellow, i. e., is provided for during life. (See Ackermann's *History of the Colleges of Winchester, Eton, Westminster*, &c., London, 1817, and his *History of Westminster Abbey, and of the Colleges of Oxford and Cambridge*, with copperplates.) Classical literature is the chief object of instruction; hence the general knowledge which, in England, men of the highest rank and of the greatest wealth possess of Grecian and Roman literature, exhibited in the frequent quotations from the classics, in parliament, which, in any other country, would appear somewhat pedantic. The lectures on scientific subjects are meager, compared with those of the continental universities, and afford scarcely the necessary hints for private study. The colleges are less institutions for education than learned republics with an orderly gradation of classes, of which one influences the other, and which are intimately connected with the spirit of the nation. (See *Universities*.) The English universities exercise no small influence upon the ecclesiastical and political establishments of that country, and have certainly contributed much to the national disposition for adhering steadily, and sometimes obstinately, to ancient establishments, customs and views. The old universities, therefore, have been thought, by a large number of enlightened and liberal men, not to answer the demands of the age. To meet these demands, they have established the London university. (q. v.) This again, on the same principle on which the Protestant reformation led to many salutary reforms among the Catholics, induced another party (the churchmen) to establish in the English metropolis the King's college. (q. v.)

In France, there are royal colleges in all large towns, corresponding to what are called, in Germany, *gymnasia*. In the small towns, the colleges are called *collèges communaux*. These are private establishments, aided by the commune, and subject to the *surveillance* of the public authorities. In Paris, there are five royal colleges—*collège royal de Louis-le-Grand, col. roy. de Henry IV, col. roy. de St. Louis, col. roy. de Bourbon, col. roy. de Charlemagne*. Besides these, there is the *collège royal de France*, which deserves the name of a university. It was instituted in 1529, by Francis I, at the solicitation of Budæus. (q. v.) Louis XVIII established in this college a chair of Tartar-Mantchou and Chinese languages, and one of the Sanscrit. 21 professors, among whom there are always some of the most distinguished men, lecture in this college, publicly and gratuitously. Their lectures embrace, besides the branches of science generally taught in universities, the Turkish, Persian, Arabic, Chaldaic, Syriac, Chinese, Sanscrit and Tartar-Mantchou languages.

American Colleges. The course of instruction in all the American colleges is completed in four years. Certain qualifications are demanded of candidates for admission, which vary, according to the regulations of the different colleges. These embrace, for admission to the principal colleges, a good knowledge of English grammar, arithmetic, some acquaintance with geography, an ability to read the easier Latin authors, and some progress in the study of Greek. The rules of each college name the authors which the candidate shall have read, and in these he is required to undergo a satisfactory examination, to entitle him to admission. The greatest number of pupils are admitted at about the age of 14 years. The course of instruction varies, in many respects, in the different colleges, but in its principal features, it is the same in all. This course embraces a further study of the Latin and Greek languages, mathematics, natural philosophy, rhetoric, and practice in English composition, moral and intellectual philosophy, and some treatise of natural law and the law of nations. In some colleges, provision is made for the study of Hebrew and of several modern languages; but these are not among the required studies. Some of the colleges have additional departments for instruction in medicine, theology or law. Harvard university embraces all three of these departments, in which students are prepared for entering on these several professions. The number of professors and teachers in the several colleges varies according to the number of pupils and the funds of the college. In Harvard college, there are in the academical departments eight professors and six tutors and other teachers; in the theological school, two professors, in addition to the professors in the other departments, who assist in the instructions of this school; in the law school, two professors, and in the medical school, four. In Yale college, there are five professors and six tutors, besides the professors of the theological and medical schools. In most of the colleges, the offi-

cers of instruction are a president, from two to four permanent professors, and from two to four tutors—the tutors being generally young men who devote two or three years to this service before entering on the practice of the professions to which they are destined. From the following list, it will be seen how many colleges in the U. States were founded during the last ten years; and for others charters have already been granted by the legislatures, as for the Randolph Macon college, at Boydton, in Virginia. The cause of this increase is undoubtedly laudable, as it is the same which prompts every man in the U. States to acquire knowledge; but it ought not to be forgotten, that colleges differ entirely from common schools. The latter may be multiplied, and there can hardly be too many of them; but for colleges, the only way to make them truly great is to concentrate in a few, great stores of talent and erudition. In the universities of Europe, donation has been added to donation, until many of them have attained great magnificence.

Table containing the proper Title of each College; the Place where it is situated; the Time when founded; the Number of Academic Instructers; the Number of Graduates in 1828; the Number of Under-graduates in 1828—9; the Number of Volumes in the College Libraries, and in the Social Libraries belonging to the Students.

Name.	Place.	When founded.	No. of academic Inst'rs.	Graduates in 1828.	Under-graduates 1828—9.	Volumes in College Libraries.	Volumes in Stud'ts. Libraries.
Waterville,	Waterville, Maine.	1820	5	12		1700	500
Bowdoin,	Brunswick, Maine.	1794	7	20	107	8000	4300
Dartmouth,	Hanover, N. H.	1769	8	41	128	3500	8000
Middlebury,	Middlebury, Vt.	1800	5	18	81	1646	2322
Vermont University,	Burlington, Vt.	1791	5	4	33	1500	1000
Williams,	Williamstown, Mass.	1793	7	18	92	2100	1660
Amherst,	Amherst, Mass.	1821	9	40	211	2300	3140
Harvard University,	Cambridge, Mass.	1638	15	52	254	30000	4600
Brown University,	Providence, R. I.	1764	6	25	98	6000	5750
Washington,	Hartford, Conn.	1826	9	15	74	5000	1200
Yale,	New Haven, Conn.	1700	16	82	324	8500	6500
Columbia,	New York city.	1754	8				
Union,	Schenectady, N. Y.	1794	9	69	223	5000	8000
Hamilton,	Clinton, N. Y.	1812		14			
Geneva,	Geneva, N. Y.	1825	5	3	20	390	580
Rutgers,	New Brunswick, N. J.	1770	6	20	63		
Nassau Hall,	Princeton, N. J.	1746		26	43	8000	4000
University of Pennsylvania,	Philadelphia, Penn.	1755	5	11	50		
Jefferson,	Canonsburg, Penn.	1802	4	28	99	600	1700
Dickinson,	Carlisle, Penn.	1783	6	22	62	2000	5000
Washington,	Washington, Penn.	1806	3	8	31	400	525
Western University,	Pittsburg, Penn.	1820	4	9	41	400	525
Madison,							
Alleghany,	Meadville, Penn.	1815	2		12	7000	
St. Mary's,	Baltimore, Md.	1805	13			10000	
Columbia,	Washington, D. C.	1821	6		60	3000	1000
University of Virginia,	Charlottesville, Va.	1814	8		131	8000	
Hampden Sidney,	Prince Edward Co. Va.						
William and Mary,	Williamsburg, Va.	1691	7	3	103	3400	600
Washington,	Lexington, Va.	1812		17	23	700	1500
University of North Carolina,	Chapel Hill, N. C.	1791	9	13	54		
University of South Carolina,	Columbia, S. C.	1802					
Charleston,	Charleston, S. C.	1785	8	6	42	1000	
Univ. Geo., or Franklin Coll.	Athens, Geo.	1785	6	28	105	2000	1820
University of Nashville,	Nashville, Tenn.	1806	7	16	54		
East Tennessee,	Knoxville, Tenn.		2	3	21	340	200
Augusta,	Augusta, Ky.	1822			82	1500	400
Greenville College,	Greenville, Tenn.	1794			22	3500	
University of Ohio,	Athens, Ohio.	1802	4	10	60	1842	908
Miami University,	Oxford, Ohio.	1824	3	9	45		
* Transylvania University,	Lexington, Ky.				50		
Western Reserve College,	Hudson, Ohio.	1828			30		
Bloomington College,	Bloomington, Ind.	1828					
			217	642	2928	129318	65730

For more particulars, see the places where the colleges are established.

* The catalogue of the officers and students in the various departments of Transylvania University, for the year 1830, exhibits a total of 362.—*Nat. Gazette.*

COLLEGE, ELECTORAL. (See *Election.*)

COLLEGE OF CIVILIANS; commonly called *Doctor's Commons*, founded by doctor Harvey, dean of the arches, for the professors of the civil law residing in the city of London. The judges of the arches, admiralty, and prerogative courts, with several other eminent civilians, commonly reside here. To this college belong 34 proctors, who make themselves parties for their clients, manage their causes, give licenses for marriages, &c. In the common hall of Doctor's Commons are held several courts, under the jurisdiction of the civil law, particularly the high court of admiralty, the court of delegates, the arches court of Canterbury, and the prerogative court of Canterbury, whose terms for sitting are much like those at Westminster, every one of them holding several court-days, most of them fixed and known by preceding holydays, and the rest appointed at the judge's pleasure.

COLLEGIAL SYSTEM, in ecclesiastical law (see *Church*). In politics, it is opposed to *bureaucracy* (see *Bureau*), and signifies that system of government in which the members of each department of government have all a voice in the decision of measures, so that each branch of government is carried on by a *collegium*, not by a single president. This system has both great advantages and disadvantages.

COLLEGIANTS. (See *Rheinberghers.*)

COLLIFLOWER. (See *Cabbage.*)

COLLIN, Henry Joseph von, born at Vienna in 1772, was the son of a physician. He rose, by degrees, to an important place in the financial department of the Austrian government. He sacrificed his feeble health, and even his favorite inclination for poetry, to the duties of his office, in which he labored with an assiduity that at length put an end to his life. He died of a nervous fever in 1811. Having laid a wager with a friend to write a tragedy within six weeks, he produced his first drama, *Regulus*, the plan of which he had arranged before. It was followed by *Coriolanus*, *Polyxena*, *Balbea*, *Bianca della Porta*, *Mæon*, and *Die Horatier und Curiatier*. A selection of his smaller poems appeared in Vienna, after his death, with fragments of his epic poem *Rudolf von Habsburg*. His works are characterized by a spirit nourished on the ancient classics, and by a vigorous simplicity. They are sometimes, however, rather frigid and stiff. They are not very finished productions. A complete edition appeared in Vienna, 1814, 6 vols.

COLLIN, Mattheus von, brother of the preceding, in 1808, became professor of æsthetics and philosophy at Cracow. In 1815, he was appointed tutor of the duke of Reichstadt (son of Napoleon). He died in 1824. As a dramatic poet, he ranks below his brother. In 1813, he was editor of the Literary Gazette of Vienna, and, in 1818, of the Vienna Annals of Literature (*Wiener Jahrbücher der Literatur*).

COLLIN D'HARLEVILLE, Jean François, born 1750, at Maintenon, near Chartres, abandoned the profession of the law, and enriched the French stage with character-pieces, as *L'Inconstant*, *L'Optimiste*, *Les Châteaux en Espagne*, *Monsieur de Crac dans son petit Castel*, *Les Artistes*. In his earliest pieces, he wrote by rule, but subsequently followed the bent of his own genius. In his best piece, the *Vieux Célibataire*, he returned, however, to the established principles of the French theatre. In general, his comedies are blamed as deficient in humor, and his comic characters as wanting in individual traits. In his allegorical poem, *Melpomène et Thalie*, we find natural ease combined with sentimental philosophy, but often prosaic verses. He died in 1806.

COLLINGWOOD, Cuthbert, first baron; a native of Newcastle-upon-Tyne, born in 1748, and educated at the same school with lord-chancellor Eldon, under Mr. Moises. He entered the royal navy in 1761, and, in the action of June 1, 1794, was flag-captain on board the Prince, commanded by admiral Bowyer. In 1797, he commanded the Excellent during the battle of cape St. Vincent, on the 14th of February in that year, and having, in 1799, been made rear-admiral of the white, was promoted, in 1801, to the red. In 1804, being then vice-admiral of the blue, he assisted in the blockade of Brest harbor; but his most distinguished service was the part he bore in the great victory of Trafalgar, in which his gallant manner of bringing his ship into action, and the skill and resolution with which he fought her, excited the personal admiration of Nelson himself, upon whose lamented fall, the command of the fleet devolved upon him as the senior officer. In this critical situation, admiral Collingwood evinced a degree of promptitude and nautical skill, combined with prudence, which tended much to the preservation of the captured vessels, and proved his judgment as a commander to be not inferior to his courage. For his valuable services on this and other occasions, he was promoted to be vice-admiral of the red, continued in

his command of the fleet, and elevated to a barony. His death took place while cruising off Minorca, in the Ville de Paris, on the 7th of March, 1810. His remains were carried to England, and deposited in St. Paul's, near those of his friend Nelson. Collingwood appears to have been a model of a naval officer. He was distinguished for zeal, courage, humanity, circumspection, and strictness of discipline. Though hardly any man had more experience in the government of sailors, he was an enemy to flogging. His letters to his children are full of excellent sentiments and judicious advice. Every young naval officer should be familiar with the Public and Private Correspondence of the Vice-Admiral Collingwood, with Memoirs of his Life (8vo., 3d edition, London, 1828).

Collins, William, a distinguished poet, was born in 1720 or 1721, at Chichester, where his father was a hatter. He was educated at Winchester school and at Oxford. While at college, he wrote his Oriental Eclogues, which were printed in 1742. Their success was moderate, and, in 1744, the author went to London as a literary adventurer. In 1746, he gave his Odes, Descriptive and Allegorical, to the public; but the sale did not pay for the printing, and the indignant and sensitive poet burnt all the unsold copies. Yet among these odes were many pieces which at present rank with the finest lyrics in the language. Pecuniary distress followed this disappointment; and, aided by the advance of a few guineas from the booksellers for an intended translation of the Poetics of Aristotle, he was enabled to escape into the country, whence he found means to pay a visit to his uncle, colonel Martin, then with the British army in Germany. The death of this relation, who bequeathed him a legacy of £2000, raised him to comparative affluence; and he immediately returned the booksellers their advance, being reduced, by nervous debility, to an utter incapability of any species of mental exertion. Originally too laxly strung, disappointment, distress and irregularity had completely disarranged his nervous system. Dreadful depression of spirits followed, for which he had no better remedy than the fatal one of the bottle. Although he did not suffer from absolute alienation of mind, it was thought best to confine him in a lunatic asylum; but, finally, he was consigned to the care of a sister, in whose arms he terminated his brief and melancholy career, in 1756. Collins, by his taste and attainments, appears to have been peculiarly adapted for the higher walks of poetry. His odes, from which he derives his chief poetical fame, notwithstanding the disparaging remarks of doctor Johnson, are now almost universally regarded as the first productions of the kind in the English language for vigor of conception, boldness and variety of personification, and genuine warmth of feeling. The originality of Collins consists, not in his sentiment, but in the highly figurative garb in which he clothes abstract ideas, in the felicity of his expressions, and in his skill in embodying ideal creations. His chief defect is an occasional mysticism. His temperament was, in the strictest meaning of the word, poetical; and had he existed under happier circumstances, and enjoyed the undisturbed exercise of his faculties, he would probably have surpassed most, if not all, of his contemporaries, during the very prosaic period which immediately followed the death of Pope.

Colloredo; one of the most illustrious families in Austria, originally from *Friuli*. The members of one branch, Colloredo Mansfeld, have been since 1763 princes of the empire. To the family of Colloredo belong, 1. Fabricius, born 1576, who was sent as ambassador by Cosmo II, of Medici, to the emperor Rodolph II; 2. Rodolph, count Waldsee, field-marshal of the imperial armies, distinguished in the thirty years' war, particularly at Lützen, and, in 1648, by the defence of Prague; 3. Jerome, born 1775, master-general of the ordnance, commanded in 1813 the first division of the army at Culm (q. v.), died in 1822, while commander-in-chief in Bohemia.

Collot d'Herbois, Jean Marie, an actor without talents, and a member of the infamous municipality of Paris, Aug. 10 and Sept. 2, 1792, and afterwards of the national convention, was banished, after the fall of Robespierre, to Cayenne, where he died in 1796. He proposed in the first session of the national convention to abolish royalty, and to declare the government a republic. In Lyons, he introduced the shooting *en masse*, when the guillotines, though, according to the technical expression, *en permanence*, were found no longer sufficient.

Colman, George; a dramatic writer and elegant scholar of the last century; born at Florence, in 1733; his father being at that time British envoy to the grand duke's court. From Westminster school he was removed, at the usual age, to Christ church, Oxford, where he was graduated, as mas-

ter of arts, in 1758, having previously, in conjunction with his friend Bonnel Thornton, published a series of essays after the manner of the Spectator, under the title of *The Connoisseur*. This lively work, which came out weekly, was continued from Jan. 1, 1754, till towards the close of the year 1756, and tended much to establish his reputation, and procure him the friendship of most of the acknowledged wits of the day. At the desire of his relation, lord Bath, he turned his thoughts to the law, entered himself of Lincoln's Inn, and even went so far as to be called to the bar; but his genius soon turned to the more congenial study of the belles-lettres. His poetical vein had some time previously displayed itself in various occasional pieces; but his first dramatic attempt was made in the year 1760, when his Polly Honeycombe was brought out, with great temporary success, at Drury lane. The year following, he produced the well-known comedy of the Jealous Wife, which not only excited great attention at the time, but, as well as his Clandestine Marriage, has remained an established favorite ever since. The English Merchant, the Oxonian in Town, and a long list of other pieces of less note, but not deficient in merit, followed in succession, in the composition of some of which he was assisted by his friend Garrick. In 1764, his pecuniary resources were much increased by a handsome annuity bequeathed him by lord Bath; and an addition to his fortune, which he acquired three years after, by the decease of general Pulteney, enabled him, the following summer, to purchase Mr. Beard's share in Covent-garden theatre. Owing, however, to variances with his partners in the concern, he was induced to dispose of his portion of the property almost as soon as he had acquired it; and to purchase, in lieu of it, the little theatre in the Haymarket, which he bought of Foote for an annuity, and continued in the personal superintendence of it till the year 1790, when a paralytic attack not only deprived him of the use of one side, but entirely plunged his faculties into a hopeless state of derangement. He nevertheless lingered on, in a lunatic asylum at Paddington, till 1794, in which year his decease took place. Besides the writings already enumerated, and a large variety of others of the same class, his classical attainments, and the purity of his taste, are evinced by his elegant and spirited translation of Horace's Art of Poetry, published in 1783, and of the Comedies of Terence; to the former of which is prefixed an ingenious Commentary, which places his acumen as a critic in a very respectable point of view.

Cologne (in German, *Köln*); formerly a free city of the empire, and seat of the electoral chapter of Cologne. The archbishop of Cologne was formerly a sovereign prince, and one of the most important members of the German empire. He resided at Bonn. Cologne is now the capital of the Prussian district Cologne, in the province of Cleves-Berg, the seat of an archbishop, a high-president, the government, and the court of appeal for the Rhenish provinces, a tribunal of the first instance, and many public institutions. It is one of the largest and oldest German cities on the left bank of the Rhine. It is a league in length, in the form of a semicircle, and was built by Agrippina, the wife of the emperor Claudius. The streets are narrow, dirty and lonely. With the decline of the Hanseatic league, to which it belonged, this city lost its riches, and, under the French government, its opulent clergy, and beautiful works of art. The great ware-houses are still standing as monuments of the past, but only a small number of the new buildings are distinguished for beauty. The handsomest public places are, the new market with its lime-trees, the hay market, and the old market. Cologne has 20 churches, 5 monasteries, 7060 houses, and upwards of 54,000 inhabitants, besides the garrison. One of the noblest works of Gothic architecture is the unfinished cathedral, in the form of a cross, 400 feet long, and 180 wide. It was in the course of erection from the year 1248 until the reformation. Only the choir, 200 feet high, with the chapel around it, is completed. The nave is supported by 100 columns, of which the middle ones are 40 feet in circumference; but it has only two thirds of its intended height, and is covered with a wooden roof. Each of the towers was designed to be 500 feet high; 250 feet of one is finished, and only 21 of the other. Behind the high altar is the chapel of the Magi, built of marble, in the Ionic style. In a magnificent box are deposited a few relics. On the left side of the choir is the golden chamber, with the treasury of the cathedral; but it no longer enjoys its ancient riches. Respecting the original plan of the church, which has been discovered, see George Müller's *Beschreibung* (Description), with 9 engravings, large folio, and 26 pages of text (1818), and Boisserée's work, *Ueber den Dom zu Köln* (On the

Cathedral of Cologne), with engravings (1824). The church of St. Gereon has a lofty dome and three galleries. The church of St. Cunibert has an altar like the famous altar of St. Peter's church in Rome. The church of St. Peter has an admirable painting, by Rubens, of the martyrdom of the apostle Peter. In the religious establishment of St. Ursula, for noble ladies, the visitor sees, he is assured, the relics of the 11,000 virgins. These are arranged on shelves, and make a formidable appearance. The town-house in Cologne has a splendid portico, adorned with two rows of marble columns. The Jesuits' library, though it has been deprived of many works, still contains 60,000 volumes. Many paintings in the monasteries and churches were carried off or destroyed by the French. (See *Boisserée.*) The city, however, still contains some beautiful collections of works of art. It is favorably situated for trade, forming an intermediate point between Germany and Holland, and its commerce, particularly in Rhenish wine, or hock, is very considerable. The trade in cloth, linen, lace, cotton and silk, tobacco and earthen ware is still important; likewise, the distillation of Cologne water, or *eau de Cologne*, of which several million bottles are exported every year. There are 15 manufactories of it, and the traffic has been constantly increasing since the seven years' war. The bottles are made in Stollberg, three leagues from Aix. As a great city, where magazines can be conveniently established, and military provisions obtained, as a convenient place for crossing the Rhine, as an intermediate point between Wesel and Coblentz, as a point of meeting of many roads, and as constituting a part of the basis (q. v.), from which must proceed the operations of the German armies against the Netherlands and France, Cologne is of great military importance. The fortifications were restored in 1815. They are strengthened by a chain of casemated towers, which contain several stories, and each a few cannon. These are placed at some distance from the city, as separate and detached works. Cologne has thus become a strong place, though not, indeed, so important a fortress as Coblentz. The small city of Deutz, on the right bank of the Rhine, opposite Cologne, is fortified, and thus completes the double *tête-de-pont.* In former times, Cologne was a very powerful city, and its university famous. The merchants of Cologne, who settled in London under Elizabeth's reign, gave a great impulse to the English commerce. The old Chronicle of Cologne, written in low German, is a highly interesting work. The *eau de Cologne* is famous throughout Europe and America, though only a small part of what is sold under this name is genuine. One of the best ways of distinguishing the genuine from the spurious is, to rub a few drops on the hand, when the good *eau de Cologne* must neither smell of any spirituous liquor, nor of musk, nor any foreign substance, but only of the ethereal odor proper to the water.

Colombia, the republic of, in South America, is comprised between lat. 12° 30′ N., and 6° S.; and between lon. 58° and 82° W.; extending over a surface of 1,100,000 square miles. It is bounded on the north by the Caribbean sea, east by Guiana and Brazil, south by Brazil and Peru, and west by the Pacific ocean; on the north-west, it borders on the republic of Central America. The face of the country is remarkable: the western part contains the loftiest ridges of the Andes (q. v.), while the eastern stretches out into immense plains, intersected by gigantic rivers. Towards the southern part (Quito) are found the celebrated summits of Chimborazo, Antisana, Pichincha, Cotopaxi, Colocache, &c. In this Thibet of the new world, in the valleys of the Andes, raised 10,000 feet above the surface of the ocean, the population of that part of the country is concentrated. Farther north, the height of the mountains is less, and in New Grenada, the Cordillera is divided into three parallel chains, of which only the two lateral ones are of great elevation. Besides the Andes, the principal chain is that of Caracas, running along the north coast, with summits of from 12,000 to 14,000 feet high. The principal lake is lake Maracaibo in Venezuela; the imaginary lake Parima has disappeared from the maps. The most important rivers of Colombia are the Magdalena, the Amazon (q. v.), and the Orinoco (q. v.). The Amazon receives all the streams on the eastern declivity of the Andes, south of lat. 3° N. North of that point, they flow into the Orinoco. The immense plains in the east, stretching from Merida to Guiana, and from the chain of the Caracas to the Amazon, are partly inundated and fertilized by the waters of the Orinoco, and partly composed of bare deserts called *llanos.* (q. v.) The climate, in a country of such extent, and of so remarkable a diversity of elevation, must differ exceedingly. In Venezuela, the year is completely divided by the rainy and the dry

season, the former commencing in November, and ending in April. New Grenada comprehends a remarkable variety of climate: temperate, even cold and frosty, but healthy on the elevated table lands, the air is burning and pestilential on the sea-shore, and in some of the deep valleys of the interior. At Carthagena and Guayaquil, the yellow fever is endemic. (See *New Grenada*, *Venezuela* and *Quito*.) Among the productions of the vegetable kingdom we mention cacao, Peruvian bark, coffee and indigo, sugar, cotton and tobacco. Gold, platina, silver, cinnabar, are among the mineral riches of the republic. The principal articles of export are cacao, indigo, tobacco, coffee, hides and cattle. The imports are manufactured goods of almost every description. The contraband trade has been carried on to such an extent by the foreign colonies in the neighborhood, that it is impossible, from the custom-house returns, to form any estimate of the real value of the imports or exports. The Dutch in Curaçoa have been engaged in this trade for nearly two centuries, and the English have recently prosecuted it very extensively from Trinidad, Jamaica and Guiana; and such are the facilities afforded by the vicinity of these colonies, the extent of coast, and the navigation of the Orinoco, that it will be very difficult to suppress it. In 1825, the exports from La Guayra and Porto Cabello amounted to $1,885,257, of which more than two thirds were to the United States; the imports, during the same period, amounted to $3,428,042. M. Mollien (*Voyage dans la Rép. de Colombia*, Paris, 1823) estimates the total amount of exports at $8,000,000, and the imports at $10,000,000. The ports of La Guayra, Rio del Hacha, Santa Martha, Carthagena, Chagres, Porto Cabello, Panama and Guayaquil are the most frequented by foreigners. Various plans have been proposed for connecting the two oceans by canals. The small river Chagre, which falls into the Caribbean sea a little west of Porto Bello, is navigable to Cruces, five leagues from Panama. The elevation of the country between Cruces and Panama has never been accurately ascertained, but, it is supposed, would interpose no obstacle to a canal for boats, though it might be wholly impossible to construct one for large vessels. A branch of the Rio Atrato, which falls into the gulf of Darien, approaches within 5 or 6 leagues of the Pacific ocean, and the intervening country is quite level, and proper for a canal. Another branch of the Rio Atrato approaches so near to a small river which falls into the Pacific, that a small canal has actually been dug between them, by means of which, when the rains are abundant, canoes loaded with cacao pass from sea to sea. By means of the Orinoco and its tributary streams, all the country south of the chain of Venezuela enjoys an easy communication with the sea. This river forms a natural channel for the conveyance to the ocean of the cattle and produce raised on the banks of the Apure, and its wide-spreading branches. By means of the Meta, also, a navigable communication is opened almost to the very foot of the Andes. The flour, and other productions of an extensive district near Bogotá, are conveyed to market by the Orinoco, in preference to the Magdalena. The republic is composed of the three colonial governments of Quito, New Grenada and Venezuela, and, by the law of June 23, 1824, is subdivided into twelve departments, namely,

1. The Isthmus,	7. Cundinamarca,
2. Magdalena,	8. Boyaca,
3. Zulia,	9. Apure,
4. Venezuela,	10. The Equator,
5. Orinoco,	11. Guayaquil,
6. Cauca,	12. Asuay.

These are composed of 49 provinces, which are again subdivided into 218 cantons, and each canton into municipalities. The population may be estimated at about 2,711,000. It is composed of whites, Indians, mestizoes, Negroes and mulattoes; one half being of the mixed races, one quarter creoles, one eighth Indians, and the remainder, Negroes and Europeans. Travellers have observed that beauty, vigor and courage are more common in the mixed races. The creoles or whites, as they are called, have in general some Indian or black blood in their veins. Those on the sea-coast have the Spanish features, but little beard; those of the more elevated regions resemble the inhabitants of the north of Europe, but they commonly have the black, stiff hair of the Indians. The goitre is very common in some parts of Colombia; the pure Indians and Negroes, however, are not afflicted with it. The Negroes are found principally in the maritime parts of the country. The new government has decreed that from the year 1860 all slavery shall cease in the republic. The principal towns besides those already mentioned are, Bogotá (the capital), Caracas, St. Thomas, Quito, Popayan, Cuença, Riobambo, Otobalo, Merida, Cumana, Maracaibo, Barcelona, Guanare and Truxillo. All the Indians

have been declared free since the revolution. Many of the Indian tribes have been brought into subjection to the whites, and have become partially civilized by the labors of the Catholic missionaries. They are allowed to live in villages by themselves, and to be governed by magistrates of their own choice. The principal Indians remaining unsubdued are the Coahiros, who are about 30,000 in number, and occupy a tract along the coast to the west of the gulf of Maracaibo. They often make inroads upon the neighboring settlements. The Guaraunos, who inhabit the islands formed by the mouths of the Orinoco, are about 8000 in number. The Caribs occupy the coast of Spanish Guiana, between the mouths of the Essequibo and the Orinoco. Besides these tribes, all the country on the Orinoco above the cataracts of Atures, and indeed all the immense tract between the sources of the Orinoco and those of the Amazon, are inhabited by nations of savages, who have hitherto resisted all the efforts of the Spaniards to civilize or subdue them. The Catholic religion has been declared the established religion of the state; but all others are tolerated. The establishment is composed of 2 archbishops and 10 bishops: the clergy are rich and powerful; some of them distinguished themselves in the revolution by their democratic principles. Colombia has four universities—at Quito, Bogotá, Caracas and Merida; that of Bogotá is merely a theological seminary; the three others are intended for students in the other branches. Provision has also been made for the establishment of primary schools, high schools and provincial colleges; but the unsettled state of the country allows but little to be effected.

Historical Sketch. The republic of Colombia is of very recent origin, although the history of the three states, by the union of which it has been formed, is coëval with the era of Columbus. Previously to the period of the revolution, they were known by the names of the *vice-royalty of New Grenada*, the *captain-generalship of Caracas*, and the *presidency of Quito*. Of their annals prior to the union, a brief sketch will here be given.

Quito. The provinces of Quito, having formed a component part of the Peruvian empire at the time of the Spanish conquest, continued to depend directly on the government of Peru until Sept. 1564, when they were erected into a separate presidency. In 1717, the government was suppressed, and the country incorporated into the vice-royalty of New Grenada. In 1722, it was again separated, and remained so until it became a part of Colombia. The revolution commenced Aug. 10, 1809, when the president, count Ruiz de Castilla, was deposed, and a *junta soberana* appointed to administer the government. He was reinstated the November following, and a second revolution took place in Sept., 1810. But, in a few months afterwards, the Spaniards, under Montes, regained Quito, and continued to hold the presidency until May, 1822, when the victory of Pichincha, gained by general Sucre, put an end to their power.

New Grenada. The coasts of New Grenada, which border on the Caribbean sea, were first visited by Columbus, during his fourth voyage. Ojeda and Amerigo Vespucci followed Columbus in exploring parts of the coast, and Vespucci gave the first regular description of the people who inhabited its shores. In the year 1508, Ojeda and Nicuessa obtained extensive grants in this and the adjoining country. Ojeda had the country from cape de la Vela to the gulf of Darien, which was to be styled *New Andalusia;* and Nicuessa was appointed to govern from the gulf of Darien to cape Gracias á Dios; the territory included within these points to be named *Golden Castile.* The province of Terra Firma, including both the grants of Nicuessa and Ojeda, was given, by a subsequent charter, in 1514, to Pedro Arias de Avila. Under the orders of Avila, the western coast of Panama, Veragua and Darien was explored as far north as cape Blanco, and the town of Panama was founded. In 1536, Sebastian de Benalcazar, one of the officers who accompanied Pizarro in the expedition to Peru, effected the conquest and colonization of the southern internal provinces of New Grenada; whilst Gonzalo Ximenes de Quesada, who had been sent by Lugo, the admiral of the Canaries, overran the northern districts from Santa Martha. They met with considerable opposition from the natives, but finally succeeded in reducing the country, and the whole was formed into one government, and put under a captain-general, appointed in 1547; to check whose power the royal audience was established, of which he was, however, made president. In the year 1718, New Grenada was formed into a vice-royalty. This form of government continued until 1724, when the captain-generalship was restored; but, in 1740, the vice-royalty was re-established. Under this system, the evils of which were of a very grievous nature, the inhabitants of New Grenada

continued until the invasion of Spain by the French. The desire of independence had long been prevalent; but it was not until 1810, that it began to be publicly avowed. The juntas then chosen were composed of persons generally favorable to independence. A congress from the different provinces or departments of the vice-royalty soon afterwards assembled, and, in 1811, a formal declaration of independence was made. The country has, since that period, passed through many vicissitudes of fortune. The cause of freedom and that of the royalists have been alternately triumphant, and many frightful scenes of rapine and bloodshed have occurred. In 1816, a decisive action was fought between the independents and a Spanish army under Morillo, which ended in the total defeat of the former, and the dispersion of the congress. After remaining under the dominion of the royalists for three years, Grenada was again emancipated by the army of Bolivar, who entered Santa Fé in Aug., 1819. In Dec., 1819, a union was effected with Venezuela into one republic.

Caracas, or *Venezuela*. The coast of this country was originally discovered by Columbus, in 1498, during his third voyage. Several attempts being made to colonize, the Spanish government came to the determination of settling the country under its own direction. These expeditions were managed by priests, and generally ill conducted; and it was found necessary to subdue the inhabitants by force. When this was partially effected, and the Spanish settlers were placed in some security, the proprietorship was sold, by Charles V, to the Weltsers, a German mercantile company. Under their management, the Spaniards and the natives suffered the most grievous tyranny. The abuses of their administration becoming at last intolerable, they were dispossessed, in 1550, and a supreme governor, with the title of *captain-general*, was appointed. From this period until the year 1806, Caracas remained in quiet subjection to the mother country. In 1806, a gallant but unfortunate attempt was made to liberate her from the yoke. General Miranda, a native of Caracas, formed for this purpose an expedition partly at St. Domingo and partly at New York. A landing was effected on the coast, but the force proved wholly inadequate to the designed object. Many were taken prisoners by the Spanish authorities, and several suffered death. The defeat was decisive, and gave an effectual blow, for the time, to the project of independence. In 1810, however, Spain being overrun by the French troops, the opportunity was seized by the principal inhabitants to establish a freer form of government. For this purpose, a *junta suprema*, or congress, was convened in Caracas, consisting of deputies from all the provinces composing the former captain-generalship, with the exception of Maracaibo. At first, they published their acts in the name of Ferdinand VII; but the captain-general and the members of the *audiencia* were deposed and imprisoned, and the new government received the title of the *confederation of Venezuela*. The most violent and impolitic measures were now adopted by the regency and cortes of Spain towards the people of this district. The congress, finding the voice of the people decided in favor of independence, issued a proclamation, on the 5th of July, 1811, formally declaring it. A liberal constitution was established, and affairs wore a favorable aspect for the cause of freedom, until the fatal earthquake of 1812, which, operating on the superstition of the people, led to a great change in the public opinion. Monteverde, a royalist general, taking advantage of the situation of affairs, marched against Caracas, and, after defeating general Miranda, compelled the whole province to submit. In 1813, however, Venezuela was again emancipated by Bolivar, who was sent with an army by the confederation of Grenada. In 1814, he was, in his turn, defeated by Boves, and compelled to evacuate Caracas. In 1816, he again returned with a respectable body of troops, and was again defeated. Undismayed by reverses, he landed again, in December of the same year, convened a general congress, and defeated the royalists in March, 1817, with great loss. In the month following, however, Barcelona was taken by the Spanish troops. The contest was maintained for some time afterwards with various success. Bolivar was invested by the congress with ample powers, the situation of the republic requiring the energy of a dictator. On the 17th of Dec., 1819, a union between the republics of Grenada and Venezuela was solemnly decreed, in conformity with the report of a select committee of deputies from each state. This confederation received the title of the

Republic of Colombia. In conformity with the fundamental law, the installation of the general congress of Colombia took place on the 6th of May, 1821, in the city of Rosario of Cucuta. The first subject considered by this body was the constitu-

tion; and it was finally determined that the two states should form one nation, on the central system, under a popular representative government, divided into legislative, executive and judicial. Bolivar, the president, was, in the mean time, actively engaged in bringing the war to a close. On the 24th of June, 1821, was fought the memorable battle of Carabobo, in which the royalist army was totally defeated, with the loss of their artillery, baggage, and upwards of 6000 men. In the fall of 1822, Bolivar completed, by the capture of Panama, the overthrow of Spanish power in this quarter; the only remaining memorial of which was Porto Cabello, which held out until Dec. 1823. For, by the successes of the troops sent against Quito, the Spaniards had been compelled to surrender their authority in the south. Bolivar defeated Murgeon at Curiaco, in April, 1822, and, in May, Sucre gained the splendid victory of Pichincha, immediately after which the Spanish authorities capitulated. A long course of victory having thus delivered Colombia from the Spaniards, Bolivar marched into Peru, in 1824, at the head of an army of 10,000 men, to effect the liberation of that country. Meanwhile, the acknowledgment of the independence of Colombia, by the U. States, in 1823, and, in successive years since then, by Great Britain and the other governments of Europe, except Spain, gave new activity to her commercial relations. The government was administered, in the absence of Bolivar, by the vice-president, general Francisco de Paula Santander; and from the adoption of the constitution until 1826, the legislative and executive authorities, relieved from anxiety with respect to Spain, strenuously exerted themselves in various domestic improvements. The finances were placed on a more solid footing; public education was carefully fostered; and institutions, adapted to the new order of things, every where arose. To all outward appearance, the republic was rapidly acquiring consistency and stability, when the insurrection of Paez, in Venezuela, produced a fatal change. Paez, being one of the most distinguished officers of the revolution, received the command of the department of Venezuela. In the execution of a law for enrolling the militia in the city of Caracas, he gave so much offence to the inhabitants by his arbitrary conduct, that they obtained an impeachment against him before the senate. Being notified of this, in April, 1826, and summoned to appear and take his trial, he refused obedience to the summons, placed himself at the head of the troops, and became the nucleus of a strong party in ancient Venezuela, which, dissatisfied with the central system, demanded a reform of the government, some desiring that Venezuela should again be separate from New Grenada, others wishing for a federal constitution, like that of the U. States. In consequence of this insurrection, the northeastern departments of the republic remained virtually independent of the rest, until Jan., 1827, when Bolivar returned to Colombia, and succeeded in restoring the national authority, by promising to assemble a convention for the reform of the constitution. Meanwhile, various disorders broke out in other parts of the republic, the departments formed out of New Grenada alone continuing faithful to the constitution. Congress assembled in May, and, in June, passed a decree of general amnesty, and, in August, another decree for convoking a grand convention at Ocaña, for amending the constitution. Bolivar and Santander, having been reëlected president and vice-president, were duly qualified, the latter in May, and the former in Sept., 1827, and affairs remained tranquil until the convention assembled at Ocaña, in March, 1828. The violence of parties, and the disturbed state of the country, prevented the convention from effecting any thing, and it soon separated. These events finally resulted in Bolivar's assuming absolute authority, and, in effect, abolishing the constitution of the republic. Whether he took the step solely in order to terminate the public disorders, or whether he himself, as others allege, created them by his intrigues, in order to afford a plausible pretext for his usurpation, it remains for time to show. What appears on the face of things is, that the various municipalities drew up addresses to him, in which he was requested and invited to assume the supreme command. The earliest of these was the act of the municipality of Bogotá, dated June 13, 1828; and others followed in quick succession from every part of the country. Bolivar was not slow in obeying the call, and organized the new government by appointing a council of ministers and a council of state for its administration, with D. Jose M. de Castillo for president of each council. This usurpation roused the hostility of the republican party, some of whom, unfortunately, conspired to assassinate Bolivar. The attempt was made Sept. 25, 1828, but failed, owing to the bravery of the officers and attendants

about his person, among whom his aid, colonel Furguson, was killed. Generals Padilla and Santander were accused of participating in the plot, and condemned to death by a special tribunal. Padilla was executed under his sentence; but the punishment of Santander was commuted for banishment. The immediate agents in the attempt were apprehended, and suffered the punishment of death. This did not prevent general Ovando from raising the standard of opposition in Popayan, and gathering so large a force as to demand the immediate presence of Bolivar to resist it. At the same time, a declaration of war was issued against Peru, in consequence of difficulties between the two countries, arising out of the attempt of Bolivar to make himself perpetual president of Peru. (q. v.) These events leave Colombia in a disturbed condition, the results of which it is idle to attempt to predict. Peace was made between the two countries in 1829. In October of the same year, general Cordova began an insurrection in Antioquia, which seems to be of little consequence. The troubles in Venezuela appear to be much more important. A strong wish to separate from Colombia seems to exist there. General Paez is much beloved in Venezuela. Whether the society called *amigos del pais*, established by him in Caracas, has any further object than the ostensible one of promoting commerce, science and the arts, time must show. Colombia seems, at the time when we write, to be on the point of experiencing some important change in her political condition. If any such should occur before this volume is completed, it will be noticed at the end of the volume. (See the articles *South America*, *New Grenada*, *Quito*, *Venezuela*, *Bolivar*, &c.) The following works may be consulted relative to Colombia: Humboldt's *Tableaux de la Nature*; *Personal Narrative* of the same; Mollien's *Travels in Colombia*, Paris, 1823 (translated into English, 1825); *Colombia*, 2 vols., 8vo., London, 1822.

Colon. (See *Punctuation.*)

Colonel; the commander of a regiment, whether of horse, foot or artillery. There were times when, in some armies of the European continent, regiments were commanded by generals; but this is no longer the case.

Colonial Articles. (See *Commerce.*)

Colonization Society, American. One sixth part of the population of the U. States consists of blacks. Of these, 1,852,126 are slaves (see *Slavery*); the remaining 280,000 are called *free*. In some of the states, the free black population is oppressed by legal disabilities, and, in all, is virtually excluded from the enjoyment of some of the most important civil privileges, by the prejudices of the European race. A caste is thus formed in the state, of individuals below the salutary influence of public opinion, cut off from all hope of improving their condition, degraded, ignorant and vicious themselves, and leaving the same legacy of humiliation and shame to their children. A common descent and color unite them, on the other hand, with the slaves, and render them the fit agents for fomenting insurrections among them. On this account, they have become objects of suspicion and alarm in the slave-holding states; and the owners of slaves consider it impolitic and dangerous to emancipate their Negroes, since they contribute to increase the strength of a dangerous class, without deriving any important benefits themselves from the change. This state of things gave rise to the colonization society. So early as the year 1777, the plan was proposed by Jefferson, in the legislature of Virginia, of emancipating all the slaves born after that period, educating them, the males to the age of 21, the females to that of 18, and establishing colonies of them in some suitable place. The plan of colonization has been subsequently approved by the legislatures of nine states; but it was first carried into execution by individuals. The society was formed in 1816. "Its object is, to promote and execute a plan for colonizing (with their consent) the free people of color residing in our country, either in Africa or such other place as congress shall deem expedient;" to prepare the way for the interference of the government, by proving that a colony can be established and maintained without the opposition of the natives; that the colonists can be transported at a moderate expense; that an important commerce might be thus established, and the slave-trade in consequence discouraged. The practicability of the plan being proved, it was intended to extend it to the entire removal of the whole black population. In 1817, two agents were sent by the society to examine the western coast of Africa for a suitable spot for the colony. They selected a position in the Sherbro, and, in February, 1820, the first vessel was despatched with 88 colonists. They were conducted by an agent of the society, and accompanied by two agents of the government. The expedition arrived on the

low coasts in the rainy season; the three agents, and a great number of the colonists, were carried off by the fever of the climate, and it became necessary to abandon the colony. In 1821, another vessel was sent out, with 28 colonists, and cape Mesurado was purchased as a more favorable position. It has a fine harbor, the climate is pleasant, and the soil is fertile, producing sugar-cane, indigo and cotton without cultivation. In 1823, the emigrants amounted to 150, of whom several were recaptured Africans, taken from vessels seized for a violation of the laws of the U. States. In 1828, the colony contained more than 1200 inhabitants. It has received the name of *Liberia*, and the town at the cape is called *Monrovia*, in honor of the ex-president Monroe. The possessions of the society extend 150 miles along the coast, and a considerable distance into the interior. Eight stations or settlements have been established, at the request of the native chiefs, who construct the necessary buildings for the accommodation of the colonists at their own expense. The colonists employ several hundred native laborers; and they are, in general, in very comfortable circumstances. Several schools have been established, and the moral and religious character of the inhabitants is excellent. By the constitution of Liberia, all persons born in the colony, or residing there, shall be free, and enjoy all the privileges of the citizens of the U. States; the agent of the society possesses the sovereign power; the judiciary consists of the agent and two justices appointed by him; the other officers are chosen by the colonists. The common law is adopted, with the modifications already introduced in the U. States, and others required by the peculiar situation of the colony. The party in any action at law is entitled to trial by jury. The commerce of the place is increasing. Rice, palm-oil, wax, and some coffee, are exported. The supreme control of the government is to remain in the hands of the society until the settlers are in a condition to govern themselves.—While the benevolent exertions of the society have been thus successful abroad, its influence on the public sentiment at home has been very salutary. The congress of the U. States had already abolished the slave-trade, in 1808, as soon as the restrictions imposed by the constitution were removed. Through the representations of the colonization society, the act of March 3, 1819, was passed, authorizing the president to make arrangements for the support and restoration of recaptured Negroes. May 15, 1820, the slave-trade was declared to be piracy, and punishable with death. The society has succeeded in overcoming the fears and prejudices of its former opponents; some of the most eminent statesmen in the slave-holding states have become earnestly engaged in the cause; the legislatures of several of the same states have contributed funds for its assistance; and, in 1828, the number of auxiliary societies amounted to 96. The experiment has convinced the blacks themselves of the great benefits they must derive from their colonization, and the number of applicants for transportation has been constantly increasing. The emancipation of slaves is also facilitated, now that provision is made for them. In 1828, 100 were manumitted, and, in 1829, 200 were offered to the society, on condition that they should be sent to Liberia. Information concerning the history and objects of the society may be found in its 12 Annual Reports (Washington, 1818—1829), in the African Repository (Washington), in the North American Review, January, 1824, and January, 1825 (Boston), and in the American Quarterly Review, No. 8, December, 1828.

Colonna, Vittoria; the most renowned poetess of Italy, daughter of Fabrizio Colonna, high-constable of Naples; born in 1490, at Marino, a fief belonging to the family. At the age of four years, she was destined to be the wife of Fern. Franc. d'Avalos, marquis of Pescara, a boy of the same age. The rare excellences, both of body and mind, with which nature and a most careful education had adorned her, made her an object of universal admiration, so that even princes sued for her hand. But, faithful to her vow, she gave her hand to the companion of her youth, who had become one of the most distinguished men of his age. They lived in the happiest union. When her husband fell, in the battle of Pavia (1525), Vittoria sought consolation in solitude and in poetry. All her poems were devoted to the memory of her husband. She lived seven years, by turns at Naples and at Ischia, and afterwards retired into a monastery, first at Orvieto, and finally at Viterbo. She afterwards abandoned the monastic life, and made Rome her abode, where she died in 1547. Her *Rime* are not inferior to the best imitations of Petrarch. The finest are her *Rime Spirituali* (Venice, 1548, 4to.), which display deep feeling and pure piety. A collection of all her poems appeared in 1760, at Bergamo.

COLONY. Before America and the way by sea to the East Indies were discovered, the states of Europe, in the middle ages, with the exception of the Genoese and of the Venetians, had no foreign colonies. The Mediterranean afforded a passage to an extensive commerce, which was chiefly carried on by the small Italian states, particularly Venice and Genoa, and the seaports of Catalonia. The commerce between India and the continents of Europe and Asia was carried on chiefly by way of Ormus and Aden, on the Persian and Arabian gulfs. Aleppo, Damascus, and the harbor of Barut, and especially Egypt, were the chief emporiums. As long as commerce was confined to land-carriage, and conducted by small states, it never could have the importance which it assumed in the hands of the Spaniards and Portuguese, after America was discovered, and the passage by sea to the East Indies effected. When the Portuguese nation first commenced its discoveries, it was in the vigor of its heroic age. By continual wars with the Moors, first in Europe and afterwards in Africa, the martial spirit of the nation acquired that chivalrous energy which impelled it to romantic enterprises, particularly as the most violent hatred against the infidels was connected with it. From 1410, when Henry the Navigator (q. v.) commenced his voyages and discoveries on the western shore of Africa, till his death, in 1463, the Portuguese discovered, in 1419, Madeira; in 1439, cape Bojador; in 1446, cape Verd; two years later, the Azores; in 1449, the cape Verd isles, and penetrated to Sierra Leone. In 1484, Congo was visited. Bartolomeo Diaz reached (1486) the cape of Tempests, which king John called the *cape of Good Hope*. Soon afterwards, under the reign of king Emanuel the Great, a daring adventurer led the Portuguese by that route to the East Indies. Vasco da Gama landed, May 20, 1498, at Calicut, on the coast of Malabar. The Portuguese did not succeed without a struggle, particularly with the Moors, who had previously been in possession of the inland trade of India, in establishing settlements on the coast of Malabar, and nothing but the lofty spirit and the determined valor of the first viceroy, the great Almeida of Abrantes (1505—9), and of his still greater successor, Alphonso Albuquerque (1515), could have founded, with such feeble means, an extensive dominion in India; the chief seat of which, from 1508, was Goa. The Portuguese garrisoned only some strong places along the coasts of the continent and the islands, as commercial posts, among which, on the coast of Africa, Mozambique, Sofala and Melinda; in the Persian gulf, Ormus and Mascat; on the Malabar coast, besides Goa, Diu and Daman; on the Coromandel coast, Negapatam and Meliapoor (St. Thomas), and Malacca on the peninsula of the same name, were the most important. After the year 1511, colonies were established also upon the Spice islands; after 1518, in Ceylon; the latter of which soon became considerable. Those in Java, Sumatra, Celebes and Borneo remained less important. Brazil, though discovered in 1500, by Cabral, did not become of consequence until more recently. On the other hand, the commercial connexions formed, in 1517, with China, and, in 1542, with Japan, were, for a long time, a source of riches to the Portuguese. Till that time, the Portuguese had been in the undisputed possession of all the East Indian commerce. In order to prevent difficulties with Spain, all the discoveries which should be made beyond cape Bojador were adjudged, in 1481, by a papal bull of Sixtus IV, to the Portuguese. A dispute with Spain concerning the possession of the Moluccas was adjusted, in 1529, by an agreement that Charles V should sell his claims, for 350,000 ducats, to the crown of Portugal. But, after Philip II, in 1580, had made himself master of Portugal, the East Indian colonies also fell under the dominion of the Spaniards, and, soon after, into the power of the Dutch. The ability of some great men, and the heroic spirit of the nation, had founded the power of Portugal in the East Indies. It fell when the character of the people degenerated, when a low trading spirit took the place of heroism, even among the higher classes of the nation; when avarice, luxury and effeminacy increased, and the influence of the clergy, and particularly of the inquisition, became predominant. To these causes of decline were added the annexation of Portugal to Spain, and the neglect of the Portuguese colonies, resulting from this union. Moreover, all the enemies of Spain, particularly the Dutch, were now also enemies of Portugal, and the fabric of Portuguese greatness in the East Indies could not be prevented from hastening to ruin. Portugal never carried on commerce with the East Indies by means of a privileged society, but by fleets which started every year, in February or March, for India, under the protection of the government. The coasting trade in India,

which was confined to a few seaports, the Portuguese, in very early times, endeavored to monopolize; but they contented themselves with carrying goods to Lisbon, without attempting to export them to the rest of Europe. The disadvantages of this system were soon felt by their marine, particularly as it allowed the Dutch to become dangerous rivals. From this time, the Portuguese maintained a place among the important colonial powers of Europe only by the possession of Brazil. It was fortunate, as regarded the colonization of this country, that its gold mines were not discovered till 1698, its wealth in diamonds not until 1728, and that its trade was not monopolized by two companies till the time of Pombal.

At about the same time as the Portuguese, the Spaniards also became a colonial power. October 11, 1492, Columbus discovered the island of San Salvador, and, in his three following voyages, the group of the West India islands, and a part of the American continent. St. Domingo or Hispaniola became of great importance to Spain, on account of its gold mines. Attempts were also made to colonize Cuba, Porto Rico and Jamaica, from 1508 to 1510. The great kingdom of Mexico was subjected by Cortes, 1519—1521; Peru, Chile and Quito, 1529—1535, by Pizarro and his followers: in 1523, Terra Firma, and 1536, New Grenada, were conquered. The nature of the countries of which the Spaniards took possession, decided, from the first, the character of their colonies, which afterwards continued unchanged in the main. They did not produce the various precious articles of the East Indies, instead of which the Spaniards found gold and silver, the great objects of their desire. While, therefore, the colonies of the Portuguese in East India were, from the beginning, commercial, those of the Spaniards in America were always mining colonies. It was not till later times that they received some modifications of this character. To maintain their extensive dominion, particularly over the wild nations of the interior, the Spaniards endeavored to convert the Indians to Christianity by the establishment of missions, and to induce them to live in permanent abodes. The government of the colonies, in its fundamental traits, was settled in 1532, during the reign of Charles V. A council of the Indies in Europe, viceroys, at first two, afterwards four, together with eight independent captains-general, in America, were the heads of the administration. The *real audiencia* was the council of the viceroys or captains-general. Cities were founded, at first along the coasts, for the sake of commerce and as military posts; afterwards also in the interior, in particular in the vicinity of the mines; as Vera Cruz, Cumaná, Porto Bello, Carthagena, Valencia, Caracas; Acapulco and Panama, on the coast of the Pacific; Lima, Concepcion and Buenos Ayres. The whole ecclesiastical discipline of the mother country was transferred to the colonies, except that, in the latter, the church was much more independent of the king. The precious metals were the chief article of export from the colonies, and the commerce in them was subjected to very rigorous inspection. The intercourse with Spain was confined to the single port of Seville, from which two squadrons started annually—the *galleons*, about 12 in number, for Porto Bello, and the fleet, of 15 large vessels, for Vera Cruz. While, therefore, the commerce was not expressly granted, by law, to a society, it remained, nevertheless, entirely in the hands of a few individuals. Spain had taken possession of the Philippine isles in 1564, and a regular intercourse was maintained, from 1572, by the South sea galleons, between Acapulco and Manilla; but, owing to the great restrictions on commerce, those islands, notwithstanding their advantageous situation, were an expense to the crown, instead of being profitable to it: religious considerations alone prevented them from being abandoned.

Far greater activity and political importance were communicated to the colonial commerce of Europe, when two commercial nations, in the full sense of the word,—the Dutch and the English,—engaged in it. The Dutch, during the struggle for their independence, first became the formidable rivals of the Portuguese, then subjected to the Spanish yoke. The participation of the Dutch in the colonial system imparted to the colonial commerce a new impulse and a far greater extent. They had already, for some time, carried on the trade in East India merchandise between Lisbon and the rest of Europe, and had seen, during the struggle for their independence, the weakness of the Spanish naval force. The tyranny of Philip II forced them to a measure which they would not readily have adopted from choice, that of fighting their enemies in the East Indies. The intercourse of the Dutch with Lisbon had already been prohibited by Philip in 1584; the prohibition

was revived, in 1594, with the utmost severity, and a number of Dutch vessels in the harbor were seized. Excluded from all trade in the productions of India, they had no alternative left, but to resign this branch of commerce entirely, or to import directly from India the articles which were refused to them in Europe. Encouraged by Cornelius Houtmann, a well-informed man, who had made several unsuccessful attempts to find a northern passage to the East Indies, the "company of remote parts," composed of merchants of Amsterdam and Antwerp, equipped four vessels, which set sail for the East Indies, April 2, 1595, under the command of Houtmann and Molenaer. Though the profits of the first expedition were not so great as had been expected, the weakness and unpopularity of the Portuguese, who were universally hated in India, were discovered, and similar companies were soon formed, which sent fleets to this rich region. The number of competitors in India was thus immoderately increased, and the continued hostility of the united Spanish and Portuguese power induced the states-general, not many years afterwards, to unite the separate societies into one, called the *Dutch East India company*, which, by a charter granted March 20, 1602, and renewed afterwards at different times, received not only the monopoly of the East India trade, but also sovereign powers over the conquests which they should make and the colonies which they should establish in India. The superintendence which the states-general retained for themselves was little more than nominal. The colonial system of the Dutch in the East Indies was rapidly developed, and early received the decided character which it has ever since retained. Their colonies in the East Indies became commercial colonies, and the Moluccas and the great Sunda isles, being more easily defended than the continent of India, which was then subjected to powerful rulers, became the principal seat of their power. This was undoubtedly the chief cause of their continuing so long in a flourishing condition, as they required only the dominion of the sea to maintain them. In 1618, the newly-built Batavia was made, by the governor-general Koen, the capital of the Dutch possessions. The Dutch now rapidly deprived the Portuguese of all their East Indian territories, not, indeed, without resistance, but with little difficulty; and, in 1611, they found means to become exclusive masters of the trade to Japan. Thus the Portuguese retained but a few insignificant possessions in Goa, the melancholy remains of their former grandeur. About the middle of the 17th century, the power of the Dutch reached its highest point; particularly after they had effected the establishment of a colony at the cape of Good Hope (which, in 1653, afforded an excellent bulwark for their East Indian possessions), and had taken Ceylon from the Portuguese in 1658. All the Dutch colonies in the East Indies were under the governor-general of Batavia, to whom were subordinate several governments, directories, commanderies and residences, the titles and number of which varied with the importance of the different colonies at different times. In Europe, the colonial administration was conducted by a council of ten *Bewindhebbers*, who were chosen from a body of 60 directors. In 1621, the Dutch established also a West India company which, at first, made extensive conquests in Brazil (1630—1640), but lost them again in 1642. Their settlements on some of the smaller West India islands, as San Eustatia, Curaçao, Saba and St. Martin (1632—49), were more permanent, and were particularly important on account of the smuggling trade there carried on. On the continent, only Surinam, Paramaribo, Essequibo and Berbice were in the hands of the Dutch in 1667.

Nearly at the same time with the Dutch, the English made their appearance as a colonial power, at first with far inferior success. They first visited remote seas during the reign of queen Elizabeth. After many fruitless attempts to find a north-east or north-west passage to the East Indies, English vessels found their way round the cape of Good Hope to the East Indies in 1591. Dec. 31, 1600, Elizabeth granted a charter to a society instituted for the purpose of carrying on an exclusive trade beyond the cape and the straits of Magellan. Their commerce with India, however, was not, at first, important. They established only single factories on the continent. The island of St. Helena, which was taken possession of by them in 1601, was almost their only permanent possession in that quarter of the world. During the reign of Charles I, in 1623, the English East India company was driven from the Spice islands by the Dutch, and retained, besides fort St. George, built in 1620, at Madras, only some factories on the coasts of Malabar and Coromandel. From 1653 to 1658, the company seemed to be entirely dissolved, until it was revived and supported against the Dutch

by Cromwell. But, during the reign of Charles II, it again fell into decay, chiefly by its own fault. A new East India company, with a charter from the crown, was formed in 1698, and the union of both in 1708, as it then seemed, alone saved the East Indian trade from total ruin. The possessions of the English in India were limited almost entirely to Madras, Calcutta and Bencoolen, and the vast British empire there dates only from the middle of the 18th century. The ruin of the Mogul empire in India, which commenced in internal disturbances after the death of Aureng-Zebe (1707), and was completed by the incursions of Nadir Shah (1739), afforded the opportunity for the growth of British power, as the English and French interfered in the contentions of the native princes and governors. The French, under Labourdonnaye and Dupleix, appeared, at first, to maintain the superiority; but the English succeeded, after driving both of them from India, in acquiring the ascendency in the Carnatic, and, in the middle of the last century, extended their dominion, under the command of Laurence and Clive. (q. v.) By the destruction of Pondicherry, they secured their superiority on the coast of Coromandel; and the victory of Clive at Plassey, June 26, 1756, laid the foundation of their exclusive sovereignty in India. By the treaty of Allahabad, Aug. 12, 1765, Bengal was surrendered to the English by the titular great Mogul, and the nabob of the country retained but a shadow of dominion. The fall of the empire of Mysore (the dominions of Hyder Ali and Tippoo Saïb) may be considered as completely establishing the exclusive sovereignty of the British in India. The Mahrattas, with whom the English first waged war in 1774, remained the only formidable enemies of the company. The British territory in India was now of an extraordinary extent, including the whole eastern shore, the greater part of the western, and all the countries on the Ganges and Jumna to Delhi. (For the recent changes in the English and Dutch East Indies, see *India* and *East India Companies*.) Almost at the same time with the first attempts of the English to participate in the East Indian commerce, the London and Plymouth companies were established (1606) by James I; the former for the southern, the latter for the northern half of the North American coast; and, in the same year, Jamestown, on Chesapeake bay, was founded. The colonies in a country which possessed neither gold nor other productions of nature or art particularly adapted for commerce, necessarily became agricultural colonies. During the domestic disturbances in England, which caused much emigration, the North American colonies greatly increased; separate colonies were formed, and, after the dissolution of the London company in 1625, and of the Plymouth company in 1637, received constitutions containing many republican principles. In later times arose the English establishments in the West India islands, including Barbadoes, half of St. Christopher's (1625), and, soon after, many smaller islands. Yet the West India possessions did not become important as plantations until the sugar-cane was introduced into Barbadoes (1641) and into Jamaica in 1660. This island had been taken from the Spaniards in 1655. The British colonies in North America prospered much more than those in the West Indies, even after the cultivation of coffee had been introduced into the latter in 1732. In the same year, Georgia, the youngest of the thirteen provinces, was founded. Newfoundland (in French, *Terre-neuve*) also became important for its cod-fisheries, and Canada was surrendered to England at the peace of Paris, in 1763. In 1764 began the dispute between England and its North American colonies, on the question, whether the former had the right to impose taxes on the colonies when they were not represented in the British parliament; and, April 19, 1775, commenced the war, in which the Americans were assisted by France, and which terminated with the acknowledgment of the independence of the thirteen provinces. By the peace of Paris (1783), the first independent state in the new world was recognised in Europe. The power of England was not broken by this event; its commerce with the new republic increased rapidly. Canada and Nova Scotia were now of the greatest importance to it; and the British West India islands rose in proportion as the restrictions on commerce diminished. But the free states of North America advanced with giant strides; their number has increased from 13 to 24, and their flag waves over every sea. The West India colonies, however, were unfavorably affected by the extension of the cultivation of productions previously peculiar to them. The slave-trade was also abolished (1806).

France acquired colonies later than the Dutch and English. Her colonies, and what, at first, was thought indispensable for them, commercial companies, were

the work of Colbert. He purchased, on several West Indian islands, as Martinique, Guadaloupe, St. Lucia, Grenada, and others, settlements already formed by private persons (1664), and, in the same year, sent colonists to Cayenne. But the settlements on a part of St. Domingo by the piratical state of the Buccaneers became the most important. The West India company, erected likewise in 1664, survived only 10 years. Sugar and cotton, and, since 1728, coffee (first introduced into Martinique), have been the most important productions of the West Indian colonies, which, by the great commercial privileges granted them in 1717, and by the smuggling trade with Spanish America, soon obtained the ascendency over the English. Though France, by the terms of the peace of Paris (1763), lost some of its smaller islands, it was indemnified by the riches of St. Domingo, which furnished, in the years preceding the revolution, an annual gross revenue of 170,000,000 livres—almost as much as all the rest of the West Indies together. In 1791 and the succeeding years, St. Domingo suffered terribly, but it has risen again under an entirely new form. (See *Hayti.*) In 1661, France possessed Canada, Acadia or Nova Scotia, on the continent, and the island of Newfoundland. These colonies, however, made but slow progress. The last was ceded to England by the treaty of Utrecht (1713); the two first, with Cape Breton, in 1763. Louisiana, declining in prosperity, was given up to Spain (1764), and Cayenne could ill atone for these losses. Louisiana was afterwards restored to France, but sold by her, in 1803, to the U. States of North America. The French did not meet with much better success in their attempts to establish themselves in the East Indies. In 1664, Colbert founded an East India company. After fruitless attempts to form a colony in Madagascar, Pondicherry was founded on the coast of Coromandel in 1670, and soon became the chief seat of the French East Indies. But the company fell into decay. In 1719, it was united with the Mississippi company, but still remained feeble. On the other hand, the French took possession of Isle de France and Bourbon, in 1720, which had been abandoned by the Dutch, and which attained a flourishing condition under the administration of Labourdonnaye (commencing in 1736), by the cultivation of coffee, whilst Dupleix, as governor-general of Pondicherry, had the direction of affairs in the East Indies. Here the arms of the French had been successful since 1751; but the peace of 1763 deprived them of their conquests, and the East India company was dissolved in 1769. The French now possess only Karical and the demolished town of Pondicherry. By the possession of the island of Bourbon alone, they have maintained a doubtful influence upon the commerce of the East Indies.

The Danes and Swedes have likewise had colonies; and there was a time when even Austria endeavored to partake in the colonial commerce. An East India company was formed in Denmark, in 1618, in the reign of Christian IV, which acquired Tranquebar from the rajah of Tanjore, but was dissolved in 1634. The second company, formed in 1670, which survived till 1729, was not more fortunate. In 1671, the Danes also occupied the West India island of St. Thomas, to which were added, in the first half of the 18th century, St. John and Santa Cruz, which they purchased from France. In 1734, a West India company was established; but, on its dissolution (1764), the commerce with the West Indies was made free to every one, and the islands there improved rapidly. The East India commerce, for which a company had been instituted in 1732, was also very lucrative. But the company traded chiefly with China, and ceded their settlements in the East Indies to the crown in 1777.—Sweden, though it had no possessions in India, established an East India company, in 1731, in order to engage directly in the tea trade with China, which it carried on with much success. In 1784, by the acquisition of the small island of St. Bartholomew from France, it gained a firm footing in the West Indies.—Austria was less successful. Under the reign of Charles VI, she attempted to engage in the direct commerce with the East Indies by establishing the company of Ostend (1722), but was obliged, by the violent opposition of England and Holland, to dissolve the company in 1731. An attempted settlement, in the last quarter of the 18th century, on the Nicobar islands, in the Indian ocean, which were occupied, in earlier times, by the Danes, but abandoned on account of the unhealthiness of the situation, was equally unsuccessful.

A company was first established in Russia, in 1787, for obtaining furs on the Kurile isles, the Aleutian isles, and the north-west coast of North America. An ukase, in favor of this company, forbidding other nations to trade and fish on the

coasts of Asia and North America, from 51° N. lat. on the American side, and the S. cape of the island of Urup on the Asiatic, together with the intermediate islands, met with opposition from the U. States; but, by a treaty concluded at St. Petersburg, April 17, 1824, it was agreed that the people of both governments should be allowed to trade or fish unmolested in any part of the Pacific ocean or its coasts. It was also agreed that no establishment should be formed on the north-west coast to the north of 54° by citizens of the U. States, nor to the south of the same point by Russian subjects.

While the slave-trade was unobstructed, Africa was of much importance in respect to the colonial interests of Europe. The African establishments are mostly single fortified factories along the coasts of Africa. Their chief object was the slave-trade, which was chiefly carried on by privileged companies. A free Negro colony was founded at Sierra Leone, by the English (1786), and the abolition of the slave-trade (q. v.), which originated with Denmark and England (1802 and 1806), must necessarily affect the African settlements.—The discovery of Australasia led, in 1788, to the settlement at Sydney cove, in New South Wales, and those in Van Diemen's land (q. v.), which soon became flourishing colonies. (See *N. S. Wales.*)

The commerce of the world (see *Commerce*) received a powerful impulse from the colonies, and the nations soon perceived that these constituted one of the chief sources of their wealth. It is, however, not to be denied, that the illusions of the *mercantile system*, so called, and, still more, the great wealth which some colonial powers acquired, and which was attributed exclusively to their colonial trade, caused an exaggerated value to be affixed to this commerce, without sufficient regard to the particular character and genius of the different nations, their geographical and political situation, and the circumstances of the time. Under the influence of this misapprehension, each state endeavored to exclude all strangers from participating in it; and a law of nations was formed, with regard to the colonies, which was distinguished from the common European law of nations by its ungenerous principles. Thus the Portuguese and Spaniards endeavored to exclude all other European nations from navigating the seas on which their colonies were situated, and to maintain this assumption by force. But neither Spain nor Portugal was able to maintain, for a long time, their exaggerated pretensions, against which England and Holland declared themselves very early. No sooner, however, had the two last come into possession of the colonial trade, than they announced, if not the same, yet not much nobler principles. Though it was acknowledged, in general, that the Indian seas were not the exclusive property of any power, yet the new proprietors endeavored to secure the exclusive dominion of some large branches of the sea, not only by treaties, but also by acts of violence and oppression, even in the midst of peace. The principle was adopted, in general, that each European nation should be excluded from commerce with the colonies of every other, and not unfrequently foreigners were forbidden even to land. Great Britain first declared the colonial trade free, in 1822, and the Netherlands seem inclined to follow this example. The colonial trade is divided into three principal classes; the mutual trade between the different countries of those distant regions; the mutual commerce between Europe and the colonies, and the trade in colonial articles in Europe. The mutual trade between those regions where the colonies are situated, which, in the East Indies, before the arrival of the Portuguese, was almost exclusively in the hands of the Arabians or Moors, the Europeans early sought to appropriate; yet they did not succeed in making themselves so entirely masters of it, as to exclude other nations, in later times, chiefly the Chinese and Hindoos, from taking a considerable share in it. As little did the trade in colonial articles in Europe remain the exclusive property of one nation, though the nation which had brought the goods from the countries where they were produced, had many advantages over others, which were obliged to purchase from it. With the exception of the Spaniards and the Portuguese, who have mostly sold in their own ports the productions which they had brought from their colonies, the nations of Europe have endeavored to be themselves the exclusive carriers of the productions of their colonies to the different ports of the European continent. But it was chiefly the intermediate trade between Europe and the colonies, which every nation reserved to itself, to the exclusion of all foreigners. This was the universal practice, even in time of peace, and was retained also in time of war, as long as no European power was master of the sea; that is, till the middle of the last century. At that time, the English navy attained such a decided superiority, that,

during the wars between England and France, the latter dared not continue the commerce with its colonies. The French, therefore, adopted a policy, usually practised by them, and the other less powerful colonial powers, in their future wars with England, viz.; to declare the trade of the colonies free to all friendly and neutral vessels. By this means, they secured not only their colonies, which could not well do without their supplies, but saved at least a part of the profits of the colonial trade; for the neutrals were mere agents in the commerce between the mother country and the colonies, and the former lost only the freight of the merchandise transported. This commerce being interrupted by England, which has always refused to acknowledge the principle "free ships make free goods," the neutrals began to purchase the goods of the colonies, with which they were allowed to trade, and to carry them off as their own property. The English, on the other hand, maintained that this was, in most cases, only a fictitious sale, and that the neutrals were, in one case as well as in the other, only the carriers for the belligerents. This was, no doubt, the fact in most cases; when, for instance, great purchases were made for places and countries where there could be no market for such a quantity of colonial articles; or when some commercial houses, entirely unknown before, suddenly had immense dealings in colonial articles, which they could not possibly pay for. As England maintained, besides, that every precaution which could be taken against this fraudulent trade was made ineffectual by the artifices of the neutrals, she laid down a principle, which, under the name of the *rule of war of* 1756, has made one of the chief points of contest between her and the neutrals. The English asserted that this trade, as it was not allowed to the neutrals in times of peace, must be considered as the property of the enemy; must be, like any other thing which he possesses, the subject of contest, and belong to the victor; that the neutrals had not the right to profit by the permission to carry on this trade, which they had obtained from the enemy only through his necessities, any more than they would be entitled to take under their protection any establishment of the enemy which was critically situated. The neutrals, they said, had less reason to complain of being injured, as the commerce with the colonies of the enemy was not permitted in times of peace. Among the neutrals, the U. States, in particular, have remonstrated vehemently against the rule of war of 1756; while England, on the other hand, complained not less bitterly of injuries received from the North Americans. It was not enough that the colonies should be cut off from all intercourse with foreigners: commercial jealousy and the mercantile system have given rise to a number of other restrictions, very disadvantageous to their prosperity, and by which their trade with the mother countries has been greatly limited. The policy of the mother countries was, to keep the colonies in the greatest commercial, as well as political, dependence. The chief measure taken for this purpose was, the establishment of companies, to which the trade between the mother countries and the colonies was committed exclusively. The government of these companies was politically as oppressive for the colonies as their exclusive right to the colonial commerce was burdensome to their trade. The productions of the mother country, which they sent to the colonies, were usually of inferior quality, and charged at very high prices, in consequence of which the colonies themselves produced less. For the mother country, the companies fixed arbitrary prices on the colonial articles; but the companies themselves, in general, gained nothing. Their officers were the only party benefited, as unavoidable frauds of every kind ruined the companies sooner or later. Though the English East India company may seem to form an exception, yet it is well known, that, more than once, it has been saved from immediate ruin only by extraordinary circumstances and support. Such companies have been represented as necessary for carrying on commerce to advantage in foreign countries, particularly in the East Indies. The general ignorance of the customs and manners of those parts, the disadvantages of too great a competition, and, finally, the dangers attending intercourse with princes and nations of predatory habits, have been brought forward as arguments to prove that such a trade cannot be carried on by individuals. It was not considered that ignorance of habits and customs, and the dangers of interfering with each other's market, exist in other branches of commerce, which nobody ever thought of managing by companies; and that the hostility of the princes and tribes in such countries is generally excited by the companies themselves; as the servant of a powerful corporation behaves, in general, with more violence and haughtiness than the single, defenceless merchant, who

cannot count on the protection of an armed power. That companies are not necessary for carrying on the colonial trade is proved by the example of the Spaniards and Portuguese, who knew of no such institutions in their flourishing periods. Instead of considering the companies as the cause of the flourishing state of the East India trade, we ought rather to be astonished that, notwithstanding the companies, this commerce has prospered so much. The rapid success of the Dutch East India company, in particular, was a spur to similar institutions, which were not attended with equal success. Besides the companies, there were other restrictions on the colonial trade. Every subject, for instance, was forbidden to sail for the colonies in the service of a foreign power, or without the permission of a company, which possessed the monopoly of their trade. The trade was also usually confined to a few ports, to a certain number of vessels, and to certain times. More liberal principles have been adopted only in recent times. The exclusive privileges have been limited, and the unprivileged, as, for instance, in England, have been permitted to partake in the colonial trade. In general, greater freedom has been allowed to this trade. In the government of the colonies, the same principle of keeping them in a state of dependence was maintained. Their trade and government were always in the closest connexion, though in different degrees in different colonies.—Colonies, in general, may be divided, according to their nature, into four large classes, viz., agricultural, mining, planting, and commercial colonies. In the first, to which belong chiefly the colonies in North America, agriculture is the chief object. The Europeans who settled there became landed proprietors, and seldom returned to their native country. In the second and third generation, the more the ties of affinity and other connexions with the mother country disappear, and the recollections of it vanish, the colonists form more and more a distinct nation, and become more and more estranged from their native country. Hence, as experience has shown, the possession of such colonies is insecure as soon as the population increases, and the inhabitants come more into contact with each other. The mining colonies, the chief object of which is the acquisition of precious stones and metals, are nearly in the same condition; as, for instance, the settlements of the Spaniards and Portuguese in South America. They are, from their nature, easily converted into agricultural colonies, and may form, though more slowly, distinct, independent nations; as is the case with the settlements in South America already referred to. (See *South American Revolution.*) It is entirely different with the planting colonies, the object of which is the production of certain plants which generally grow only in a hot climate, as, for instance, the settlements in the West India islands. Here a nation is not easily formed. Europeans are the proprietors of the plantations; but their number is small; besides, they seldom become domesticated there, but, on account of the unhealthy climate, and the inconveniences attending the manner of living there, either administer their plantations by a steward, spending their revenues abroad, or remain in the colonies only until they have collected a fortune, when they return to their native country. The small number of planters (for the far greater part of the population consists of Negro slaves, who are used exclusively for the cultivation of the plantations) is the cause that establishments of this kind are least able to dispense with the protection and support of the mother country. Similarly situated are the commercial colonies, which are intended to dispose of the natural or artificial productions of the country. They grow up from single factories and commercial stations, which, by fraud and force, successively make themselves the centres of considerable territories. The possession of landed property in them is only a means for the promotion of commerce. The Europeans, in colonies of this kind, are the rulers, but seldom landed proprietors; they are mostly soldiers, officers and merchants. For this reason, a nation is not easily formed in them, as the Europeans residing there merely wish to make a fortune and return to their native country. On account of the entire separation of the military forces in the three principal governments of British India, the influence of the civil residents over the troops stationed in the states of the allies of the East India company, the mixture of the royal troops with those of the company, the great influence of the royal forces in Ceylon, and the frequent changes of the garrisons, a military revolution is not much to be feared in British India. The hardest fate which the inhabitants of commercial colonies can suffer, is to fall into the hands of commercial companies which form, at the same time, sovereign political bodies. The abuses and mismanagements of the companies

have obliged the governments of the mother countries to bring them more or less under their own immediate superintendence, and to limit them chiefly to trade. The governments of agricultural, mining and planting colonies are usually of a different character. In them, it is not merely conquered tribes which are to be ruled, but principally Europeans themselves, who have settled in them, former inhabitants of the mother country, and therefore to be treated with far greater delicacy. The government of the mother country has usually taken care of the administration of these colonies itself; and, where they have been managed by companies, the colonies have had, at least, some part in the government: several of them have enjoyed an almost republican constitution. After the abolition of the slave-trade, a fifth class of colonies was formed on the African coast—colonies for the civilization of freed slaves—approaching most nearly to the nature of agricultural colonies. The most important is at Sierra Leone (q. v.), under British authority. It will become an important military and commercial post, as its connexion with the interior of Africa increases. A similar colony, called *Liberia*, was founded at cape Mesurado, on the coast of Guinea, in 1817, by the people of the U. States. (See *Liberia* and *Colonization Society*.)—Very recently, a colony of colored persons has been commenced in Canada. In June, 1829, the authorities of Cincinnati (Ohio) ordered the black and mulatto persons to give security for their good behavior, or to leave the place. This description of persons in that town amounted to about 2000, many of whom decided to settle in Canada. They purchased 124,000 acres of land; and the colony is said to contain, at the time we are writing, 1100 persons. If, as it is expected, the English government should give them a grant of land large enough to support a considerable population, this colony may, in many respects, become important to the U. States, and will probably increase fast.

Colonies, Pauper. The public attention has, of late, been directed to some novel and very interesting establishments in Holland, which have acquired the name of *pauper colonies*. The object of these institutions is to remove those persons who are a burden to society to the poorest waste lands, where, under judicious regulations, they may be enabled to provide for their own subsistence. The best account that we have seen of these establishments has been published by Mr. Jacob, the English reporter on the corn trade. As the subject is so interesting and novel, a detailed account, we hope, will be agreeable. Of the pauper colonies, the one which Mr. Jacob selects for illustration is that of Frederics Oord. The originator of this scheme was general van den Bosch. The general, while in the island of Java, had formed a connexion with a Chinese mandarin, whose skill in farming he had admired, and who had under him a colony of emigrant Chinese. On his return to Europe, he laid before the king of the Netherlands a plan for a pauper establishment, which met with the royal patronage. A public meeting was held at the Hague in 1818, and a "society of beneficence" formed, and two committees organized for its management. The president was prince Frederic, the second son of the king. Having received the sanction of the king, the society was recommended to all the local authorities, and soon found itself in possession of $25,000, obtained from more than 20,000 members. With these funds the society purchased an estate on the east side of the Zuyder Zee, and not far from the town of Steenwyk. This estate cost them $21,700, and contained from 1200 to 1300 acres, about 200 of which was under a sort of culture, or covered with bad wood, and the rest a mere heath. They let the cultivated land, about $\frac{1}{10}$ of the whole; deepened the Aa (which runs through the estate), so that it is navigable for boats, and built store-houses, a school, and dwellings for about 52 families, of from 6 to 8 persons each. Their operations were begun in September, 1818; by the 10th of November the houses were ready; and the communes sent some poor families. The total expense of each family was as follows:—

	$	cts.
Building each house, ...	194	17
Furniture and implements, ...	38	83
Clothing, ...	58	25
Two cows, or one cow and ten sheep,	58	25
Cultivation and seed, first year, . .	155	34
Advances in provisions, ...	19	41
Advances of other kinds, ...	19	41
Flax and wool to be spun, ...	77	67
Seven acres uncultivated land, net,	38	83
Total establishment, . .	$660	16

This estimate is about 105 dollars for each individual, and they are expected to repay it to the society in rent and labor, besides maintaining themselves, in about 16 years. Each allotment of 7 acres is laid out in a rectangle, having the house with one end toward the road, and the other reaching 50 feet into the allotment.

The dwelling occupies the part next the road; then comes the barn, after that the stalls for the cattle, and behind these the reservoir for manure, in which every particle of vegetable and animal refuse is carefully made up into compost, with the heath and moss of the land; the preparation of this compost being one of the most essential of their labors. The colonists are subjected to a kind of military regulation, all their work being done by the piece. They assemble at six in the morning, in summer and winter, and those who do not answer to their names at the roll-call get no wages for the day. When the labor of the day is over, each receives a ticket stating the amount of wages; and for that he may procure food from the store at fixed rates. Those who are at first unable to support themselves obtain credit for a short period. The women spin, weave and knit, at first from purchased wool and flax, but as soon as possible from the produce of their own flocks and fields. A day and a half's work every week is allowed for the support of the sick, the infirm, and those who are not fit for labor; and for this, those who work are allowed one shilling per day in summer, and eight pence in the winter. The whole of the necessaries and appointments are regularly inspected with military care, and such as have been wasteful are obliged to make good what they have destroyed. It will be borne in mind, that the whole stock out of which each family of 6 or 8 persons is to find support, and, if they can, effect some savings, is the stock of 660 dollars, and the 7 acres of waste land, which is of a description not the most susceptible of cultivation. The careful preparation of manure, the most remarkable feature in Chinese husbandry, is the grand resource; and the result is most encouraging, as an example of how much regularity and perseverance may effect with small means. As the preparation of manure is still very imperfectly understood in this country, and as many families throw away what constitutes, with these colonies, the elements of prosperity, we give some details from Mr. Jacob's book, the utility of which must compensate for their homeliness. When the house and barn are built, the soil formed, by mixing sand and clay to a consistence which makes it sufficiently retentive of moisture, the land manured, dug, and one crop sowed or planted on it, then a family, consisting of from 6 to 8 persons, is fixed on it at an expense, as before stated, of 660 dollars. To enable this household to subsist, to pay the rent, and to save something, it is necessary that very assiduous manuring be persevered in. The directors, therefore, require, and, by their enforcement of the prescribed regulations, indeed, compel each family to provide sufficient manure to dress the whole of the land every year. For this purpose, each household must provide itself with 300 fodder of manure yearly; or, in English terms, 150 tons, or at the rate of more than 20 tons to each acre. When it is considered that few of the best English farmers can apply one half that quantity of manure, it will not appear wonderful that 7 acres should be made to provide for the sustenance of the same number of persons, and leave a surplus to pay rent and to form a reserve of savings. On each farm, the live stock of 2 cows, or 1 cow and 10 sheep, to which may be added pigs, would not nearly enable the cultivator to manure his small portion of land once even in 4 or 5 years. It hence becomes necessary to form masses of compost, the collecting the materials for which forms the greater part of the employment of the colonists. These masses are created almost wholly by manual labor, of that kind which, but for such an application of it, would be wholly lost to the community. As straw is, at best, in the early period, not abundant, and as that from the corn must, at first, be chiefly used as food for the cattle or for covering to the houses, other materials, which the heaths furnish, are resorted to in order to make beds for the cattle. The heath land is pared, but the operation is to cut with the spade a very thin slice of the earth, and not to the bottom of the roots of the plants, that they may, as they soon will do, shoot again; the parings are not only made thin, but in narrow strips or small spots. Thus but little soil is taken away, and the roots, though cut, are not all of them destroyed; the parts that are left bare are protected from being too much dried up by the sun and wind, and the seeds of the ripe heather are scattered over the spaces left bare near them, and soon bring forth the same plants. By this operation, there is a constant succession provided of healthy material. This paring for the heath is a joint operation performed by the men in a kind of military lines. The society pays each for the work he performs, and, when the average cost is ascertained, the sods are sold to the several households at the same price, and are carried to their respective farms in small one-horse carts, which are kept by the

society for that and for similar purposes, to which mere manual labor cannot be so beneficially applied. When these sods are dried and conveyed to the barns of the colonists, they are piled in a kind of stack, and portions of it are pulled out, not cut out, to ensure their being broken into small fragments. With these the bedding of the cows or sheep, as the case may be, is formed. The use of bog turf or peat, as one of the materials of compost, is not approved. It impedes the process of fermentation, which is the most important part of the preparation of the heaps of manure. Another expedient is therefore adopted, by paring the second year's grass land, whether of clover, ray grass or fiorin. These clods, containing a proportion of the roots of the plants which have been before harvested from them, and much garden mould, become useful auxiliaries to the heathy turf, and spare the use of that material, which, if solely applied, would require almost as much land to supply it as the farm itself. Fresh material is added to the bedding of the cattle every morning and evening, and remains under them 7 days, when the whole is wheeled to the dunghill. Each morning, that which lies near the hinder part of the cow is thrown forward, and the part towards its head takes its place, and fresh heather, about a quarter of a fodder, or 250 pounds, added to the bedding; the same is also done every evening. The sheep and pigs are only supplied with fresh heather once a day. It is reckoned that ten sheep make an equal quantity of dung with one cow. It must be obvious to every one, that the changing and consequent turning over 13 times must make the mixture of the animal and vegetable substances more equably rich; and the uniform treading of it must break it into small particles, and give greater scope to the fermentative putrefaction. Each week, the stalls are cleaned, and the dung conveyed to the place appointed at the back of the barn. This is of a round shape, from 3 to 4 feet in depth. The bottom and sides are walled with either clinkers or turf, and made water-tight. It is commonly from 12 to 14 feet in diameter, and sufficiently capacious to contain the dung made by the cattle in the course of four weeks. The mass is thus composed of portions which have remained from 4 weeks to 1 day, over which the ashes from the household and all the sweepings of the premises are strewed. Adjoining to the dung-heap is the reservoir, into which the drainings of the stalls are conveyed. Equal care is taken that every other material for compost is preserved. In England, little attention is paid to these matters; and, even in agricultural districts, many of the most valuable ingredients for fertilizing the earth (soap-suds, for instance) are constantly thrown away. This sesspool, containing about a hogshead, is never allowed to run over, and, if it has not rained, is every other day filled up with water, and then, with a scoop, taken up, and sprinkled over the heap of dung. This heap contains 4 weeks' dung, or 30 fodder, or 15 tons; and the administering 14 such portions of rich fermenting matter must vastly enhance the value of the whole for the purposes of vegetation. At the end of the fourth week, the dung-hole (called, locally, the *gierback*) is emptied, and its contents thus again turned over, the most putrid parts being, by this means, brought to the top: it is formed into a heap from 3 to 5 feet high, and carefully covered with sods: by this covering, the fermentative heat is prevented from evaporating, and the rain-water is kept from the mass, into which, if it penetrated, it would check fermentation. When the heap has lain and fermented during 1, 2 or 3 months, it is carried to the field which is to be manured with it. The covering of sods is separated from the heap, and carried to the dung-hole, where it is laid at the bottom of the next monthly accumulation, and imbibes with it an equal proportion of vegetative power.—The following are the sums of produce and expenditure for each family for one year:

Total produce, ...	$222 52
Expenses, including rent (about $2,80 an acre), ...	184 46
Surplus each year, ...	$38 06

The desire of gain, and the approbation of the superintendents, are, in general, found to be sufficient encouragements both to industry and good conduct. When these are not enough, forfeiture of privileges, confinement and hard labor are resorted to. There are also badges of honor—medals of copper, silver and gold. Those who have the copper medal may leave the colony on Sundays without asking leave; the silver is given to those who have made some savings, and they are allowed to go beyond the colony in the intervals of labor on working-days; and when they are entitled to the gold medal, by having shown that they clear $97,08 a year by their labor, they are free-tenants, and released from all the

regulations of the colony. These privileges may, however, be suspended for offences. In the course of 7 years from its first establishment, the colony of Frederics Oord contained a population of 6778, including that of Omne Schanze, which is under a more rigid control. Among the number were 2174 orphans and foundlings. The total number forming all the colonies in Holland was stated to Mr. Jacob as 20,000, but he thinks it exaggerated; there were, however, 8000 in North Holland. Every attention is paid to the education of the young.

COLONIES, MILITARY, of Russia. (See *Military Colonies.*)

COLOR. Color is a property of light (q. v.), the knowledge of which can be gained from no description, but is acquired by means of the organ of sight. Coloring substances, or paints, often improperly termed *colors*, are made use of to impart a color to other substances, either by application or admixture. White and black are counted among colors in the latter sense, but not at all, or seldom, in the former, in which sense a white body is very properly called *colorless*. Black is merely the absence of all light. Colors, both alone and united, have different properties, and produce different effects upon the organs of sense, by means of their harmony or contrast, which are particularly important to painters, and are properties arising from the nervous sensibility. Thus scarlet is a burning color, injurious to the eyes; and it is probably on this account that beasts are so violently excited by it. Yellow is the brightest, red the warmest, deep brown and violet the softest among colors. The passing of one color into another, by mixture, has been displayed in tables, pyramids, &c., for the use of the painter, the colorer, the mineralogist, &c.; but it requires constant familiarity with colors, to make upon the mind impressions sufficiently deep to enable us to distinguish these fine shades of color with correctness. (See *Colors, Doctrine of.*)

Colors, Doctrine of. The doctrine of colors, in a general sense, is the science of the origin, the mixture and effects of color, as a property of light. How, for instance, is it, that light at one time is colored, at another white? and by what laws are the appearances of colors governed? The glass prism was the first contrivance that gave a satisfactory solution of these questions, and sir Isaac Newton (*Optics*, London, 1706) the first philosopher who explained and published the solution. If a ray of light is allowed to pass into a dark room through a small opening in a shutter, and is made also to pass through a smooth, three-sided glass prism, we find, 1. that the ray of light, at its entrance into, and at its passage out of, the glass, is turned from its direct course; it is said to be refracted into a different direction; 2. that the ray of light, which, falling directly upon a piece of paper before the prism, produces a round white spot, produces, when the paper is held behind the prism, a colored figure, about five times as long as it is wide, and exhibiting the colors of the rainbow, arranged in the same order as they are seen in that phenomenon. This figure or appearance is called the *prismatic spectrum.* The length of it is found to be in a direction perpendicular to the axis of the prism. It is red at the end which is nearest to the refracting angle of the prism, and violet at the end most remote from it, while orange, yellow, green, blue and indigo follow each other in the intervening space. Newton concluded from this, and a great variety of similar experiments, that these colored rays are the simple rays of light, and that white light is composed of the union of them all, according to the relations which they exhibit in the prismatic spectrum. Every white ray of light, therefore, contains all the colored rays united; but they are not recognised by us, since they produce upon the retina, where they are thus united, the impression we term *white.* These colored rays are reflected from all bodies according to similar laws, so that reflected white light is still white; but they are refrangible in different degrees; this property being least in the red rays, moderate in the green, and in the greatest degree in the violet; and they are, on this account, separated from each other whenever they are refracted; since, from their different refrangibility, although they are parallel, when they fall upon the refracting substance, they take different lines of direction in passing through it. They follow each other, in this respect, in the following order; first violet, then indigo, blue, green, yellow, orange and red. When these same colored rays are rendered parallel again, and so fall upon the eye, they appear white, as at first. Most bodies possess the property of fixing or absorbing some of these colored rays, which fall upon them, and thus only reflect or transmit rays of a particular color; and upon this property, according to Newton, the colors of all bodies depend. Blue silk, for example, absorbs six colored rays, and reflects only the blue; and a solution

of cochineal transmits only the red, and absorbs all the other rays. All this is confirmed by the experiments with colored disks revolving rapidly upon a rod, and with the colored spectrum falling upon colored bodies. Newton has explained this theory in his Optics. But, notwithstanding the talent which it displays, it is still not entirely satisfactory. Several writers (especially Wunsch, in his Experiments and Observations upon the Colors of Light, *Versuche*, &c. *über die Farben des Lichts*, Leipsic, 1792) have made changes and improvements in this theory, particularly in regard to the number of simple colored rays, which some have reduced to three and others to two.

Colors of Plants. We find in plants eight fundamental colors, which are called *pure* and *unmixed* colors—white, gray, black, blue, green, yellow, red and brown. Each of these exhibits seven varieties, which, in respect to their gradations, are entirely equal and alike. Thus, for example, of white, there are pure or snow-white; whitish or dirty white; milk or bluish white; amianthus or grayish white; ivory or yellowish white; *parzellan* or reddish white; and chalk or brownish white. The blue crocus often changes into yellow; the blue violet to white; the blue columbine to red; the red tulip to a yellow, and the yellow to a white, &c. The same thing may be observed in fruits. Linnæus has inferred the properties, and especially the taste of plants, from their color. Yellow is generally bitter, red sour, green denotes a rough alkaline taste, paleness a flat taste, whiteness a sweet, and black a disagreeable taste, and also a poisonous, destructive property. Colors, in the vegetable as well as in the animal world, appear to be in truth a secret of nature. How, for instance, bright yellow and deep red or green are made to appear side by side upon a leaf, separated by the finest lines only, and yet not produced by any variety of properties which is perceptible to any of our senses, is a mystery to us. Moreover, nature, in some cases, appears to distribute colors with the greatest regularity, while, in other instances, she sports in the most lawless irregularity.

Coloring; one of the essential parts of painting (q. v.), viz. that part which relates to colors. Besides a knowledge of the art of preparing and mixing colors, and the whole mechanical process, from the beginning to the finishing of a picture, which, in the various kinds of painting, varies according to the materials of each, coloring comprehends the knowledge of the laws of light and colors, and all the rules deducible from the observation of their effects in nature, for the use of the artist. This subject has been treated by Leonardo da Vinci, in his work on painting; Lomazzo and Gerard Lairesse, in books on the same subject; Mengs, in his *Praktischer Unterricht;* Göthe, in his *Farbenlehre*, &c. The skill of the painter presupposes a natural ability, founded on superior sensibility, viz. the ability to image forth, and, in the imitation, to express with characteristic truth, the peculiar substance and color of any object under the influences of the light and air. To make this imitation successful, an accurate attention to the local tones and tints is requisite. By *local tones* we understand the natural color of an object as it appears on the spot where it stands, or from the spot where the spectator is supposed to be stationed. In works of art, the natural color of an object appears always as a local tone, because every object must be regarded from only one point of view; conformably to which the natural color is modified according to the supposed distance. By *tints* we understand, in a more restricted sense, the gradations of the clear and obscure, which lights and shadows produce on the colored surface. (See *Chiaro scuro.*) In no object of art do these modifications and shades exist in greater delicacy and diversity than in the naked human body, which is, consequently, the most difficult subject for a painter. Coloring, in as far as it is an imitation of the color and character of flesh (the naked body), is called *carnation.* (q. v.) If, in addition to the accurate coincidence of the natural colors, local tones and tints of a painting, with its original, the artist hits the expression of the peculiar character of the substance of which the object consists, the coloring is called *true.* But to truth should be joined beauty, which is attained by the harmonious union of all the tones of the painting into one leading tone. The coloring must conform to and promote the object of the painting, as a work of art, and, by the harmony of the colors and lights, as well as by the truth of the local colors, and of the individual parts of the subject, constitute one beautiful whole. In the choice of lights and the distribution of colors, the artist should aim, not only at clearness of representation, but, at the same time, at the production of a pleasing harmony, which should aid the general impression of the piece. Consequently, *keeping* and *chiaro scuro* are comprehended in the idea of correct, beautiful coloring. We

often see pictures, in which the colors are true to nature, but which have little merit as works of art, because they are deficient in that harmonious union of excellences which is essential to a beautiful painting.

COLOSSUS (Lat.; κολοσσός, Gr.), in sculpture; a statue of enormous magnitude, whence the Greek proverb κολοσσαῖον το μέγαθος. The practice of executing statues of colossal dimensions and proportions is of very high antiquity. The people of the East, from the most ancient times, have been celebrated for colossal sculpture. The pagodas of China and of India, and the excavated caverns of the East, abound with *colossi* of every denomination. The Asiatics, the Egyptians, and, in particular, the Greeks, have excelled in these works. The celebrated colossus of Rhodes was reckoned one of the seven wonders of the world. This statue, which Muratori reckons among the fables of antiquity, was raised, by the Rhodians, in honor of Apollo. There are many contradictory accounts in ancient authors concerning this colossal statue of Apollo; but the following, gathered from several sources, is not devoid of interest, though mixed up with much fable. When Demetrius, king of Macedon, the son of Antigonus, laid siege to the city of Rhodes, because the Rhodians would not renounce their alliance with Ptolemy Soter, they were succored by their allies, and particularly by Ptolemy, so effectually, that the besiegers were compelled to abandon their enterprise. The Rhodians, in recognition of their regard for these services of their allies, and of the protection of their tutelary deity, Apollo, resolved to erect a brazen statue of the sun, of a prodigious size. Chares, the disciple of Lysippus, was intrusted with the project. He had scarcely half finished the work, when he found that he had expended all the money that he had received for the whole, which overwhelmed him so completely with grief and despair, that he hanged himself. Laches, his fellow-countryman, finished the work in the space of three Olympiads (twelve years), and placed the enormous statue on its pedestal. Pliny does not mention the latter artist, but gives all the honor to Chares. Scarcely 60 years had elapsed before this monster of art was thrown from its place by an earthquake, which broke it off at the knees; and so it remained till the conquest of Rhodes by the Saracens, in A. D. 684, when it was beaten to pieces, and sold to a Jew merchant, who loaded above 900 camels with its spoils. Strabo, Pliny, and other ancient authors, who lived at the time that the colossus of Rhodes is said to have been in existence, and who could have learned from contemporaries the truth or falsehood of the accounts of it, give its height at 70 cubits, or a hundred English feet. Other authors, who flourished since its destruction, report its height at 80 cubits. Pliny also relates other particulars, as that few persons could embrace its thumb, and that its fingers were as long as ordinary statues, which, calculated by the proportion of a well-made man, would make its height nearer to 80 than 70 cubits. Perhaps the latter dimension may relate to its real altitude to the crown of its head, and the greater to its altitude if erect. But we are not aware that any writer has given this reason for the ancient difference. The statue was placed across the entrance of the harbor, with its feet on two rocks; and the Rhodian vessels could pass under its legs. Some antiquaries have thought, with great justice, that the fine head of the sun, which is stamped upon the Rhodian medals, is a representation of that of the colossus. Of other colossal statues, those which were executed by Phidias are among the most celebrated for beauty and elegance of workmanship. They were his Olympian Jupiter and his Minerva of the Parthenon. The virgin goddess was represented in a noble attitude, 26 cubits or 39 feet in height, erect, clothed in a tunic reaching to the feet. In her hand she brandished a spear, and at her feet lay her buckler and a dragon of admirable execution, supposed to represent Erichthonius. On the middle of her helmet a sphynx was carved, and on each of its sides a griffin. On the ægis were displayed a Medusa's head and a figure of victory. This colossal work was not only grand and striking in itself, but contained, on its various parts, curious specimens of minute sculpture in *bassi rilievi*, which Phidias is said to have brought to perfection. His Olympian Jupiter was executed after the ungrateful treatment that he received from the Athenians, when he abandoned the city of his birth, which he had rendered celebrated by his works, and took refuge in Elis. Animated rather than subdued by the ingratitude of his countrymen, Phidias labored to surpass the greatest works with which he had adorned Athens. With this view he framed the statue of Jupiter Olympius for the Eleans, and succeeded even in excelling his own Minerva in the Parthenon. This colossal statue was 60 feet in height, and completely imbodied

the sublime picture which Homer has given of the mythological monarch of the heavens. While describing the *colossi* of ancient times, we should not forget the magnificent and extravagant proposal of Dinocrates to Alexander the Great, of forming mount Athos into a colossus of that conqueror; nor a similar proposal, in modern times, of sculpturing one of the Alps, near the pass of the Simplon, into a resemblance of Napoleon. Among other celebrated *colossi* of ancient times, historians record as eminently beautiful, that which was executed by Lysippus at Tarentum. It was 40 cubits or 60 feet in height. The difficulty of carrying it away, more than moderation in the conqueror, alone prevented Fabius from removing it to Rome, with the statue of Hercules, belonging to the same city. *Colossi* were in use also in Italy before the time when the Romans despoiled their vanquished enemies of their works of art. The Jupiter of Leontium in Sicily was 7 cubits in height, and the Apollo of wood that was transported from Etruria, and placed in the palace of Augustus, at Rome, 50 feet. The same emperor also placed a fine bronze colossus of Apollo in the temple of that god, which he built near his own palace. The earliest colossus recorded to have been sculptured in Rome was the statue of Jupiter Capitolinus, which Spurius Carvilius placed in the capitol after his victory over the Samnites; but *colossi* soon became far from scarce. Five are particularly noticed; namely, two of Apollo, two of Jupiter, and one of the sun. There has been dug up, among the ruins of ancient Rome, a colossal statue of the city of Rome, which was reckoned among the tutelary divinities of the empire. The superb *colossi* on the Monte Cavallo, called by some antiquaries the *Dioscuri*, are magnificent specimens of Grecian art; so are the Farnese Hercules and the gigantic Flora of the Belvedere. It used to be the common opinion, that the *colossi* on Monte Cavallo both represented Alexander taming Bucephalus. They are now generally believed to represent the *Dioscuri* Castor and Pollux; the statue which, according to the inscription on the pedestal, is the work of Phidias, being intended for Castor; the other, of inferior value, and, according to the inscription, the production of Praxiteles, representing Pollux. The original design of these statues is not known; nor does it appear from history what led Praxiteles, after an interval of about 80 years, to execute a counterpart to the work of Phidias, in case the inscription is to be credited. The editors of Winckelmann's works (vi. 2d part, p. 73, and v. p. 560), on account of the elevated character of the first of these statues, think it reasonable to attribute it, as the inscription does, to Phidias; for in the individual parts there is no narrow, labored care perceptible in the execution, no overwrought polish and elegance. From various inequalities on the statue of the man—for instance, on the chin—they conjecture that this work was not completed by that great master, and hence was not esteemed so highly at first as afterwards, when the era of noble Grecian sculpture had passed away, and when the statue was probably first set up. But, as the primitive design of the work required a counterpart, they conjecture that the sculpture was committed to Praxiteles, the most perfect artist of that period. On this hypothesis, they explain the marks of a later age in the second statue, particularly the great dexterity with which the master has imitated the first, and finished every part without seeming to be a mere copyist. The want of that lofty spirit which distinguishes the earlier statue they ascribe to the constraint of the artist in forming a counterpart to a previous work, and to the circumstance that Praxiteles, belonging to an age which was fond of the gentle and soft, entered the lists with the giant of an earlier period in the arts (Winckelmann's Works, vi., 2d part, p. 155.) Canova has attempted to prove, from the nature of the groups, that in both, the hero and horse were so placed that the two could be seen at once; and perhaps it was so originally; but the horse is now exactly opposite to the spectator, and the whole is less agreeably grouped. Rome possesses several other *colossi*, of admirable workmanship, as the colossal statue of Alexander the Great, in the Colonna palace; the rare colossus of Antoninus, in the Palazzi Vitelleschi; the celebrated statue of the Nile; the four statues that surround the splendid fountain and obelisk of the Piazza Navona, the admired work of Bernini. They are personifications of four of the principal rivers in the world; namely, the Ganges, which was sculptured by Fran. Baratta; the Nile, by Antonio Fancelli; the Danube, by Claude Franc; and the Rio de la Plata, by Antonio Raggi. Other colossal statues of less consequence are also found among the beautiful works of art in this city. The pride and ambition of the Roman emperors led them to encourage sculptured representations of their persons. Nero was the first

who ventured on a colossus of himself, by Zenodorus; but, after his death, it was dedicated to Apollo or the sun. Commodus afterwards took off the head, and replaced it with a portrait of himself. Domitian, actuated by a similar ambition, prepared a colossus of himself as the deity of the sun. Among more modern works of this nature is the enormous colossus of San Carlo Borromeo, at Arona, in the Milanese territory. It is of bronze, 60 feet in height, and has a staircase in its interior, for the purpose of occasional repairs and restorations. The bronze colossus, copied from one of the Monte Cavallo statues, in Hyde park, London, and a few but little larger than life, of the size that may be termed *heroic* rather than *colossal*, such as decorate some public buildings and commemorative columns, as those on St. Paul's cathedral; lord Hill's column in Shrewsbury; the Britannia, on the Nelson column, at Yarmouth; the duke of Bedford, in Russel square; Charles Fox, in Bloomsbury square, &c., are nearly all that England can boast of in this noble style of art. The four colossal statues at Paris, which are in front of the façade of the palace of the *corps législatif*, are in good taste, and show great boldness and freedom in the execution. They represent the four greatest legislators of France—Sully, Colbert, L'Hopital, and D'Aguesseau. They are in their proper costume, and seated. Canova's Perseus is also much larger than life, and a very fine work. It belongs rather to the heroic than the colossal.

Colour. (See *Color*.)

Colquhoun, Patrick; a metropolitan magistrate, noted as a writer on statistics and criminal jurisprudence. He was born at Dumbarton, in Scotland, in 1745, and, early in life, went to America to engage in commerce. In 1766, he returned home, and settled as a merchant at Glasgow, of which city he became lord provost, and was likewise chairman of the chamber of commerce. Having removed to London, he was made a police magistrate in 1792; in which situation he distinguished himself by his activity and application; the result of which was, a Treatise on the Police of the Metropolis, published in 1796. This work procured him the honorary degree of LL.D. from the university of Glasgow. In 1800, he published a work on the police of the river Thames, suggesting a plan, afterwards adopted, for the protection of property on the river, and in the adjacent parts of the metropolis. He was also the author of a Treatise on Indigence, exhibiting a general View of the National Resources for Productive Labor; a Treatise on the Population, Wealth, Power and Resources of the British Empire; and a tract on the education of the laboring classes. Mr. Colquhoun died April 25, 1820, aged 75, having resigned his official situation about two years previous to his decease.

Columba, St., a native of Ireland, founded the monastery of Icolmkill. About 565, he went into Scotland, and was favorably received by the king Bridius, who gave him the isle of Hy, where he established his famous seminary. He died in 597, having acquired great influence.

Columbanus, a missionary and reformer of monastic life, born in 560, in Ireland, became a monk in the Irish monastery of Benchor, went through England to France, in 589, with twelve other monks, to preach Christianity, and founded, in 590, the monasteries of Annegray, Luxeuil and Fontaine, in Burgundy. His rule, which was adopted in later times by many monasteries in France, commands blind obedience, silence, fasting, prayers and labor, much more severe than the Benedictine rule, and punishes the smallest offences of the monks with stripes, the number of which proves the barbarism of his times, and his savage character. He retained also the old ecclesiastical customs of the Irish, among which is the celebration of Easter at a different time from the Roman church. Queen Brunehaut banished him on account of his inflexibility of character, 609; upon which he went among the heathen Alemanni, and preached Christianity in the vicinity of Bregentz, on lake Constance. His companion Gal (that is, Gallus, founder of the monastery St. Gal) obstructed his success by his violence in destroying the monuments of the heathens, till a war, in 612, put a stop to his labors. Columbanus then went into Lombardy, and founded the monastery of Bobbio, in which he died, Oct. 22, 615. His intrepid, violent and heroic spirit is displayed in his letters to the popes Gregory I and Boniface IV, in which he refused to celebrate Easter with the Roman church, warned the popes against heresies, and represented, in a strong light, the corruption of the church. His services in reforming the monastic discipline, and the number of his miracles, caused him to be canonized. His writings are few, and of the ascetic kind. His rule was observed the longest in the large, rich monastery of Luxeuil, and was supplanted

first, in the ninth century, by the Benedictine. The habit of his monks was white. (See *Benedictines.*)

Columbarium (*Lat.*), in ancient architecture; a pigeon-house or dove-cote. *Columbarium fictile;* an earthen pot for birds to breed in. In the cemeteries of the ancient Romans, the apertures that were formed in the wall for the reception of the cinerary urns were also called *columbarii*, from their resemblance to the openings of a pigeon-house.

Columbia; a post-town in Richland district, South Carolina, and the seat of the state government; 35 miles S. W. Camden, 73 N. E. Augusta, 120 N. N. W. Charleston; lon. 81° 7′ W.; lat. 33° 57′ N.; population, in 1820, 3000. It is situated opposite to the confluence of the Saluda and Broad rivers, which unite here to form the Congaree. From the river there is a gradual ascent for one mile; then commences a plain of between two and three miles in extent, gradually descending on every side. This elevated plain forms the site of the town, which presents a handsome and extensive prospect. The town was formed in 1787. It is regularly laid out. The streets intersect each other at right angles, and are 100 feet wide. Columbia is a flourishing town, and contains a state-house, a court-house, a jail, a market-house, an academy for males, and one for females, a college, and 4 houses of public worship—1 for Episcopalians, 1 for Presbyterians, 1 for Baptists, and 1 for Methodists. The state-house is of 2 stories, 170 feet by 60, and is situated in the central part of the town. The houses display much taste and elegance. A steam-boat plies between this town and Charleston. The South Carolina college was founded in this town in 1802, but degrees were not conferred here until 1807. It is under the liberal patronage of the state legislature, from which it has received annually a grant of $10,000 or $12,000. The college buildings are 2 edifices, of 3 stories, about 210 feet long, and 25 wide, containing a chapel, recitation-rooms, and rooms for the accommodation of students; a large building containing a library of about 5000 volumes, and an extensive philosophical apparatus; and houses for the accommodation of the president and professors; all of brick. It is under the direction of a board of trustees, consisting of the governor, lieutenant-governor, president of the senate, speaker of the house of representatives, the judges of the state, and 13 other members, elected by the legislature every 4 years. It had, in 1824, a president, 4 professors, 2 tutors, and 102 students.

Columbia College. (See *New York.*)

Columbia, District of; a tract of country 10 miles square, on both sides of the Potomac, about 120 miles from its mouth, ceded to the U. States, by Virginia and Maryland, in 1790. It includes the cities of Washington, Alexandria and Georgetown. Population in 1810, 24,023; slaves, 5395: population in 1820, 32,039. The exports of this district, in 1827, amounted to $1,182,000; the shipping, in 1819, to 22,141 tons. This district is under the immediate government of congress, and is remarkable chiefly for containing the city of Washington, which became the seat of the government of the U. States in 1800. The surface is uneven, but there are no high hills, and the soil is thin and sandy.

Columbia River; a large river of North America, which rises, according to Mackenzie, in the Rocky mountains, about lon. 121° W., lat. 54° 23′ N., within a few miles of the source of the Unijah or Peace river, and, after a course of about 1500 miles, flows into the Pacific ocean between point Adams and cape Disappointment, lon. 123° 54′ W., lat. 46° 19′ N. The three great tributaries of this river are the Multnomah, Lewis's river and Clark's river, all flowing into it on the S. E. side; the Multnomah 139 miles from its mouth, Lewis's river 413, and Clark's 600 miles. At the point of the junction of Lewis's river, the Columbia is 960 yards wide. The tide flows up 183 miles, to within 7 miles of the great rapids. Vessels of 300 tons may reach the Multnomah, and large sloops may ascend as high as the tide. Above the rapids, the navigation is good for 65 miles, when it is interrupted by the long narrows; and 6 miles higher up, that is, 261 miles above the mouth of the river, it is interrupted by falls of 20 feet perpendicular; above the falls, the navigation continues good to the junction of Lewis's river. The portages around these obstructions of the navigation amount, in all, to 5 miles. The entrance of the Columbia lies between breakers, which extend from cape Disappointment to a point on the southern shore, over a sort of bar or extensive flat. The entrance into the river and the egress out of it are difficult at all seasons, and, from October to April, extremely dangerous; and, in the opinion of experienced navigators, it cannot, at any season, be entered by loaded vessels of 400 tons. The westerly wind prevails on this coast, and the sea breaks on the bar with great violence. The first modern naviga-

tor that entered this river was Mr. Gray, commander of the ship Columbia, of Boston. He entered it in 1791, and since that time the river has been known by the name of *Columbia*. It was before called the *Oregon* and *River of the West*. The country bordering on the Columbia, towards the ocean, is covered with heavy timber, consisting almost wholly of fir, of which captains Lewis and Clark mention 7 species, some growing to a great height. The soil is fertile, composed of a dark rich loam. The length of the valley from north to south has never been ascertained. The climate is much milder than in the same parallel on the Atlantic coast.

Columbite, or Tantalite, is the name of the mineral in which the metal *columbium* is found. It occurs in single crystals, or in small crystalline masses, disseminated through granite. The form of its crystal is that of a right rectangular prism, variously terminated at one or both of its extremities. It is black, opaque, scratches glass, and is possessed of a specific gravity varying from 6.46 to 7. It contains, according to Wollaston, oxide of columbium 80, oxide of iron 15, oxide of manganese 5. It sometimes contains, also, the oxides of tungsten and of tin. Columbite was first found in Connecticut, at New London, afterwards in Finland, and more lately at Bodenmais, in Bavaria. It is occasionally met with at Haddam, in Connecticut, and has very recently been discovered at Chesterfield, in Massachusetts. Columbite, notwithstanding its numerous localities, is still an exceedingly rare substance.

Columbium. This metal was discovered, in 1801, by Mr. Hatchett, who detected it in a black mineral, belonging to the British museum, which was originally sent to sir Hans Sloane by governor Winthrop, of Connecticut, and was supposed to have been found near New London, in that state. About two years after, M. Ekeberg, a Swedish chemist, extracted the same substance from tantalite and yttro-tantalite, and, on the supposition of its being different from columbium, described it under the name of *tantalum*. The identity of these metals, however, was established, in 1809, by doctor Wollaston.—Columbium exists in its ores as an acid, united either with the oxides of iron, manganese and tin, as in the columbite or tantalite; or in combination with the earth yttria, as in the yttro-columbite, or yttro-tantalite. This acid is obtained by fusing its ore with three or four times its weight of carbonate of potash, when a soluble columbate of that alkali results, from which columbic acid is precipitated as a white hydrate by acids. When this acid is exposed to the united agency of charcoal and intense heat, it is reduced to the metallic state. The metal is brittle, of an iron-gray color, and feebly-metallic lustre. Its specific gravity is 5.6. It is not attacked by the nitric, muriatic or nitro-muriatic acids, but is converted into the acid by being heated with potash or nitre. Columbium has hitherto been obtained in very minute quantities, and has never been applied to any economical purpose. Columbite, the ore from whence it is obtained, has of late been discovered in several places in New England.

Columbo; a city of Ceylon; 70 miles S. W. Candy; lon. 79° 47′ E.; lat. 6° 58′ N.; population estimated at upwards of 50,000. It is the capital of the island, the seat of government, situated on the S. W. part. The plan of the city is regular, nearly divided into four quarters by two principal streets, and the town is built more in the European style than most garrisons in India, though but few of the houses have more than one story. It is a place of considerable trade; but the harbor is difficult of access, and unsafe for large vessels. Scarcely any place in the world displays a greater variety of nations, manners and religions.

Columbus, Christopher (in Spanish, *Colon*; in Italian, *Cristoforo Colombo*, which is his real name), one of the greatest men mentioned in history, was born in Genoa, about 1435, and not, as some assert, at Cuccaro, in Montferrat. His father, Domenico Colombo, a poor woolcomber, gave him a careful education. He soon evinced a strong passion for geographical knowledge, and an irresistible inclination for the sea, and, at 14 years of age, he began to navigate in the Mediterranean. We afterwards find him in command of a vessel, in a squadron which a relation of his had fitted out against the Mohammedans and Venetians. In one of his engagements with the Venetians, the vessel which he commanded took fire, and Columbus saved his life by swimming ashore. Portugal, at that time, attracted the attention of Europe by her maritime expeditions, and Columbus repaired to Lisbon, where he found relations and countrymen. Here he married the daughter of Bartolomeo de Palestrello, a distinguished navigator, who had participated in the discovery of Porto Santo, and had left many charts and nautical instruments. Columbus made use of these

materials, and his opinion that the other side of the globe contained land, belonging to Eastern Asia, and connected with India, which was, as yet, little known, became more and more fixed. Whilst the Portuguese were seeking for it by a south-east course round Africa, he was convinced that there must be a shorter way by the west. He applied in vain to his native city, Genoa, for assistance, and equally fruitless were his endeavors to interest John II of Portugal in the enterprise. He then determined to apply to the Spanish court. His brother Bartholomew sailed for England, but was captured by pirates. Columbus explained his plan to Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain, and, after an 8 years' struggle with the obstacles thrown in his way by ignorance and malice, he received 3 small vessels, with 120 men. Two of the vessels were light barques, called *caravals*, like the coasting craft of modern days, with forecastles and cabins for the crew, but without a deck in the centre. These caravals, called the *Pinta* and the *Niña*, were commanded by two brothers, named *Pinzon*. The third vessel, on board of which was Columbus, was completely decked. The dignity of high-admiral and viceroy of all the countries he might discover was conferred on him, the former to be hereditary in his family. A certain share of the profits was secured to him by a written contract with the sovereigns.—It was early in the morning of Friday, on the third of August, 1492, that Columbus set sail from the port of Palos. Eighteen years had elapsed since he had first conceived the idea of this enterprise. Most of that time had been passed in almost hopeless solicitation, amidst poverty, neglect and ridicule; the prime of his life had been wasted in the struggle, and, when his perseverance was finally crowned with success, he was about 56 years of age. Nor should it be forgotten that it was to Isabella (q. v.) alone that he was finally indebted for the means of executing his project, which had been coldly rejected by the prudent Ferdinand. Having provided himself, at the Canary islands, with fresh water, he sailed south-west into an ocean never before navigated. But when 21 days had elapsed without the sight of any land, the courage of his men began to sink. It was certain, they said, that they should perish, and their visionary commander ought to be forced to return. Some of them even proposed to throw him overboard; and Columbus had to exert all the powers of his daring and commanding spirit, to prevent an open rebellion. A phenomenon, which surprised even him, filled his pilots with consternation: the needle deviated a whole degree. But the sea appeared suddenly covered with grass, and again showed symptoms of shoals and rocks. Numbers of birds were also seen. Columbus sailed in the direction from which they flew. For some days, the voyage was continued with revived courage, until, at last, the dissatisfaction of the crews began to break out into open violence; but Columbus, after endeavoring in vain to pacify his men by promises, finally assumed a different tone, and told them it was useless to murmur; that he was determined to persevere. Fully convinced that he must be near the land, he promised a reward to whosoever should first discover it. All hands remained on deck during the night, and, after Columbus had himself discovered land, Oct. 11, and pointed it out to some of his friends, the cry of *Land* was raised at midnight from the Pinta, which, from her superior sailing, kept ahead of the other vessels. It was the island of Guanahani. On landing, Columbus threw himself upon his knees, and kissed the earth, returning thanks to God. The natives collected round him in silent astonishment, and his men, ashamed of their disobedience and distrust, threw themselves at his feet, begging his forgiveness. Columbus, drawing his sword, planted the royal standard, and, in the name of his sovereigns, took possession of the country, which, in memory of his preservation, he called *St. Salvador*. He then received the homage of his followers, as admiral and viceroy and representative of the sovereigns. Being informed by the natives that there was a rich gold country towards the south, Columbus directed his course towards that region, and discovered Cuba on the 28th October, and Española (Hispaniola, Hayti) on the 6th December; but, as one of his vessels was wrecked, and the other separated from him, he resolved to carry the news of his success to Spain. Having built a wooden fort from the wreck of his vessel, he left in it 39 volunteers, and set out on his return January 4, 1493. The day after he left the island, he met the Pinta, which had been missing. Both vessels were afterward nearly wrecked in a tremendous storm. Columbus, more interested for his discovery than for himself, wrote an account of his voyage on a piece of parchment, which he secured in a cask, and threw the whole overboard, in the

hope that it might be carried ashore. He had hardly finished this work, when the gale subsided. March 15, he reëntered the port of Palos, amid the acclamations of the people, the thunder of cannon and the ringing of bells. He hastened immediately to Barcelona, where the court then was, and entered the city in a triumphal procession, with the productions of the newly-discovered countries carried before him. A chair was placed for him next to the throne, and, seating himself, he gave an account of his discoveries. He was created a grandee, and all the marks of royal favor were lavished upon him. Sept. 25, 1493, he set sail from Cadiz with 3 large ships of heavy burden, and 14 caravals, carrying 1500 men. Nov. 2, he arrived at Hispaniola. Finding the colony he had left destroyed, he built a fortified town, which he called, in honor of the queen, *Isabella*, and of which he appointed his brother Diego governor. He immediately left the island, in order to make new discoveries, visited Jamaica, and, returning, after a voyage of 5 months, worn down with fatigue, found, to his great joy, that his brother Bartholomew, who had escaped from his captivity, had arrived at Isabella, with provisions and other supplies for the colony. Meanwhile, a general dissatisfaction had broken out among his companions, who, instead of the expected treasures, had found hardships and labor. They set on foot many calumnies, and gave the most unfavorable description of the country and the viceroy. Columbus thought he could not better oppose these reports than by sending considerable treasures to his sovereigns, and, for this purpose, collected gold from the natives, which was not done without violence and some cruelty. Aguado, a personal enemy of Columbus, was sent as commissioner to investigate the complaints against the great discoverer, who, thinking it time to vindicate himself in the presence of his sovereigns, prepared to return to Spain. Having appointed his brother Bartholomew *adelantado* or lieutenant-governor, he embarked for Spain, March 10, 1496, with 225 Spaniards and 30 natives. In Spain, calumny was silenced by his presence, and probably still more by his treasures. Yet his enemies were powerful enough to detain the supplies intended for the colony a whole year, and to prevent the fitting out of a new expedition for Columbus another year. It was not till May 30, 1498, that he sailed, with 6 vessels, on his third voyage. To man these vessels, criminals had unwisely been taken—a measure which Columbus himself had advised, and which had been taken up, with great satisfaction, by his enemies. Three of his vessels he sent direct to Hispaniola; with the three others, he took a more southerly direction, for the purpose of discovering the main land, which information derived from the natives induced him to suppose lay to the south of his former discoveries. He visited Trinidad and the continent of America, the coasts of Paria and Cumana, and returned to Hispaniola, convinced that he had reached a continent. His colony had been removed from Isabella, according to his orders, to the other side of the island, and a new fortress erected, which was called *St. Domingo*. Columbus found the colony in a state of confusion. After having restored tranquillity by his prudent measures, in order to supply the deficiency of laborers, he distributed the land and the inhabitants, subjecting the latter to the arbitrary will of their masters, and thus laying the foundation of that system of slavery which has lasted down to our time. His enemies, in the mean time, endeavored to convince his sovereigns that he had abused his power, and that his plan was to make himself independent, till, at last, even Isabella yielded to the wishes of Ferdinand, who had previously become convinced of the truth of the slanders. Francisco de Bobadilla was sent to Hispaniola, with extensive powers, to call the viceroy to account. As soon as he reached the island, he summoned Columbus to appear before him, and put him in irons. His brothers were treated in the same manner. All three were sent to Spain, accompanied by a number of written charges, drawn up from the statements of the bitterest enemies of Columbus. Columbus endured this outrage with noble equanimity, and wrote, as soon as he had arrived in Cadiz, Nov. 23, 1500, to a lady of the court, vindicating his conduct, and describing, in eloquent and touching language, the treatment he had received. Orders were immediately sent, directing him to be set at liberty, and inviting him to court, where his sovereigns received him with the same distinction as formerly. Isabella was moved to tears, and Columbus, overcome by his long-suppressed feelings, threw himself upon his knees, and, for some time, could not utter a word for the violence of his tears and sobbings. He then defended himself by a simple account of his conduct, and was reinstated in his dignities. Ferdi-

nand even consented to dismiss Bobadilla, which was intended for the first step towards the promised restoration of the great discoverer to his dignities. But these dispositions in the monarchs were soon changed. There was much talk of great expeditions, and, in the mean time, Nicolo de Ovando y Lares was sent as governor to Hispaniola. Columbus still urged the fulfilment of the promises solemnly made to him; but, after two years of delay, he became convinced that there was no intention to do him justice. But his noble mind had now learned how to suffer, and he was principally desirous of completing his work. Supposing the continent which he had seen to be Asia, he did not doubt that he should find, through the isthmus of Darien, a way to the East Indies, from which the first fleet of the Portuguese had just returned, richly laden. In four slender vessels, supplied by the court for this purpose, Columbus sailed from Cadiz, on his fourth and last voyage, March 9, 1502, with his brother Bartholomew and his son Fernando; arrived, contrary to his wishes, off St. Domingo, June 29, and was denied permission to enter the port, for the purpose of refitting his vessels, and escaping an approaching storm. He succeeded, however, in anchoring his small squadron in a place of safety, and rode out the storm, whilst 18 vessels, which had put to sea in spite of his warning, were almost entirely destroyed. He then continued his voyage to Darien, but without finding the expected passage. Two of his vessels were destroyed by a gale; the two others were wrecked off Jamaica, where he was scarcely able to save himself and his companions. Here the severest trials awaited the constancy of Columbus. Separated from the other part of the world, his destruction seemed to be certain. But he succeeded in procuring a few canoes from the natives, and prevailed on some of his boldest and best men to attempt a voyage to Hispaniola, in two canoes, in order to inform the governor of his situation. Several months elapsed without a glimpse of hope. Part of his companions, reduced to despair, rebelled, repeatedly threatened his life, separated from him, and settled on another part of the island. Here they alienated the minds of the natives, by their cruel treatment, so much that they ceased to bring them supplies. The death of all seemed inevitable; but Columbus, whose courage rose with the danger, preserved his men in this crisis. He had ascertained that a total eclipse of the moon was about to take place, and threatened the natives with the vengeance of his God if they should persist in their enmity. As a proof of his assertion, the moon, he said, would lose its light, in token of the chastisement which awaited them. When they beheld his threat verified, they hastened to bring him provisions, and implore his intercession with the Deity. But hostilities now broke out between him and the rebels, in which several of the latter were killed, and their leader was taken prisoner. After remaining a year on the island, relief at last appeared. The two canoes had reached Hispaniola in safety, but the messengers could not prevail on the governor to undertake the deliverance of the admiral. They finally bought a vessel themselves, and it was on board of this ship that Columbus left Jamaica, June 28, 1504. He went to St. Domingo, but only to repair his vessel, and then hastened back to Spain. He arrived in Spain sick and exhausted. The death of the queen soon followed, and he urged in vain on Ferdinand the fulfilment of his contract. After two years of illness, humiliations and despondency, Columbus died at Valladolid, May 20, 1506, in the 70th year of his age. His remains were transported, according to his will, to the city of St. Domingo, but, in 1795, on the cession of Hispaniola to the French, they were removed, with great pomp, to the cathedral of Havannah, in Cuba. The chains which he had worn, he kept hanging in his cabinet, and requested that, when he died, they might be buried in his grave. A splendid monument was erected in honor of him, in a Carthusian convent at Seville, where his body was first deposited. In the vigor of manhood, Columbus was of an engaging presence, tall, well formed and muscular, and of an elevated and dignified demeanor. His visage was long, his nose aquiline, his eyes light-gray, and apt to enkindle. His whole countenance had an air of authority. Care and trouble had turned his hair white at 30 years of age. He was moderate and simple in diet and apparel, eloquent in discourse, engaging and affable with strangers, and of great amiableness and suavity in domestic life. His temper was naturally irritable, but he subdued it by the benevolence and generosity of his heart. Throughout his life, he was noted for a strict attention to the offices of religion; nor did his piety consist in mere forms, but partook of that lofty and solemn enthusiasm, with which his whole character

was strongly tinctured. Of a great and inventive genius, a lofty and noble ambition, his conduct was characterized by the grandeur of his views and the magnanimity of his spirit. The treatment which he experienced from his court showed that ingratitude is not confined to republics. The two men who have probably done most, in modern times, to change the face of the world have been Italians—Columbus and Napoleon.—For further information respecting the life of Columbus, we refer the reader to the Life of Columbus (in Italian), by Bossi (French translat. Paris, 1824); Columbus and his Discoveries, by Spotorno; Memorials of Columbus (original writings of Columbus, translated from the Spanish and Italian, London, 1824); and *Codice Diplomatico Colombo Americano*, Genoa, 1823, 4to. Navarete's Collection of the Voyages of Discovery made by the Spaniards (collected from the archives), Madrid, 2 vols. 4to., and French, Paris, 1825, contains the journals of Columbus, and many letters, then first printed. The latest account of the great discoverer is Washington Irving's Life and Voyages of Columbus, 3 vols. 8vo., New York, 1828, abridged by the same, 1 vol. 12mo., New York, 1829.

Columbus; a post-town, and seat of the government of the state of Ohio, in Franklin county, on the east bank of the Scioto, near the centre of the state, 45 miles N. of Chillicothe, 101 N. E. of Cincinnati; lat. 39° 47′ N.; lon. 83° 8′ W.; population, in 1828, about 1500. It was first laid out in 1812, and is pleasantly situated on rising ground, just below the confluence of Whetstone river with the Scioto. It contains a brick state-house, an edifice for the public offices of the state, a penitentiary, a market-house, and three printing-offices. The state-house is built on a public square, situated in the centre of the town, and comprising ten acres; and the cupola commands an extensive and delightful landscape, over a finely variegated country.

Columella, Lucius Junius Moderatus, the most learned practical writer on agriculture among the ancients, born at Cadiz, in Spain, lived about the middle of the first century, and wrote twelve books, which are still extant, *De Re Rustica*, one of which, on gardening, is in verse. He treats, in this work, of all branches of agriculture. He also wrote a book on the cultivation of trees. The best edition is by Gesner, in his collection *Scriptores Rei Rusticæ*, Leipsic, 1735, 2 vols. quarto.

Column (*columna*, Lat.), in architecture; a round pillar. In the earliest periods of the world, the column was merely the trunk of a tree, or its imitation in stone, used to support the roof. The parts of a complete column are its *base*, on which it rests, its body, called the *shaft*, and its head, called the *capital*. Columns are used to support the entablature of an order, which has also its proper division. (See *Architecture* and *Order*.) In the most ancient times, columns of wood were the most usual, as being the most easily wrought. In countries like Egypt, where timber fit for construction is scarce, and stone abundant, the latter became the principal material for columns, and those of Egypt are remarkable for the beauty of their workmanship, and the durability of their materials. The Greeks used marble of the finest kind, with which their country abounded, for their columns; and other nations, the stone or material of their country. The Greeks properly considered the column as an essential part of the architecture of their temples, and never used it as a mere decoration. The manner of constructing the columns of all the orders rests upon similar principles. They are all divided into three primary parts or divisions, the base, the shaft, and the capital, except the Doric order, which has no base. The lowest or thickest part of the shaft is used by architects as the universal scale or standard whence all the measures which regulate and determine heights and projections are taken; and this standard or scale must be understood before any architectural design can be commenced. The universal architectural scale *is*, and is *called*, a *diameter*, being the diameter of the lowest or largest part of the column; and, unlike the foot, inch or yard, is as various as the size of columns. By the diameter, of course, is meant that of the circle which forms the bottom of the column. Half of this diameter, or the length of the radius which forms the circle, is called a *module*, and is used, as well as the diameter, as a primary standard of mensuration, by some writers upon architecture. These measures of length are subdivided as follows, namely, the diameter into 60 parts, and the module into 30 parts, each part being the same in length, which are called *minutes*. Both mensurations are the same, only under different denominations; as, for instance, one author says a column, which always includes the base, shaft and capital, is six diameters, twelve minutes high, while another would say of the same column and its admeasurements, that it is twelve modules

and twelve minutes, both meaning the self-same dimension. The *Doric* column has no base. The *Ionic* column has one peculiar to itself, called the *Attic*, which, with that of the *Corinthian* order, is described under the article *Architecture, Grecian Style of.* The shafts of the different orders differ in height, and even in various examples of the same order, as may be seen in the articles *Architecture* and *Order.* The capitals are also as various. Columns are either plain or fluted; and the flutes and manner of dividing them are different in the Doric and Corinthian orders. The Ionic flutes much resemble the Corinthian, and, in many instances, are exactly similar. Twisted, spiral and rusticated columns, like those of Borromini, in various buildings in Rome, and the Baldacchino of St. Peter's, are in bad taste, and to be avoided. Columns are also often used for monuments, as well as for architectural supports; like the Trajan and Antonine columns in Rome, and that called the *Monument*, in London. There are also *astronomical columns*, like that which Catharine de' Medici erected at the Halle au Blé, in Paris. The Romans had their *columna bellica*, which was near the temple of Janus, and from which war was proclaimed by the consul casting a javelin from it towards the country of their enemy; also *chronological columns*, whereon they inscribed historical events according to the order of time. They had also a *lacteal column*, which was erected in the vegetable market, and contained in its pedestal a receptacle for infants that were abandoned by their parents. (See *Juvenal*, Satire vi. v. 601.) The *legal column* was one on which the ancients engraved their laws; the *limitative* or *boundary column* marked the boundary of a state or province; the *manubial column* was ornamented with trophies and spoils taken from the enemy, the *rostral column* with the prows (*rostra*) of the ships obtained in a similar manner. The first column of this description was that which was erected in the capitol, on the occasion of the naval victory which Caius Duillius obtained over the Carthaginians. It is now on the balustrade of the grand staircase of the Campidoglio. Augustus raised four, decorated with the prows of the vessels which were taken from Cleopatra. Two were also erected to the honor of Caius Menius, for a naval victory over the Latins and Antiates. The *sepulchral column* was elevated upon a sepulchre or tomb, with an epitaph engraved upon its shaft. The *triumphal column* was erected by the Romans in commemoration of a conqueror to whom had been decreed the honors of a triumph. The joints of the stones were concealed by crowns obtained by military conquests. The columns of Trajan and Antonine, besides their specific objects, are also triumphal columns. The British parliament, when they voted the magnificent palace of Blenheim to the great duke of Marlborough, also erected a triumphal column in the park. On the four sides of the pedestal are inscribed descriptions of the victories of that great commander, and his statue is upon the abacus, supported by figures of captured enemies, and surrounded by trophies. The *milliary column*, or *milliarium aureum*, of Rome, was originally a column of white marble, which Augustus erected near the temple of Saturn, in the forum, as a centre whence the account of the miles began in the calculation of distances from the city. This celebrated column is still in existence, being placed on the stylobate in front of the Campidoglio, the modern capitol of Rome. It is a short column, with a Tuscan capital, and has a ball of bronze, as a symbol of the globe. It was called *golden*, either because it was once gilded all over, or at least the globe and ornamental accessories. As a companion to it is a similar column, bearing on its summit a vase, containing the ashes of Trajan. Among the principal insulated commemorative or triumphal columns now remaining is *Pompey's pillar*, or *column*, at Alexandria, in Egypt. Opinions have differed much as to the date of its erection, and to whose memory it was raised. Its style is that of the age of Diocletian and of the lower empire. Engravings and descriptions of this ancient monument may be found in the works of Denon, and other travellers in Egypt. It is of Thebaic granite, of the Corinthian order, and, according to the best authorities, measures 64 feet in the shaft, about 5 feet in the base, 10 feet in the pedestal, and from 10 to 11 in the capital. A Greek inscription was discovered by the British, who were there at the time of sir Ralph Abercrombie, which dedicates it to the emperor Diocletian, under the government of the prefect Portius. The opinion sustained by its common name, that it was erected by Cæsar to commemorate his victory over Pompey, has had respectable supporters. Denon and some other writers have supposed it part of an immense building, of which they trace the ruins adjoining. It has been sometimes thought to commemorate the favors of Adrian to this city,

and still more frequently those of Severus; while some writers ascribe its erection to Ptolemy Philadelphus, in memory of his queen Arsinoë; and others to Ptolemy Euergetes. The *Trajan column* is one of the most celebrated monuments of antiquity. Its height, including the pedestal and statue, is 132 feet. This monumental column was erected in the centre of the forum Trajani, and dedicated to the emperor Trajan for his decisive victory over the Dacians, as is testified by the inscription on the pedestal. It is of the Doric order, and its shaft is constructed of 34 pieces of Greek marble, joined with cramps of bronze. For elegance of proportion, beauty of style, and for simplicity and dexterity of sculpture, it is the finest in the world. The figures on the pedestal are masterpieces of Roman art. It was formerly surmounted by a statue of Trajan, which has been succeeded by a statue of St. Peter. The *column of the emperor Phocas* is near the temple of Concord. It is of Greek marble, fluted, and of the Corinthian order, 4 feet diameter, and 54 feet high, including the pedestal. The *Antonine column* was erected by the Roman senate to the glory of Marcus Aurelius, for his victories over the Marcomanni, in the reign of Commodus. Aurelius afterwards dedicated it to his father-in-law, Antoninus Pius. According to a rigid admeasurement, made by M. de la Condamine, this column is 116 French feet in height, and 11 in diameter. It is built entirely of marble, and encircled with *bassi rilievi*, which form 20 spirals around its shaft. It has been well illustrated by engravings and descriptions by Pietro Santi Bartoli. It is in every respect inferior to that of Trajan as a work of art, particularly in the style and execution of the sculptures. It was repaired, in 1589, by Fontana, under the pontificate of Sixtus V. who placed a colossal statue of St. Paul upon its summit. There is also in Rome another column bearing the same name, situated on the Monte Cittorio. Its shaft is of a single piece of Egyptian granite, 45 feet in height, and 5 feet 8 inches in diameter. Its pedestal is ornamented with *bassi rilievi*, representing the apotheosis of Antoninus and Faustina, and other events relating to the history of Rome. It was repaired by Lambertini. Pius VI removed the *bassi rilievi* to the Vatican. There is an engraving of it in the 5th volume of the *Museo Pio-Clementino*. On one of its sides it has the following inscription:—"Divo Antonino Avgvstino pio Antoninvs Avgvstvs et Vervs Avgvstvs filii." Till the commencement of the 18th century, there were to be seen at Constantinople 2 insulated columns, ornamented with *bassi rilievi*, in the style of the Trajan column at Rome. One was erected in honor of Constantine, and the other of Arcadius or Theodosius. Of the latter there is nothing left but its granite base, the column having been destroyed by the Turks. It had been several times damaged by earthquakes, and they were fearful of its falling. The *Constantine column* was composed of 7 large cylindrical blocks of porphyry, and was originally surmounted by a statue of Constantine. After having been several times damaged by fire, it was repaired by the emperor Alexis Comnenus, as is indicated by an inscription in Greek. Of modern columns, that called the *Monument*, at London, which was erected in commemoration of the great conflagration of 1666, is at once the loftiest, the best constructed, and the most beautiful. It is a Doric fluted column, 202 feet high from the bottom of the pedestal, which is ornamented with *bassi rilievi* of Charles II and his court giving protection to the fallen city, and various inscriptions, to the top of the vase of flames, by which it is surmounted. There are, also, several smaller columns, but of beautiful proportions, in various parts of England, in imitation of the above, but mostly of the Grecian or pure Doric order, as the Anglesea column, erected in commemoration of the battle of Waterloo, and the noble earl of that name, in the island of Anglesea; the column at Shrewsbury, erected in commemoration of the same event, and of another noble general, lord Hill; the Nelson columns, at Yarmouth and in Dublin; the Wellington column, at Trim, in the county of Meath, Ireland, &c. To the above list, we may add the *Washington monument*, at Baltimore, on which a colossal statue of Washington has lately been placed. The ornaments of the monument are not yet completed (February, 1830). The pillar is of the Grecian Doric order, and of very massive proportions. It stands on a grand base or zocle, and is surmounted by a circular pedestal, on which the statue rests. This base or zocle of the monument is 50 feet square, and 25 feet high; the column is 20 feet in diameter, and, with its sub-base, 130 feet high; the capital is 20 feet square. The statue is 15 feet high, and the whole height of the monument, from the pavement, including the statue, will be 176 feet. As it stands on a hill 100 feet high, this structure rises 276 feet above tide. It is con-

structed of white marble, which is slightly variegated, and is a very conspicuous object to every one approaching the city, whether by land or water. The statue greatly increases its effect, and gives finish and beauty to the whole structure. A flight of steps, on each side of the grand base, is to lead up to the door-ways. A broad frieze is to run round the exterior of the grand base, with a series of civic wreaths, each encircling a star, to designate the states of the Union. In the centre of the frieze, above the door-ways, are to be large marble tablets, inscribed with the name of Washington. Bronze inscriptions, commemorative of events in the revolution connected with the life of Washington, are to be placed on every front of the base. The base of the column above the great platform is proposed to be encircled with 13 colossal bronze shields, emblematic of the federal union; the faces of the shields to be ornamented with the arms of those states which formed the federal compact, divided by massive spears. The attitude given to the statue represents the great man to whom the monument is dedicated in the act of resigning his commission, and the authority with which he had been invested by his country, again into the hands of the people, having accomplished the great object of his appointment—the freedom and independence of the Union. The marble of which the statue is formed is of a very pure kind, free from veins, and is a fine specimen of the native white formation which abounds in the neighborhood of Baltimore. The statue, the work of Mr. Causici, weighs 16½ tons.

Column, in tactics; a deep, solid mass of troops, formed by placing several bodies of men behind each other (sections, platoons, companies, squadrons, and even several battalions). The column is either an open or a close one (with intervals, or having the sections close behind each other): it may be formed either for marching or for attack. By means of columns, it is possible to march in places where it would be impracticable to move with unbroken lines. They also increase the force and steadiness of troops, both in attack and defence. The drawing up of the infantry in line is advisable, where there is no obstacle in the ground to prevent advancing in this order, or when the enemy is to be received with the fire of musketry, and where cannon-balls and grenades are more to be feared than case-shot and musketry. The order in mass is to be preferred where you have to move in a broken or hilly country, where a charge is intended, in which physical force, given by the depth of the column, is necessary, and the fire of the enemy is to be avoided as much as possible (which, on account of the small breadth of the column, is comparatively ineffectual), and also where a charge, particularly of cavalry, is apprehended. Though a cannon-ball, and still more a grenade, in the midst of the mass, causes a greater havoc, the probability of being hit is diminished, on account of the small front exposed. An objection to columns, founded on the difficulty of moving so dense a mass, and of changing it into a line, has been removed, in modern times, by the practice of making the columns consist of only one battalion, and by disposing these single battalions near each other in such a way as to support one another by their fire, instead of arranging them uselessly behind each other. By the usual way of forming the columns towards the centre, these have received such a movability and facility of developement, that a line may be restored in two or three minutes. Almost all battles are fought, at present, by such small columns, which, when the order in line is judged more for the purpose, may be changed into lines, and which, besides, form the best squares for resistance against attacks of cavalry, by presenting a front to all sides, and unite many other advantages. In the case of cavalry, also, attacks may be made either in column or in line. The charge in close columns, which is in use particularly with the French, is of the greatest effect when it succeeds; but when it fails, the whole body of assailants is exposed to annihilation, or to rout, as no support, no developement, nor orderly retreat, is possible. The attack with columns at some distance from each other has this advantage, that, if the first division fails, the subsequent ones may succeed; moreover, the facility of manœuvring is much greater. This mode of attack is particularly advisable in assaulting squares of infantry. Marching and fighting in lines, however, are the modes usually practised by cavalry.—*Column-roads* are such roads as may be passed with all kinds of arms: when the ordinary road is ruined, they are laid out across the fields, and marked by poles with straw (*jalons*).

Comb (*camb*, Saxon); an instrument to separate and adjust the hair, too well known to need description. We have no certain authority, from either busts or medals, that either the Greek or the Etrus-

can women used this useful and ornamental appendage to their hair; although, in most of them, it is carefully and gracefully arranged. Nor in the articles that have been disinterred at Volterra and other Etruscan cities, where abundance of utensils and instruments of the female toilet have been found, has there been a single comb discovered. There is, therefore, no authority, with which we are at present acquainted, to inform us from whom the Romans borrowed this article of the toilet. Many of their sepulchral inscriptions are dedicated to their dressing maids (*ornatrices*). It is probable that the combs of the Romans were of ivory, box, gold, and silver; but, according to Guasco, they were also of iron and of bronze. In the work of that author, *Delle Ornatrici*, there are several representations of ancient Roman combs. One, in particular, at page 63, that was in the *museum Settala*, at Milan, is a long one of box, of which the handle is overlaid with ivory, and appears to have been ornamented with a small meander in gold. It has two rows of fine teeth, delicately wrought and well proportioned. Canova and other modern sculptors have made great use of the comb in their female busts, to which they add a grace and elegance unknown to those of the ancients.

Combat, in law, or Single Combat, denotes a formal trial, between two champions, of some doubtful cause or quarrel, by the sword or batoon. This barbarous way of deciding controversies was, in the middle ages, very common, not only in criminal, but also in civil causes. The form and ceremony of the combat are described in the *grand coutumier* of Normandy. The accuser first swore to the truth of his accusation; the accused gave him the lie; upon which he threw down a pledge of battle, and the parties were committed to prison till the day of combat. The legal combat belongs to the same class of absurdities as the formal trial of witches. (See *Duel* and *Champion*.)

Combination, in mathematics, is the variation or alteration of any number of figures, letters, colors, sounds, &c., in all the different manners possible. The parts combined are called *elements*.—The *doctrine of combination* is that branch of mathematics which teaches the results arising from all possible combinations, and gives rules respecting them.—*Combinatory analysis* is the application of the doctrine of combination to analysis, and constitutes a branch of science often very involved. A system of characters is appropriated to this purpose. Hindenburg, of Leipsic, in 1778, gave it the character of an independent science; and it has been of important service in relation to the higher branches of mathematics. (See Weingärtner's *Lehrbuch der combinatorischen Analysis*, Leipsic, 1801, 2 vols.) Permutations are those combinations in which, each time, all the elements are used, and the object is to determine how often they change their place, for instance, *abcd*, *acbd*, *bdac*, &c. The number of possible changes or combinations is found by multiplying the terms 1, 2, 3, &c. continually into each other; thus, $2 \times 3 = 6$; $6 \times 4 = 24$; $24 \times 5 = 120$, &c. Thus the combinations of five quantities amount to 120. The changes that may be rung on twelve bells amount to 479,001,600; and the twenty-four letters of the alphabet admit of 62,044,840,173,323,943,936,000 changes or combinations.

Combustion. It is not easy to give a correct definition, or to assign a general cause, of this familiar phenomenon. It may, however, be described as the result of the combination of two or more bodies, attended with a disengagement of heat and light. This description distinguishes *combustion* from *ignition*, which is merely the result of an elevation of the temperature, without any chemical combination. Fire was formerly considered as an element, which had the power of converting certain bodies into its own nature; but the progress of chemical science soon showed the error of this notion. Stahl's celebrated theory was founded on the hypothesis of the existence of a substance which he called *phlogiston*. Every combustible body was supposed to contain this substance, which was disengaged by combustion: the loss of the phlogiston was the cause of the residuum being incombustible. The heat and light were attributed to the violent agitation of the phlogiston at the moment of its disengagement. The discoveries of Black and Priestley opened the way to the system of Lavoisier, which, in 1785, entirely supplanted the theory of Stahl. During the conversion of solids into fluids, and of fluids into vapors, there is a considerable absorption of heat: when, on the contrary, vapors and liquids are restored to the fluid and solid form, the heat which they contain is evolved, and passes from the latent to the sensible state. (See *Caloric*.) These views were assumed by Lavoisier as the basis of his theory. Oxygen gas was considered as a compound of a peculiar basis, united to the matter of light and

heat, and combustion as the combination of oxygen with the burning body. During the combustion, the basis, combining with the combustible, augmented its weight and changed its properties; while the imponderable elements of the gas—light and heat—were developed in the form of flame. But facts prove this theory incorrect. In the first place, all the phenomena of combustion take place, in many cases, without the presence of oxygen. In the second place, there are many cases in which oxygen unites with bodies, without the evolution of light and heat, as during the change of some metals on exposure to the air. And, further, there are many instances in which combustion takes place not only without condensation, but where gaseous matter is actually produced from solid matter, as in the inflammation of gunpowder. Besides, the evolution of light, if it were derived from the gas, should be proportional to the quantity solidified, whereas it depends chiefly on the combustible. The first of these objections to Lavoisier's theory, which is yet generally received, has been partly removed by modifying the definition so as to extend it to several other bodies, hence called *supporters of combustion.* (See *Chemical Classification and Nomenclature*, vol. iii. p. 127.) The definition which we have given of this phenomenon at the beginning of this article is merely a description. The question arises, Whence come the light and heat? They are generally referred to the condensation which is almost always a necessary consequence of a chemical combination; but we have already seen that, in some cases, they are produced where the component parts actually pass from a solid to a gaseous state. It seems probable, in the present state of our knowledge, that they may be attributed to the disengagement of the electric fluid. "In every chemical combination," says Berzelius, "there is a neutralization of opposite electricities, and this neutralization produces the heat and light in the same manner as it does in the Leyden jar or the galvanic battery." But to this it may be objected, that, if electricity were the cause of the disengagement of the heat and light, they would always bear a fixed proportion to each other. This is not the case: the combustion of oxygen and hydrogen disengages a very great quantity of caloric, but very little light; that of phosphorus and oxygen produces opposite results. There is, then, no theory of combustion, at present received, which will explain all the circumstances of this phenomenon. If there be any one general cause, it must be one which, like affinity, is modified by the nature of the agents and the peculiar circumstances of their mutual action.

Comedy. (See *Drama.*)

Comenius, John Amos, a benefactor of mankind, by the improvements which he introduced into education, was born March 28, 1592, in the village of Comna, near Brumau, in Moravia; hence the name which he assumed: his real one is not known. His parents, belonging to the Moravian denomination, had him educated at Herborn. In 1616, he received an appointment as teacher, in Fulnek, which, in 1618, was plundered by the Spaniards. Comenius lost his papers, and all which he possessed, and fled to Poland, where, in 1632, he was elected bishop of the Moravian and Bohemian Brethren in Lissa. In 1631, he published, at Lissa, his *Janua Linguarum reserata*, a work which was translated, within 26 years, into 12 European languages, also into Persian, Arabian and Mongolian. In this, he laid down a new system for teaching languages to children by the use of visible signs, in order to facilitate the learning of words. His *Orbis pictus*, or the Visible World, was first published, in 1659, at Nuremberg. In 1641, he was invited to England, in order to introduce a better organization into the schools; but, as the civil war prevented the accomplishment of this plan, he went to Sweden, where the chancellor Oxenstiern became his patron. In 1656, he returned to Lissa, where he once more lost all his books and manuscripts on the burning of the town after the retreat of Charles X. Comenius died at Amsterdam, Oct. 15, 1671. In the latter part of his life, he gave himself up to religious dreams, after the fashion of that time, and revered Bourignon (q. v.) as a prophetess. Adelung gives the number of his works as 92, but there are only 54 now extant.

Come sopra (*Ital.;* as above, *or* as before); an allusion to the manner of performing some former passage, the style of which performance has been already denoted.

Come sta (*Ital.;* as it stands); an expression implying that the performer is not to embellish the passage with any additions of his own.

Comets. Of natural appearances, there are few that have been regarded with more superstitious apprehensions than those bodies which occasionally appear in the sky, luminous, like the stars, but generally distinguished from these by a tail, or train of fainter light, bearing some resemblance to a tuft or lock of hair. Of

this, the Latin name is *coma*, and in consequence, these bodies are called *comets*, to distinguish them from the other luminaries, which, whether near or remote, apparently fixed or movable, have not this train-like accompaniment. Comets are one of the three classes into which astronomers divide those celestial bodies that adorn the sky during the night. The stars, which retain their relative positions with regard to each other, and are at so great distances from the earth, that no means or instruments hitherto invented can measure them, are one class,—and a class not apparently connected with our sun, or deriving light or heat from that luminary. The planets, which change their relative positions among the stars, and of which our earth is one, form the second class. They are solid bodies, and not luminous in themselves, but shine merely by reflecting the light of the sun. The masses of the planets, their magnitudes, and their motions, have been all determined with the greatest accuracy; and the place that any one of them will occupy at any proposed point of time, can be calculated with the greatest ease, by any one acquainted with practical astronomy. The planets are, in their motions, governed by one uniform law. In the early ages, the planets were held to have certain influences upon individuals and nations. The comets, which are more singular in their form, and more varied in the times of their appearance, were still better adapted for superstitious purposes; and, accordingly, we find that their visits have been attempted to be connected with the great, more especially the calamitous, events of nations. The appearance of a comet is, however, no more a prodigy, and has no more influence upon the fate of men or of nations, than the appearance of the moon, or of a deciduous leaf upon a tree in spring. They are so distant, and either their motions are so rapid, or their substance is so rare, that none of them have been found to have any material action upon such of the planets as they have come near, although the planets have had a considerable influence upon them. What the comets are, or what purposes they serve in the economy of creation, we do not know. As far as observation has gone, they are subject to the same laws as the planets, revolving about the sun in orbits or paths, with this difference, that their orbits are much more eccentric, or differ much more from circles, than the orbits of the planets; and thus, while they approach much nearer to the sun at one time of their revolutions, they recede correspondingly farther from it at another. The time since men had rational opinions on the subject has, however, been too short for verifying, by observation, the theory as applicable to the whole, or even the greater number of these bodies that have, from time to time, made their appearance. Tycho Brahe was the first who expressed a decidedly rational opinion on the subject of comets. Finding, by careful observation, that the comet of 1577 had no diurnal parallax, which he could detect,—that is, that its place, when viewed from the surface of the earth, was not different from what it would have been if viewed from the centre,—he properly concluded that its distance from the earth must be greater than that of the moon, in which this parallax was apparent to him. This was one step; and it was an important one: it removed comets to such a distance from the earth, that their use could not well be supposed to be for it, or their influence upon it very great. The general law of the motion of bodies in free space, as well as his own particular observations on the comet of 1680, led Newton to conclude that the orbits of the comets must, like those of the planets, be ellipses, having the sun in one focus, but far more eccentric, and having their *aphelions*, or greatest distances from the sun, far remote in the regions of space. The idea thus thrown out by Newton was taken up by Dr. Halley, who collated the observations which had been made of all the twenty-four comets, of which notice had been taken previous to 1680. The results were abundantly curious; with but few exceptions, they had passed within less than the earth's shortest distance from the sun; some of them within less than one third of it; and the average about one half. Out of the number, too, nearly two thirds had had their motions retrograde, or moved in the opposite way to the planets. While Halley was engaged on these comparisons and deductions, the comet of 1682 made its appearance, and he set about observing it with great care, in order to determine the elements of its orbit. Having done so, he found that there was a wonderful resemblance between it and three other comets that he found recorded—the comets of 1456, of 1531, and of 1607. The times of the appearance of these comets had been at very nearly regular intervals,—at least, the differences had been only fractional parts of a year,—the average period being between 75 and 76 years. Their

distances from the sun, when in *perihelion*, or nearest to that luminary, had been also nearly the same, being nearly six tenths of that of the earth, and not varying more than one sixtieth from each other. The inclination of their orbits to that of the earth had also been nearly the same, between 17° and 18°; and their motions had all been retrograde. Putting them together, Dr. Halley concluded, that the comets of 1456, 1531, 1607, and 1682, were re-appearances of one and the same comet, which revolved in an elliptic orbit round the sun, performing its circuit in a period varying from a little more than 76 years to a little less than 75; or having, as far as the observation had been carried, a variation of about 15 months in the absolute duration of its year, measured according to that of the earth. For this variation in the time of its revolution, Dr. Halley accounted upon the supposition that the form of its orbit had been altered by the attraction of the remote planets, Jupiter and Saturn, as it passed near to them; and thence he concluded, that the period of its next appearance would be lengthened, but that it would certainly re-appear in 1757 or 1758. Its doing so was, of course, the fact that was to be decisive of the orbits of comets, and that they were regular and permanent bodies, obeying the general laws of matter. Halley did not live to see the verification of his prediction; he died in the year 1742, at the advanced age of 84. Soon after his death, Clairault, D'Alembert and Euler, three of the most eminent mathematicians of Europe, set about the solution of what is called "the problem of the three bodies;" that is, to determine the paths described by three bodies, projected from three given points, in given directions, and with given velocities, their gravitating forces being directly as their quantities of matter, and inversely as the squares of their distances. The object of this problem is to find the disturbing effects that the bodies composing the solar system have upon each other; and it applies to comets, when within the limits of planetary action, as well as to the planets themselves. After some errors, into which all the three had been led, and which gave a result that seemed to overturn the whole doctrine of gravitation, Clairault succeeded in obtaining an approximate solution, which agreed with and confirmed that theory. Having done so, he applied it to the calculation of the disturbing influence of Jupiter and Saturn, which Halley had predicted would retard the comet of 1682, in its re-appearance about 1758. The results of Clairault's calculations were, that the comet would be retarded 100 days by the attraction of Saturn, and 518 days by that of Jupiter, so that it would not come to the perihelion, or point of its orbit nearest the sun, till the 13th of April, 1759. Clairault, however, fixed certain limits, within which his calculations might probably be erroneous. It was eventually found that the difference between calculation and observation was less than that which he assigned. Clairault read his investigations to the academy of sciences in November, 1758; and, in little more than a month afterwards, the comet made its appearance; and it reached its perihelion on the 13th of March, in the following year, being 30 days earlier than he had calculated. Subsequent calculations enabled him to reduce the error to 19 days; and, though the calculations of the disturbing forces were only approximations, enough had been done to prove the return, and determine the orbit of one comet, and give every reason for concluding that all comets, being bodies of the same class, are subject to the same general laws as the planets, and only vary from each other in the proportion and magnitude of their orbits. There was one further confirmation. Clairault had calculated that the node of the comet's orbit, or the point in which it cut the plane of the orbit of the earth, would advance 2° 33′ in absolute space, or 1° 29′ more than the equinoctial points, the precession of which, in the time of the comet's revolution, was 1° 4′; and observation gave exactly the same result; so that the only difficulty that remained in the doctrine of comets was in the estimation of the disturbances to which they are exposed from the other bodies of the system, more especially in the parts of their orbits most remote from the sun, where their motions are comparatively slow. Along with the period of this comet, and its perihelion distance, the magnitude and form of its path were known. Estimating the mean distance of the earth from the sun at 95,000,000 miles, the mean distance of the comet is 1,705,250,000 miles; its greatest distance from the sun, 3,355,400,000; its least distance, 55,100,000; and the transverse, or largest diameter of its orbit, 3,410,500,000. Therefore, though its aphelion distance be great, its mean distance is less than that of Herschel; and, great as is the aphelion distance, it is but a very trifling fraction less than one five thousandth part of that distance from the sun, nearer than which

the very nearest of the fixed stars cannot be situated; and, as the determination of their distance is negative and not positive, —a distance within which they cannot be, and not one at which they actually are,— the nearest of them may be at twice or ten times that distance. The comet of 1759 is, therefore, a body belonging to the solar system, and quite without the attraction of any body which does not belong to that system; and, as this is determined of one comet, analogy points it out as being the case with them all.—Besides the comet of 1759, of which there have been four authenticated returns, and which may be expected again about 1833, there are two others, of which something like a return has been traced at long intervals. One of these passed its perihelion at about 8 o'clock on the morning of the 6th of July, 1264, reckoning mean time at Greenwich; and again, at a little past 8 o'clock, on the evening of the 21st of April, 1556. Thus its period is about 292 years, and it may be expected in 1848. The perihelion distance, however, of this comet, which was more than half that of the earth, in 1264, had diminished an eighth part by 1556; and, as this must have caused a great elongation of its orbit, and as, from the length of its period, it must go far into the regions of space, there is no knowing how both the time of its revolution, and the form and position of its orbit, may have been altered.—The other comet, in the elements of whose orbit there is a similarity, from which its identity might be with probability inferred, appeared in 1532, and again in 1661, having thus a period of about 129 years. The return of that comet should, therefore, have been about 1790. In that year, three comets made their appearance; but neither of them resembled the one of 1661. Two of them moved in the opposite direction; and the remaining one was more than twice the distance from the sun in its perihelion, and its orbit at nearly double the angle with that of the earth.—The comet denominated *Encke's comet*, which has engrossed the public mind generally, and the scientific world in particular, has justly claimed and received the careful attention of astronomers, since its appearance in 1818 engaged professor Encke to consider the elements of its orbit. He was enabled to identify it with a comet described by Messrs. Mechain and Messier in 1786, in the constellation Aquarius; also with a comet discovered in 1795, by Miss Herschel, in the constellation Cycnus; and with the comet in 1805. The investigation of the diligent professor enabled him to foretell its re-appearance in 1822, and to state the probability of its not being observable in our climate. This anticipation was realized by its discovery in New South Wales, in the observatory of the governor, sir Thomas Brisbane, June 2, 1822; and the accurate observations of Mr. Rumker, who discovered it, afforded Encke the means of reconsidering the true elements of its orbit, and with additional confidence computing its return for 1825. This occurred as was expected. The fresh data afforded by that return were carefully collated by the professor. It was observed again on October 30, 1828. This comet affords particular interest to the mind of the astronomer, though it does not offer a splendid object to his eye. Its orbit is an ellipse of comparatively small dimensions, wholly within the orbit of Jupiter: its period is about three years and three tenths—a much shorter period than has hitherto appeared to comprise the revolution of any other comet, with the exception of one seen in 1770, which did not satisfy, as far as observation has been able to show, the prediction of the period of five years and a half, which was attributed to it. In the opinion of Encke and other astronomers, this comet may afford an opportunity of proving that the heavens oppose a resisting medium to the motion of bodies. The subject has been discussed in the Transactions of the astronomical society of London, by the able mathematician Massotti; and that gentleman offers reasons for considering comets capable of affording a demonstration of a resisting medium in the heavens, though planets may give no indication of it.—Another comet, which encourages the anticipation of much astronomical gratification, is one which Biela discovered, Feb. 27, 1826, and which was afterwards seen by Gambart and others. It seems to possess claims to the attention of astronomers similar to that of Encke, it being conceived to revolve about the sun in about six years and seven tenths, and to be the same as the comet which appeared in 1772, and that which appeared in 1806. Encke's comet was in its perihelion, by computation, Jan. 10, 1829.—The comet of 1770, to which allusion has been made, would lead us to conclude that we are still ignorant of many of the causes by which the form of the orbits of comets, and the times of their revolution and return, may be disturbed. That comet moved almost in the plane of the earth's orbit, having an inclination of only about

a degree and a half; it had been observed with great care; and the result of the observations was, that it should return about every five years and a half. Instead of going out of the system, as may be presumed to be the case with those comets that have long periods and eccentric orbits, its greatest distance could not be much greater than that of Jupiter, while its mean distance from the sun was not much more than three times the perihelion distance of the earth. No comet, at all answering to that one, has, however, been again discovered; and therefore the conclusion is, that there are, within the system itself, causes which can completely alter the motions of these bodies; but what those causes are, other than the attraction of the planets, has not yet been ascertained. One remarkable difference between the comets and the planets is in the angles which their orbits make with that of the earth. Leaving out the small planets that have recently been discovered, all the others are contained within a zone extending only 7° on each side of the earth's orbit; and, with the exception of Mercury (by far the smallest of the *old* planets), they are within half that space. But the orbits of the comets are at all possible angles; and the number increases with the angle, so that they approximate to an equal distribution, in all directions, round the sun as a centre. The numbers that have been observed are as follows:—Under 10° of inclination, 8; under 20°, 19; under 30°, 26; under 40°, 37; under 50°, 47; under 60°, 63; under 70°, 79; under 80°, 88; and under 90°, about 100. Thus by far the greater number of the comets have their paths out of the direction of those of the planets; and hence, though they be bodies of such consistency as that their collision with the planets would produce serious consequences, there is but little chance that such collision can take place. The comets that have been observed have made their passages through very different parts of the solar system: 24 have passed within the orbit of Mercury; 47 within that of Venus; 58 within that of the Earth; 73 within that of Mars; and the whole within that of Jupiter. Of a hundred, or thereabouts, mentioned by Lalande, about one half have moved from west to east, in the same direction as the planets, and the other half in the opposite direction. The direct and retrograde ones do not appear to follow each other according to any law that has been discovered. From 1299 to 1532, all that are mentioned were retrograde; and five that were observed from 1771 to 1780 were all direct. —Being quite ignorant both of the size of the comets, and their quantities of matter, we can form no conclusion as to their effects, even upon the positions of the planets. Hitherto, their influence, if anything, has been very small; for, within the limits that must be allowed for error, even in the best tables that are calculated upon an approximation, the whole of the irregularities are explainable upon the hypothesis of planetary disturbance alone; and the system appears to have gone on just as if there had been no comets in it. That the comets are formed of matter of some sort or other we know, from the dense and opaque appearance of their nucleus, as well as from the action of the planets upon them; but, as their action upon the planets has not been great, or even perceptible, we are led to the conclusion that they are not bodies of the same density or magnitude as even the smallest and rarest of the planets. When a comet is viewed through a telescope of considerable power, there appears a dense nucleus in the centre of the luminous and apparently vaporous matter, of which the external parts are composed; and the opacity of this nucleus varies in different comets. On its first appearance, and again when it recedes, the luminous part of the comet is faint, and does not extend far from the nucleus; but, as it moves on towards the perihelion, the brightness increases, and the luminous matter lengthens into a train, which, in some cases, has extended across a fourth of the entire circumference of the heavens. But, though the general fact of the increased brightness of comets, and length of their tails, with their approach to the sun, and the consequent inclination of their motion, has been established, the observations have not been uniform or minute enough for proving what proportion the increase of brightness bears to the increase of the velocity, and the diminution of the distance from the sun. No doubt, all the comets of which there are well-authenticated accounts, of great brightness and length of tail, have passed near the sun in their perihelion. Thus the comet of 1769, which was not a fifth of the earth's perihelion distance from the sun, had a tail of 60° in length, as seen at Paris; while that of 1759, which was more than half the earth's perihelion distance distant, had a train of only 2° or 3°. The length of the tail varies, however, not only with the time at which it is observed, but with the place of observation—a difference prob-

ably depending on the difference of clearness and purity in the air. The tail of the comet of 1759 was 25° long, as measured at Montpellier, in the south of France, and considerably more than that as measured at the Isle of Bourbon, in the Indian ocean. That of 1769 was 60° at Paris, 70° at Boulogne, 90° between Teneriffe and Cadiz, and 97° at Bourbon. Generally speaking, they appear to be brighter and larger when seen at sea than on land, and in the warmer regions than in those nearer the poles. When the superstitious fear of comets, as portending harm to the inhabitants of the earth, had vanished before the light of philosophy, that light was in some danger of giving rise to fear of another sort—fear of physical harm to the earth itself, by the collision of some comet that might cross its path. We have no evidence, however, that such a collision ever did happen, either with the earth or with any other planet; and we have not absolutely correct means of so calculating the place of a comet as to be able to say with certainty that, on a given day, during a given month, or even during a given year, it shall cross the orbit of a planet. The motion of the earth in its orbit is, in round numbers, more than a million and a half of miles in a day; and as Clairault, with all his care, did not come nearer the truth than 19 days, though the collision of a comet and the earth should be calculated from any known data, the earth might, in fact, be, at the time, far enough from the comet. Indeed, though the fact of the return of two comets be established, namely, Halley's and Encke's, and the return of every one, if not affected by physical causes that lie beyond the limits of our present knowledge, has been rendered exceedingly probable, yet we can observe them for so short a portion of their courses, and these seem so very apt to be altered, that we ought not to speak of them with anything like the certainty with which we speak of the planets. As far as we have been able to examine them, they appear to obey the same laws as the other distinct masses that make up the known part of the system of the universe. Beyond this we know nothing of their nature; and as for their effects, moral or physical, we need give ourselves no trouble about them, for there is not a trace of the existence of such effects upon any authentic record.—Respecting the hypotheses relating to the structure of comets, and particularly to their tail, professor Fischer, of Berlin, has given valuable information in Bode's *Astronomisches Jahrbuch* (Astronomical Yearbook), 1823, p. 90. See, also, the French edition of Schubert's Astronomy (Petersburg, 1822, vol. 2, p. 510). To learn their mathematical relations, see *Nouvelles Méthodes pour la Détermination des Orbites des Comètes*, by Legendre (Paris, 1806, 4to.); and Olbers' *Neue Methode die Bahn eines Kometen aus eigner Beobachtung zu berechnen* (Weimar, 1797). La Place's *Théorie du Mouvement et de la Figure des Planètes et des Comètes* has become rare; but Biot, in the *Additions* to the third book of his *Astronomy*, p. 185, extracts the part relating to the theory of comets entirely from it.

Comfort, Point. (See *Point Comfort.*)

Comfortable; a very expressive word among the English, and people of English descent. It is also found even in recent French publications, probably carried to Paris by the innumerable English who visit the capital of France. Every nation has not only certain words which cannot be rendered precisely by any terms in other languages, but also certain ideas growing out of its customs, wants, &c., which do not exist with other nations, and which are the real cause of this peculiar significanee of particular words. Such a word is *comfortable*, which signifies more than a mere physical feeling of gratification. In fact, it has something of the same indefinable and untranslatable character with the word *home*—a word which expresses a vast deal of feeling, of a faithful and tender attachment. *A comfortable home* is an expression, of which it would be impossible to approach to a translation, in some other languages, for instance, in Italian; as an Italian finds his enjoyment in the open air in his lovely climate, and has little regard for the pleasures of home. Many circumstances may have coöperated to produce, among the English, their love of comfort, and the means for ensuring it which we find in their houses. In fact, the comforts of an English dwelling surpass every thing of the kind among other nations. We would confine our observation to the dwelling, because, as respects the whole manner of living, the degree of enjoyment is certainly much greater in France. It is always highly interesting to study those expressions by which a nation describes its habitual likings or dislikings, because they disclose, at once, the general disposition of the people. Such a one is *comfortable.* The German, in a pleasant state of mind, says he feels *gemüthlich*, or, of a person, *er ist ein gemüthlicher Mensch.* The Ameri-

can, in praise of a person, says, "He is an enterprising man." An *increasing* and *thriving* community is his ideal. The Frenchman, to express great aversion, says, *Je m'ennuie*. The Italian *dolce far niente* (sweet idling) is very characteristic of the disposition of the nation. Not only nations, but also ages, have their peculiar expressions, which are highly interesting.

Comines, Philippe de (seigneur d'Argenton), born, 1445, at the castle of Comines, near Menin, in Flanders, passed his youth at the court of the dukes of Burgundy, Philip the Good and Charles the Bold. He enjoyed the confidence of the latter, and contributed essentially to his reconciliation with Louis XI. He conducted other negotiations with equal sagacity, and, in 1472, entered the service of Louis XI, probably on account of the rash and violent character of Charles, and induced by the promises of Louis, who loaded him with marks of favor. After the death of Charles the Bold, Louis took possession of the duchy of Burgundy, sent Comines there, and, soon after, appointed him ambassador to Florence, where, during his year's residence, the conspiracy of the Pazzi broke out and failed. Comines displayed, on this occasion, the greatest activity in the cause of the Medici. He was then sent by Louis to Savoy, for the purpose of seizing the young duke Philibert, and of placing him entirely under the guardianship of the king his uncle. In 1483, Louis XI died. Under the following reign, Comines did not enjoy the same favor. Under the regency, he was made a member of the council, and took part with the princes in their plots against the mild and wise government of Anne de Beaujeu. He was involved in all the intrigues of the duke of Orleans, and was intimately connected with the old constable Jean de Bourbon. A conspiracy, in which he was engaged, having been discovered, he was confined eight months in an iron cage at Loches. He was afterwards tried before the parliament in 1488, and pronounced guilty of having an understanding with several rebels, and of other crimes. By the sentence passed upon him, which seems not to have been executed, he was exiled for 10 years to one of his estates, and the fourth part of his fortune was confiscated. Charles VIII employed him in several negotiations in Italy; but this monarch was too wavering and imprudent; the advice of Comines was little regarded, and he received no reward but reproaches and dissatisfaction. Under Louis XII, he seems not to have taken an active part in affairs. He died at Argenton, 1509. His Memoirs (most complete edition, London, 1747, 4 vols. 4to.) are valuable contributions to the history of the time. He relates, in them, the events which occurred during his life, and in most of which he had an active share, with great veracity, in lively, natural language, and displays everywhere a correct judgment, acute observation, and a profound knowledge of men and things.

Comitia, with the Romans; the assemblies of the people, in which the public business was transacted, and measures taken in conformity with the will of the majority. They existed even under the kings. In the time of the republic, they were convoked by the consuls; in their absence, often by the dictator, the tribunes, and, in extraordinary cases, even by the *pontifex maximus*. Their chief objects were, the choice of persons to fill the highest offices, legislation, the making of war and peace, and the punishment of crimes against the state. For the first purpose, they were assembled in the campus Martius; for the others, in the forum, capitol, or the comitium. The emperors retained these assemblies for the sake of appearance, but used them only as instruments for the accomplishment of their purposes. From the division of the Roman people into centuries, curiæ and tribes, the comitia were distinguished into the *comitia centuriata*, *curiata* and *tributa*. The most important were the *comitia centuriata*, in which the people voted by centuries. They could be held only on certain days. Seventeen days before, *per trinundinum*, the people were called together by an edict. On the day of the comitia itself, the presiding magistrate, with an augur, went into a tent before the city, in order to observe the auspices. If the augur declared them unexceptionable, the comitia was held; if not, it was postponed to another day. Before sunrise and after sunset, no business was transacted in the comitia. The presiding magistrate, on his curule chair, opened the assembly by a prayer, which he repeated after the words of the augur. Then the subject of deliberation was communicated to the people, who afterwards separated into tribes and centuries. In earlier times, first the equites, then the centuries of the first class, &c., were called upon to vote. In later times, lots were cast for the order of voting. The opinion of the century which first voted was usually followed by all the rest. In the earliest times, every century voted verbal-

ly; in later times, by tablets. What was concluded, in each century, by the majority, was proclaimed, by the herald, as the vote of this century. The comitia was interrupted if any one in the assembly was attacked by a fit of epilepsy (which was called, for this reason, *morbus comitialis*), or if a tribune of the people pronounced his *veto*, and under some other circumstances.

COMMANDERY, or COMMANDRY, among several orders of knights, denotes a certain district, under the control of a member of the order, who received a part of the income thence arising, for his own use, and accounted for the rest. There are strict and regular commanderies, obtained by merit or in order, and others are, of grace and favor, bestowed by the grand master. There are also commanderies for the religious, in the orders of St. Bernard and St. Anthony.

COMMELIN, Jerome, of Douay, a learned printer in Heidelberg, who died in 1598, was distinguished by his excellent editions of Greek and Latin classics. His emblem is a figure of Truth, and, on many editions, the words *Ex Officina Sanct. Andreana.*

COMMELIN, John and Caspar, uncle and nephew; learned botanists in Amsterdam. The former died in 1692, his nephew in 1751.

COMMELIN, Isaac, born 1598, in Amsterdam, was a historian, among whose works, the history and description of Amsterdam is still much valued. He died in 1676, at Amsterdam.

COMMENCEMENT. In the colleges of the U. States, this term denotes the day when the students commence bachelors of arts. In Cambridge, England, it signifies the day when masters of arts and doctors complete their degrees.

COMMENSURABLE; among geometricians, an appellation given to such quantities or magnitudes as can be measured by one and the same common measure.—*Commensurable numbers*, whether integers or fractions, are such as can be measured or divided by some other number, without any remainder: such are 12 and 18, as being measured by 6 or 3.

COMMERCE OF THE WORLD. This embraces the whole subject of the traffic and intercourse of nations, and shows how mutual wants, occasioning the exchange of natural riches for the creations of art, unite savage nations with civilized, and spread moral and social cultivation over the earth. In former times, commerce subdued the *steppes* of Scythia and the deserts of Libya, and it is now clearing away the primitive forests of America, and draining the waters of Australia. For thousands of years, it has pervaded the interior of the ancient world; for centuries it has had its path on the mighty ocean; and, of late, it has studied how to cut through the isthmus of Darien, and to break through the ice of the poles. In the history of the nations, it is a perpetual Argonautic expedition, and, from the first period of commerce down to our own times, its Colchis has been India. The limits of our work do not allow us to exhibit the progress of commerce in ancient times. For this we refer to Heeren's *Ideen über Handel und Politik der Alten Welt* (Ideas on the Commerce and Politics of the Ancient World), 1805 (see *Heeren*), and shall merely give a cursory survey of the principal commercial nations of modern times.

I. EUROPE, since the conquest of Tyre by Alexander, has been in possession of the commerce of the world, and has secured it by its colonial system (see *Colony*), founded by Henry the Navigator (q. v.), by means of which it exercises the monopoly of colonial commodities. By this we understand the productions of the planting, commercial and mining colonies; those of the last, however, only in part, for the precious metals and stones can hardly be designated by that name. This is also true of the productions of the colonies more strictly agricultural: spices, East India goods of all kinds, dye-woods and cabinet-woods, drugs, cotton, and especially coffee, sugar, rice, tea, &c., are properly understood by this term. The East Indies furnish chiefly cotton, sugar, coffee, rice, fabrics of various kinds, spices, and tea (from China); the West Indies, cocoa, coffee, sugar and cotton; South America, the precious stones and metals, dye-woods, cabinet-woods, drugs, &c. The consumption of these articles, which was formerly possible only for the rich, has increased immensely since the ocean became the highway for trade with the East Indies and America, in the course of the 15th century, and, more especially, since the English and Dutch assumed the first station among the colonial nations of Europe, in the beginning of the 18th century. Instead of being, as before, mere objects of luxury for the higher ranks, colonial goods became necessary articles even for the lowest classes of Europe; and an entire revolution was produced in the civil and political condition of that portion of the world. Commerce thus acquired an incompara-

bly higher importance, and a more general interest. The class of merchants, which was, by this means, increased in an extraordinary degree, soon formed a body of men, spread over the whole cultivated world, and animated by one purpose—to maintain commerce; and, even among belligerent nations, the governments endeavored in vain utterly to abolish the mutual dealings of merchants. Thus, as the intercourse of nations became more lively, the exchange of ideas was promoted, men's views became enlarged, a cosmopolitan spirit united distant communities, and formed of the nations of Europe, as it were, one great, civilized family. Equal results were produced by the increased importance of the colonial powers (in late times, the two maritime states of England and Holland, in particular), arising from the increasing consumption of colonial goods. For them, and, indeed, though in an inferior degree, for the other colonial powers of Europe, the trade in the productions of the colonies was an important source of wealth and power. Their great political importance has exercised an extensive influence on the whole political condition of Europe. England, in particular, has become continually more powerful by its extensive trade. It was therefore in the natural course of things, that, when the immense power of France was developed by the revolution, and that country, under Napoleon, strove for predominance on the European continent, the greatest struggle should take place between France and England, a consequence of which was the continental system (q. v.) of Napoleon, who declared his purpose to be, to free Europe from the tribute which it was obliged to pay to England for the colonial goods which it received from her. England, deeming it absolutely essential to her interests to prevent the establishment of a universal monarchy on the continent, spared no exertion to procure the restoration of the former order of things, so that she might have a free intercourse with the continental ports. Without going into the points at issue between the two countries, the fact deserves to be stated, that the continental system called into action many kinds of industry on the continent, and, in this way, has produced important changes in the course of trade, resulting from the great increase of manufactures. If we examine whether it be actually true, as asserted in the time of the continental system, that the great use of colonial goods must necessarily produce poverty, it is easy to prove the contrary, which has been already fully confirmed by experience. New wants gave rise to new energy and new branches of industry, in order to gratify those wants, thus increasing the productiveness of labor, and, simultaneously, the prosperity of the nations. But it is objected that money, or the produce of labor, which would otherwise remain in the various countries, is sent away from them in exchange for colonial goods. Very true; but, even if the express purpose of acquisition were not to procure new enjoyments, the object of all trade and all activity is, not to accumulate money, but to augment the sum of happiness. If this object be attained, industry and trade have effected all that they should do. Of course, no account can be reasonably taken of the small number of idle spendthrifts, who, without laboring, consume their capital in gratifying their pleasures. But it was soon perceived, that, in the existing state of Europe, entirely to exclude colonial articles was utterly impossible, though recourse was had to all kinds of substitutes. The enormous duties imposed on the importation of colonial goods, as far as the French power then reached, that is, throughout nearly all the continent of Europe, contributed essentially to render its nations poorer; for these duties had to be paid, while nothing of value could be given in return; from which circumstance originated a most pernicious and immoral smuggling trade. But Napoleon asserted that the English would not allow him to make peace, in which case the whole system would naturally have been changed.—In the 18th century,

*Great Britain** became the first colonial power. It, therefore, stands at the head of the commercial nations, who are all, more or less, tributary to British art and industry. With more than 23,199 merchant vessels, containing 2,460,500 tons, in 1827, it exported, in the year ending Jan. 5, 1827, to the amount of £50,399,356, and from Ireland, to the amount of £967,312; the imports, during the same time, amounted to £36,038,951, and into Ireland, to £1,420,027. Its commerce is, in a great measure, managed by companies. These companies are the Russian, the Levant, the African, the South sea, and Hudson's bay companies, the East India company (q. v.), and the Borneo,

* We can give, in the following pages, only a brief account of the commerce of the different nations, and must refer the reader, for fuller information in regard to the different countries, to the different articles.

Solo and Banca company (for working the gold and diamond mines of Borneo, pursuing the pearl fisheries at Solo and Banca, and working the tin mines on the last-named island). The chief exports of Great Britain are, to the north of Europe, cotton, woollen and glass, hardware, pottery, lead, tin, coal, East India and colonial wares, dye-stuffs, salt, and refined sugar. In return, Great Britain receives from the north, corn, flax, hemp, iron, turpentine, tar, tallow, timber, linen, pearl and potashes, cordage and hog's bristles. To Germany, Holland, France, Italy, Spain and Portugal, it exports cotton and woollen fabrics, cutlery, dried and salt fish, pottery and glass-ware, colonial and East India goods, and all kinds of the finer manufactures. From Germany it imports corn, flax, hemp, linen cloth and thread, rags, hides, timber and wine; from Holland, flax, hemp, madder, gin, cheese, butter, rags and seeds; from France, wine, brandy, lace, cambric, silk, ornaments and fancy goods and fruit; from Italy, Spain and Portugal, silk, wool, barilla, sulphur, salt, oil, fruit, wine, brandy and cork. To Turkey it sends cotton and woollen goods, hardware, colonial and East India goods, lead, tin, iron, clocks and watches; receiving, in return, coffee, silk, fruits, fine oil, dye-stuffs, carpets, &c. To North America it sends woollen and cotton manufactures, hardware, linen, glass and other wares; the imports from thence are flour, cotton, rice, tar, pitch, pot and pearl ashes, provisions, ship-timber, &c. The chief imports from South America are cotton, hides, skins, tallow, cochineal, dye-wood, sugar, indigo, cocoa, gums, &c.; and the exports from England are the same as above mentioned. The same exports are likewise sent to the West Indies; and, in return, Great Britain receives rum, coffee, tobacco, sugar, ginger, pimento, pepper, indigo, dye-stuffs, drugs, gums, cotton, mahogany, Campeachy wood, &c. To the East Indies, China and Persia, it sends woollen goods, iron, copper, lead, tin, foreign silver money, gold and silver, in bars, hardware, and a variety of manufactures (amounting, in 1828, to £4,877,125); for which it obtains muslins, calicoes, silks, nankeens, tea, spices, arack, sugar, coffee, rice, saltpetre, indigo, opium, drugs, gums, quicksilver, precious stones, pearls, &c., amounting, in 1828, to £8,002,786. To the colony of New South Wales, the common English manufactures and colonial goods are exported, and exchanged for train-oil, seal-skins, wool, &c.

Among themselves, the three British kingdoms trade in the following commodities. From Scotland, England and Ireland receive corn, cattle, woollen and cotton goods, potash, granite, canvass and iron manufactures; the Scottish fisheries also furnish an important article of commerce. For these things, Scotland receives the productions of Ireland, and articles of luxury, of all kinds, from England. Ireland buys of England and Scotland, woollen, cotton and silk goods, East and West India goods, pottery, hardware and salt; and, in exchange, gives its linen, hides, potatoes and other provisions, &c. The foreign commerce of Ireland is, besides, very extensive. It exports its productions and manufactures to France, Spain, Portugal, the West Indies and North America, for wine, fruit, sugar, rum, &c. The commercial intercourse between Ireland and the north of Europe is mainly through England, and its trade with the East passes exclusively through the same channel. The chief articles of export from Ireland are linen, potatoes and other provisions, corn, whiskey, herrings and salmon. How great the coasting trade of England is, may be seen from the following table:—

Entries, inwards and outwards of the coasting trade of the United Kingdom, for the years ending Jan. 5, including the cross channel trade between Great Britain and Ireland.

Years.	*Tonnage.*	*Men.*
	INWARDS.	
1826	8,408,211	493,411
1827	8,466,255	488,038
1828	8,911,109	512,584
	OUTWARDS.	
1826	8,269,399	484,909
1827	8,791,062	513,959
1828	8,957,286	517,129

The foreign possessions, settlements and colonies of Great Britain, of which it possessed 26 prior to the French revolution, and has gained 17 more by conquest, are Heligoland, Gibraltar and Malta, with Gozo and the Ionian isles, in Europe; its possessions in India, under the administration of the East India company, and Ceylon, in Asia; the Isle de France, or Mauritius, with the Sechelles and Amirante isles, the cape of Good Hope, Sierra Leone, Cape Coast and Annaboa, the islands of Ascension and St. Helena, in Africa; Canada, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Cape Breton, St. John's, or Prince Edward's island, Newfoundland, Hudson's bay and the bay of Honduras, in North America; Berbice, Essequibo and Deme-

rara, in South America; Jamaica, Barbadoes, Antigua, St. Vincent, St. Christopher, Nevis, Montferrat, the Virgin islands, Grenada, Tobago, Dominica, Trinidad and the Bahamas, in the West Indies; also the Bermudas; in Australia (q. v.), New South Wales, Van Diemen's land, and the colony on New Zealand, and on Melville's island.

The most important commercial cities of England, besides London, are Liverpool, Bristol and Hull; the most important manufacturing towns are, Manchester, Birmingham, Leeds, Nottingham, Halifax, Rochdale, &c. In Scotland, the principal commercial places are Glasgow, Greenock, Leith and Aberdeen. The foreign trade of Glasgow and Greenock extends to the West Indies, the U. States, the British American colonies, Brazil, and the whole continent of Europe. The foreign trade of Leith and Aberdeen extends to the West Indies, America, the Mediterranean and the Baltic. The greatest commercial cities of Ireland are, Dublin, Cork, Wexford, Waterford and Belfast.

Germany. On account of its navigable rivers, the commerce of this country is considerable. The chief articles of export are linen, linen yarn, raw wool, rags, quicksilver, corn, timber, flax, hemp, wax, lard, salt, wine and metals. Its imports are woollens, cottons and silks, hardware, watches, tanned leather, leather goods, tea, cacao, dye-woods, hides, colonial and East India goods. The principal ports of Germany are Hamburg, Lübeck, Bremen, Trieste and Dantzic. In the interior, its chief commercial cities are Vienna, Magdeburg, Leipsic, Frankfort on the Maine, Frankfort on the Oder, Augsburg, Berlin, Breslau, Cologne, Nuremberg, Brunswick, Mentz, Botzen and Prague. Hamburg (q. v.), in particular, is the channel through which flows, for the most part, the extensive trade between Great Britain and the German states. By means of the rivers running into the Elbe, the navigation of which has lately become free, the numerous and valuable productions of Upper and Lower Saxony, of Austria and Bohemia, go to Hamburg. By the Havel, the Spree and the Oder, its commercial operations are extended to Brandenburg, Silesia, Moravia and Poland. The business of Hamburg consists, in part, of the consignments of foreign merchants, and, to a great extent, of the purchase and sale of domestic and foreign goods. Its money transactions are very considerable. Bremen has important articles of export in the products of Westphalia and Lower Saxony, which it sends to England, Spain and Portugal; and with America it has more intercourse than any other seaport of Germany. The trade in linens, which foreign countries carry on with Germany, passes wholly through the hands of the Hamburg and Bremen merchants, to whom all foreign orders are directed. The importation of tobacco from America into Germany is almost wholly through Bremen. Leipsic, the centre of European trade with the interior of Germany, and the place of deposit for foreign and Saxon goods, has, besides other mercantile privileges, three fairs (at Easter, Michaelmas and new year), to which merchants resort from all parts of Europe, and from Asia, and each of which lasts three weeks: there is, besides, at this place, a considerable market for Saxon wool. The chief articles of traffic are Bohemian, Silesian and Saxon linen; leather, hides, wax and wool, from Poland; woollen goods and pigments, from Prussia; silks, velvets and corals, from Italy; leather, various manufactures and dye-stuffs, from Austria and Hungary; laces, silk goods of all kinds, ribbons, porcelain, watches, bronze and other manufactures, including fancy articles, from France; leather, hemp and flax, from Russia; colonial commodities and manufactures, from England and Holland; and literary productions from all Europe. There is, also, in Leipsic, an important horse market. Augsburg, by means of its agents and bankers, is the medium of mercantile communication between Germany and the south of Europe. The exchange business of Vienna is commonly transacted by drafts on Augsburg. It also derives considerable advantage from the forwarding of goods to and from Italy. Frankfort on the Maine, a place of great commercial activity, especially at the time of its two great fairs, in the spring and autumn, has, besides, a very important business, owing to the opulence of its old and new banking houses. It was the central point of all the Rothschilds. In Brunswick, considerable business is transacted in its natural productions, and manufactured articles, as well as in foreign goods. Its two great yearly fairs rank immediately after those of Leipsic and Frankfort. Great quantities of raw thread are sent thither by the Dutch merchants, and the strong beer, called *mum*, is exported to various parts of the world.

Austria is entirely separated from Germany by its system of imposts, and its commercial regulations. Its trade is mostly carried on by land, or on the rivers. Vienna,

the store-house of the inland trade of all Austria, has quite an extensive commerce with England, the Netherlands and France, and important dealings with Italy, Hungary, Poland and Turkey. By the way of Vienna, Germany receives great quantities of raw cotton from Turkey. The commerce of Trieste, in the Littorale, consists chiefly in the exportation of German productions, and of colonial goods, which go from thence to the Levant, and the coasts of the Black sea. Trieste may be regarded as the depot of the productions of the Levant. It is, also, actively engaged in the importation of British wares, and of the produce of the fisheries of Newfoundland. Except this city, the commerce of Austria is confined to Venice and Fiume. The most considerable places of inland trade in the monarchy, besides Vienna, are Lemberg, Prague, Brunn, Brody, Botzen, Pest and Cronstadt. The allowed imports consist mainly of raw produce, cotton and wool, silk, rice, oil, spices, colonial articles, leather, cattle, &c. The articles of export are woollen cloths, linens, cordage, mineral productions, grain and glass. Great profit is derived from the transportation of goods, especially of those of the Levant. In Bohemia, far the greater portion of the trade is in the hands of the Jews, who are numerous in the country. The trade is chiefly in exports—linens, woollens, silks, dye-wood, leather and glass. The glass is superior in polish and cheapness to that of other countries, and the exportation of it is very considerable. It is thought that the goods exported to Spain, Russia, the Levant and America amount to 2,500,000 guilders, annually. The countries with which Bohemia has the most commercial intercourse are Austria, Holland, Spain, Portugal, Italy and Turkey. The exports are rated at from $5,000,000 to $6,000,000, and the imports (colonial goods, articles of luxury, &c.) at from $4,000,000 to $5,000,000. Prague is the first commercial city of the country, Reichenberg, the second.

Prussia has likewise, by its system of prohibition, been separated from Germany with respect to free commercial intercourse, especially since 1818. The commerce of this monarchy is promoted by the Baltic, by many navigable rivers, and by canals. The commerce in domestic productions is more important than the transportation and commission trade, which flourishes mainly in Cologne, Magdeburg, Stettin, Minden, Dantzic, Königsberg, Breslau, &c. The exports by sea are grain, wax, tallow, wool, linseed, flax, hemp, wood, linen, yarn, woollen and cotton goods, fine works of art, including articles made of amber. Of the different commercial places, Frankfort on the Oder has three considerable fairs. Magdeburg sends corn, linen, cotton goods, cloths, leather, salt and copper to Hamburg, and to the fairs of Leipsic and Brunswick. It has, besides, a transit trade in colonial goods, wine, grain, &c. Wheat is exported from Dantzic, which possesses the largest granary in Europe; from Elbingen, Stettin, Königsberg, Anclam and Berlin, timber; staves and ashes from Dantzic, Memel and Stettin; hemp, flax and linseed, tallow, wax and hog's bristles from Memel and Königsberg. Tilsit carries on a brisk trade in corn, linseed, hemp and flax. The exports of Brunsberg are woollen yarn, corn and flax. Colberg exports corn, and the other produce of Poland. The trade of Stralsund, likewise, consists chiefly in the exportation of corn. Of all the articles of Prussian commerce, the Silesian linen holds the first rank, and for the manufacturing of it, the Silesian towns Hirschberg, Landshut, Schmiedeberg, Friedland, Waldenburg, Schweidnitz, and the Prussian section of Upper Lusatia, are celebrated. This linen is particularly in demand among the Hamburg, English, Dutch, Italian and South American merchants. The imports which have the readiest sale in Prussia are colonial goods, dye-wood, salt, Buenos Ayres hides, indigo, groceries, wine, silk, cotton goods, hardware, &c.*

Hanover is not distinguished for its mercantile activity. The exports consist of horses, horned cattle, lead, wax, linen, leather, salt, oats, barley, timber, boards, and the ferruginous copper of the Hartz mountains. The linens are ordinary; the table cloths and Osnabruck damask are inferior in quality to those of Prussia and Friesland. The surplus of the domestic consumption is exported to South America through the medium of the Hanseatic cities. The principal imports are English

* The extended frontier of Prussia exposes it very much to smuggling. On this account, Prussia has been lately endeavoring to induce some of the smaller states in her neighborhood to abolish all restrictions on their commercial intercourse with her. Some of the states have acquiesced in this arrangement. These are Bavaria, Wurtemberg, Mecklenburg, the Saxon dukedoms, Hesse-Darmstadt and Brunswick. Some of these have also allowed Prussia to place her custom-houses on their outward frontier, on condition of her paying them a certain sum as a compensation for the customs which she will thus receive. Some other German states have united together with similar views, and form the confederacy of Central Germany. These states are Hanover, Hesse-Cassel, the kingdom of Saxony, and Oldenburg.

manufactures, especially woollen cloths and calicoes, colonial goods, Prussian and Friesland linen, fine French cloths, silks, jewelry and French wines, with all kinds of small articles of luxury, which the Hanoverian merchant brings with him from the fairs of Brunswick, Leipsic, and Frankfort on the Maine. The chief commercial towns are Emden, Hanover and Münden.

The commerce of *Saxony*, *Bavaria*, *Würtemberg*, *Hesse*, &c., may be comprised under the general head of German commerce, as there exists no reciprocal system of prohibition. (See *Germany, Trade of;* also the separate articles on these countries.)

Denmark and Holstein. Although the Danish merchants have formed connexions with all the commercial states of Europe, and play an important part in the commerce both of the Mediterranean and the Baltic, their own country possesses but few productions, important as articles of export. Most of what they export are the productions of their East and West India possessions. To the ports of Petersburg, Riga, Stockholm and Memel, Denmark carries the woollen goods of Iceland and the Faroe islands; salt from Spain, France and Portugal; and the productions of the East and West Indies and of China. To Germany it sends its horses, its cattle, colonial and West India goods, and woollen stockings, receiving in return linen, wool, brandy and wine. To Holland it exports rape-seed, fish, &c., in exchange for groceries. To France, Spain and Portugal it carries horses, fish, and other articles from Russia, in exchange for salt, wine, fruits, sweet oil, brandy, silk, &c. Its trade with England consists, mainly, in exchanging timber, &c., for English manufactures. To Iceland it exports rye-meal, rye, barley, brandy and other spirituous liquors, together with the common articles of consumption; receiving in return fresh, dry, and salt fish, train-oil, tallow, eider down, wool and woollen stockings. It supplies Greenland with flour, spirituous liquors, &c., in return for train and seal-oil, seal-skins, eider down and peltry. The largest commercial towns of Denmark are Copenhagen and Elsinore in Zealand, Aalborg in Jutland, Flensborg and Tönningen in Sleswic, Altona and Kiel in Holstein. The West India colonies of Denmark are St. Croix, St. Thomas and St. John's. On the coast of Coromandel, it possesses Tranquebar; on the coast of Guinea, Christianborg and other small places. It has also small factories on the Nicobar islands. In Europe, it possesses Iceland. The chief commercial companies in Denmark are the Asiatic or East India company, the Iceland company, the maritime insurance company, the African or Danish West India, and the general commercial society. In 1824, there were exported from Denmark 2,022,720 tons of grain, 36,562 tons of flour, &c.

France. The commerce of France extends to every country of the world. The exports are wine, brandy, oil, corn, meal, liqueurs, snuff, silks, woollens, fancy goods of all kinds, watches, porcelain, crystals, carpets, bronze, linen, lace, cambric, tapestry, hemp, flax, fruits, capers, salt, jewelry, paper, &c.; and France receives the raw produce of all countries, but very few manufactured goods. In 1824, the value of all the exports of France was 440,542,000 francs, of which 163,056,000 were in natural products, and 277,486,000 in manufactured goods. In the same year, goods were imported into France to the amount of 189,535,000 francs in 3,387 French vessels, to the amount of 108,397,000 francs in 4,183 foreign vessels, and to the amount of 156,929,000 by land; the whole importation amounted to 454,861,000 francs. The principal ports are Bordeaux, Marseilles, Nantes, Havre de Grace, St. Malo, L'Orient and Dunkirk. The commerce of Marseilles is mostly with the Levant and the West Indies; that of Bordeaux, with Asia, the West Indies, and the north of Europe. Calais and Dunkirk carry on a very lucrative contraband trade with England. Havre de Grace is the seaport of Paris, which has a very extensive indirect trade, and dealings in bills of exchange with foreign countries. Amiens exports great quantities of velvet; Abbeville, Elbeuf, Louvier and Sedan trade mainly in cloths; Cambrai, Valenciennes and Alençon, in cambrics and fine laces. Cette, the port of Montpellier, has an extensive trade in Spanish and colonial goods. The commerce of Bayonne is chiefly with Spain. Silks form a principal article of the commerce of Lyons, which is situated in the centre of the roads leading to Switzerland, Spain, Italy and Germany, and has annually four fairs. For Strasburg, its excellent turpentine is an important article of trade. Lille has a direct intercourse, not only with all the commercial states of Europe, but also with the French and Spanish colonies, and with the Levant. The other commercial towns of importance are Rheims, Troyes, Grenoble, Nismes, Angoulême, Cognac, Nantes, Rouen, Rochelle, and Caen. Grenoble supplies France, Italy, Spain, and even Great

Britain with fine gloves. Beaucaire has an important fair. The French colonies are Martinique, Guadaloupe, St. Lucia and Mariegalante in the West Indies; Cayenne in South America, Pondicherry, Chandernagore, and some other possessions in the East Indies, with several factories on the western coast of Africa and on both sides of cape Verde.

Italy. Although Italy possesses the most excellent harbors on the Mediterranean and Adriatic seas, and has a geographical situation uncommonly favorable for commerce, its trade, both domestic and foreign, is very limited. The cause is to be sought in the impolitic restrictions, heavy taxes and imposts, to which the commercial cities are subjected in this most fruitful, but, for the most part, badly governed country. The chief articles of export from Italy are corn, olive-oil, wine, brandy, silk, cotton, wool, hemp, flax, velvet, damask, barilla (soda), sulphur, sumach, gall-nuts, madder, velani or valonia, and other dye-stuffs, senna leaves, liquorice juice and root, juniper berries and other drugs, anchovies, almonds, figs, nuts, olives, currants, raisins and other fruits, rags, chip and straw hats, the skins of sheep and kids, and marble. The principal commercial cities are Florence, Genoa, Leghorn, Naples, Venice, and Ancona. Leghorn is the main channel of the trade of Italy with the Levant and the Barbary states, and the central point of the commerce of England in the Mediterranean. A great part of its trade is in the hands of the Jews. Silks, taffeta, satins, brocades, light woollen goods, velvets, &c., are the main articles of export from Florence. These pass through Leghorn, and sell readily in the Levant. Milan and Turin carry on a very extensive trade in their silk, which is celebrated throughout Europe for its admirable fineness and lightness. Ancona has intercourse with the first commercial cities of Europe. Its business is chiefly agency and commission business. Some silk is exported from Nice. The exports of Lucca are olive-oil, silk, damasks, fruit, &c. Much olive-oil is exported from Gallipoli. The trade of Genoa continues considerable. Its exports are velvet, damask (which, next to the Venetian, is the most esteemed in Europe), raw silk, fruit, olive-oil, alum, marble, corals, coarse paper, &c. Venice, once the greatest mart of the world, notwithstanding the disappearance of its ancient splendor, is still an important place for commerce, a great part of the trade of Europe with the Levant being yet in its hands. The Venetian velvets, damasks, mirrors, and manufactured silks, in great quantities, form the most considerable constituents of the foreign trade of Venice. The exports of Naples are olive-oil, wool, silk, tartar, wines, raw and manufactured silk, fruit, sulphur and staves.

The Islands of the Mediterranean Sea. The exports of Sicily, a country on which nature, with profuse generosity, has lavished in abundance all her gifts (the benefit of which, however, is almost destroyed by the weakness of the government), consist of silk, grain, barilla, sulphur, olive-oil, wine, cantharides, sumach, manna, coral, rags, almonds, figs, raisins, nuts, anchovies, amber, goat, buck and sheep-skins, pomegranates, oranges, lemons, &c., and pine-apples of remarkable size and exquisite flavor. The chief port is Messina; next to this comes Palermo.

The exports of Sardinia are, chiefly, grain of uncommon excellence, tunny-fish, hides, barilla, salt. Cagliari is the most considerable commercial city.

Corsica exports silk, olive-oil, and black, white and red corals. The silk goes mostly to Genoa and Lyons, and the corals are sold at Marseilles, where they are manufactured and polished, to be sent to Africa, to be sold to the Moors and Negroes. The Corsican ports are Ajaccio, Bastia and Porto Vecchio.

Malta, which is, like Gibraltar, a depot for British and colonial goods that are to be disposed of in the Mediterranean, exports cotton, oranges and other fruits.

The Ionian islands (Cephalonia, Zante, Corfu, Santa Maura, &c.) export wine, brandy, olive-oil, raisins, currants, citrons, melons, pomegranates, honey, cotton and salt. The raisins and currants are superior to those of the Morea in quality. The wine is Muscadel.

The commerce of the island of Cyprus is inconsiderable. It exports cotton, wool, silk, wine, salt, turpentine, Turkish leather, &c. Its largest commercial cities are Larnica and Rhodes.

The exports of the island of Candia, which, by its situation, is designed for the mart of the European, Asiatic and African trade, consist of oil, soap, wax, wine, linseed, raisins, almonds, laudanum, St. John's bread (the fruit of the *ceratonia siliqua*), &c.

The Netherlands and Holland. The chief commercial cities of the Belgic Netherlands are Antwerp, Ghent and Ostend. Antwerp is the mart of the commerce of the North of Europe. Since the opening of the Scheldt, it has been

gradually recovering its mercantile prosperity, and, in all probability, on account of its excellent central situation, its local advantages, and because it is the channel through which most of the commerce of the Dutch passes, will one day be of the first commercial importance. The exports of Antwerp consist, principally, of wheat, beans, clover-seed, linen, laces, carpets, tapestry, and all the manufactures of Brussels, Mechlin, Ghent and Bruges. The articles of export from Ghent are wheat, fine linen, flax, hemp, beans, &c.; those from Ostend are wheat, clover-seed, flax, tallow, hides, and the linen of Ghent and Bruges.—The chief exports of Holland, the commerce of which has revived since 1814, and employs, every year, 4000 vessels of various descriptions, are butter, cheese, linen, cloth, drugs and paints, fish, wheat, linseed, clover-seed, geneva (gin), dye-stuffs, paper, &c. The principal commercial cities in Holland are Amsterdam, Rotterdam and Groningen; then follow Liege, Middelburg, and the ports of Briel, Delftshaven, Dort, Enckhuysen, Medenblick, &c. Before the decline of Dutch commerce, Amsterdam was one of the greatest commercial cities of the world, the mart of goods from the East and the West, and from the principal states of Europe. At the time when the Dutch were in exclusive possession of the spiceries of the East, of the silks of the East Indies and China, and of the fine East India cotton goods, they dressed in coarse cloth, and were satisfied with a very frugal mode of living. The fine cloths which they themselves manufactured, they destined wholly for foreign countries, and, for their own use, purchased coarse cloth in England. At that time, they likewise sold the superior butter and cheese which they made, and, for their own use, bought the cheaper sorts from England and Ireland. To the exchange and banking business, of which the channel was Amsterdam, the Dutch were also, in part, indebted for their great prosperity. With Hamburg, Amsterdam is yet the centre of the exchange business between the North and the South of Europe, although, from the time that the credit of the bank of Amsterdam diminished, this branch of business has declined, a great portion of it being transferred to Hamburg and London. The imports are grain, wood, coal, tallow, wax, rags, &c. For the colonial trade of Holland, the possession of Batavia, Amboyna, Banda, Ternate, and Macassar, in the East Indies, is of importance, as are also the commercial settlements on the Coromandel and Malabar coasts, and those at Bantam, Padang, Japan, &c. In Africa, Holland has some forts in Guinea; in America, she possesses Surinam, and the West India islands of Curaçao, St. Eustatia and St. Martin.

Poland. The exports of Poland consist of corn, hemp, flax, lumber, linseed, tallow and salt. Its commerce is inconsiderable, and is almost wholly in the hands of the Jews. Warsaw and Cracow are the two largest commercial cities. The former has two fairs every year. Cracow has a situation very favorable to commerce, but the principal article of its trade is furnished by the celebrated salt-mines of Wieliczka, situated in the neighborhood. At the fairs of Leipsic and Frankfort on the Oder, Poland is supplied with manufactures, and all articles of luxury, in exchange for hare-skins and other productions.

Portugal. The Portuguese exports are, chiefly, white and red Port wine, Lisbon and Calcavella wine, salt, oranges, lemons and other fruit, cork, silk, wool, sweet oil, &c. To England are sent Port wine, Lisbon, Calcavella, Madeira and Canary wines, salt, oranges, lemons, cork, &c.; in return for which the Portuguese obtain British manufactures and colonial goods, provisions, corn, meal, copper, lead, coal, &c. Their exports to the North of Europe are wine, salt, fruit, &c.; for which they receive hemp, flax, corn, iron, timber, tar, pitch, stock-fish, and Russian and German linen. The chief commercial cities are Lisbon, Oporto, and Setubal, commonly called *St. Ubes.* The foreign possessions of Portugal are, the cities of Goa and Diu in the East Indies, together with a part of Timor, the factory of Macao in China, the Azores, Madeira and Puerto Santo in the Atlantic, the cape Verd islands, those of St. Thomas, Angola, and some settlements in Guinea and on the western coast of Africa, with Mozambique, Melinda and other settlements on the eastern coast.

Russia. Russia exports, principally, iron, hemp, flax, cordage of all kinds, tallow, hides, fir and oak timber, boards, planks, laths, spars, pitch and tar, together with all kinds of grain, especially wheat, linen, canvass of various kinds, wax, honey, bristles, suet, soap, isinglass, caviare, leather, train-oil, hemp-seed, linseed and tobacco. The chief commercial cities are Tobolsk, Irkutsk and Tomsk, in Siberia; Astrachan, Orenburg and Kasan, in Asiatic Russia; Moscow and Novgorod, in

the interior of Russia; Archangel, on the White sea; Libau (though very much decayed) in Courland; Taganrog, Caffa or Theodosia, Odessa, Cherson, Sebastopol and Azoph, on the Black sea and the sea of Azoph; Riga, Pernau, Narva, Revel, Petersburg, Viborg, Fredericshamm and Arensburg; the places where the fairs are held, at Niznei-Novgorod, Irbit, &c., connecting the caravan trade of the East with the inland trade of European Russia, which is promoted by canals and rivers. By the Black sea and the sea of Azoph, Russia carries on a very lively trade with various Turkish ports; on the Caspian sea, with Persia; by way of Kiachta, with China; and, on the north-west coast of America, it is at present laying the foundation of its trade in the Pacific. Russia has lately sent an expedition from Kodiak northward, to make topographical surveys in the interior of North America, and to establish a commercial intercourse with the natives of this unexplored country. Her colonies in North America are well provided for. Her officers are gaining nautical knowledge in England, and numbers have been sent to the U. States of America, where models of nautical architecture and vessels celebrated for sailing have been purchased on Russian account.

Sweden and Norway. The articles exported from the 28 Swedish ports are iron, steel, copper, pitch, tar, fir, alum and fish. The chief commercial cities are Stockholm, Gottenburg and Gefle. Carlscrona carries on considerable trade in iron, timber, pitch, tar, tallow, potash, linseed, &c., which articles are sent mainly to the French, Spanish and Italian ports, commonly in exchange for salt. The exports of Gottenburg are fish, iron, steel and boards. The institutions of Sweden for the promotion of commerce are the bank, the East India company, the West India company, the Levant commercial company, the association of industry, &c. From Norway are exported fish, oak and fir timber, deal boards, masts, alum, vitriol, fish and seal oil, pitch, hides, woollen stockings, iron, copper and tar. The chief commercial cities are Christiania, Bergen, Drontheim, Christiansand, Drammer and Stavanger.

Switzerland. Switzerland has a considerable foreign trade. Its exports consist, chiefly, of fine linen, silks, velvets, imitations of East India goods and shawls, fine calicoes, clocks, watches, ribbons, wine, cheese, honey, &c. The most important articles of importation are colonial and East India goods, from Holland; salt, grain, wool and cloths, from Germany; raw cotton, silk, &c., from Italy; manufactures, of various kinds, from England; wine and brandy from France. The principal commercial cities of Switzerland are Bâle, Berne, Zurich, Geneva and Neufchatel.

Spain. For three centuries, with the decrease of the industry of Spain, its trade has been on the decline. This country might have monopolized the commerce of the world, if it had understood and improved its situation. The natural wealth of the soil is, nevertheless, still the prop of its trade. The most important productions are wool, silk, salt, iron, copper, coal, quicksilver, barilla, rice, saltpetre, sugar, almonds, olives, oranges, lemons, figs, wines, brandy and fruit. In Segovia and Leon, about 1,000,000 arobas (q. v.) of fine wool are annually collected, of which about four fifths are disposed of to the French, Dutch and English. The excellent Spanish wines, brandy, fruit, barilla, &c., are profitable articles for the country. From the port of Barcelona, excellent silks, coarse cloths and cotton goods, with wine, brandy, almonds, nuts, and other productions, are exported; in return for which, the same port receives the silks of Lyons, the hosiery of Nismes, various kinds of stuffs and cotton goods, German linen and dried stock-fish from England, amounting to about $3,000,000. The exports of Valencia consist, principally, of silk, barilla (soda), coarse wool, dried fruits, wine and brandy. The latter is exported, chiefly, by the Dutch, and carried to Normandy and Bretagne. The English carry to Spain, chiefly, woollen cloth; the French, linen, woollen cloth, cutlery, groceries, &c. From the port of Alicant, the Spaniards export, chiefly, dried fruits, silk, wool, barilla, wine, Castile soap, olives, saffron, a kind of cochineal called *grana*, and salt; of which last, the English and Swedes annually take upwards of 9,000,000 pounds. In Carthagena and Malaga, also, much business is done. From the latter, wines, dried fruit, almonds, sumach, anchovies, olive-oil, &c., are exported. Cadiz has been one of the principal marts in the world, both in ancient and modern times. In 1792, its exports to the two Indies amounted to the sum of 276,000,000 reals, and its imports to upwards of 700,000,000 reals (8 reals make 1 dollar). Madrid, the royal residence, is likewise an important commercial place and depot. Seville carries on a considerable trade in oil and oranges, which are exported from

Cadiz. Almost the whole Spanish coasting trade is in the hands of the French, Dutch and English. The independence of Spanish America has almost totally annihilated the colonial power of Spain. The situation of Cuba may be considered dubious, like that of the Philippines. (See *Philippines* and *South America.*)

Turkey. The Turks are, as yet, very far from being a commercial nation, although their commerce with Austria, France, Italy, Great Britain, Holland, &c. by means of the Jews, Armenians and Greeks living in Turkey, who have the trade of this country almost wholly in their hands, is by no means insignificant. The insurrection of the Greeks did, indeed, at first, interrupt very much the commerce of Austria and other states; and the British were also formidable rivals on the Ionian isles; but Vienna, the centre of the Greek trade, has, nevertheless, retained its connexion with Turkey, while the productions and the demands of the free Greeks must soon much increase. They offer cotton for linen, silk for cloths, gold for iron. Nature and habit recommend to them intercourse with Austria. On the other hand, the commerce with European Russia, by way of Constantinople to Odessa, was very much restricted by the Porte, subsequently to 1823, by the necessity of relading, to which it subjected the European vessels destined for Odessa, and by other burdensome regulations. This, however, has been changed by the peace concluded with Russia in 1829. Every vessel can, at present, pass the Dardanelles unmolested. This must soon have a great influence upon the Turkish trade also. In the Archipelago, the Greek struggle for freedom has given rise to many dangers to the commerce of neutrals. The chief commercial place is Constantinople, particularly in regard to the trade with Russia. Till within a short period, it distributed the Russian products through the ports of the Mediterranean. The exports of this city, which, under a wise and active government, might become the true mart of the world, are of such little importance, that the great quantities of goods, imported for the use of Turkey, have to be paid for, almost wholly, with gold and diamonds. In this port, the English, French, Italians and Dutch obtain the produce of Poland, the salt, the honey, the wax, the tobacco and the butter of the Ukraine; the hides, the tallow, the hemp, the canvass, the peltry, and the metals of Russia and Siberia, and, in exchange, give the productions of their own countries. This business is transacted without the Turks having the slightest part in it.

Hungary. Hungary is considered by Austria as a foreign country, and is circled in by a line of custom officers. The trade of Hungary, therefore, is under different regulations from that of the rest of the empire, and is any thing but favored by the government. Its foreign commerce is, nevertheless, by no means insignificant. The exports are wine, tobacco, gall-nuts, antimony, alum, potash, horned cattle, wool, iron, copper, wheat, rye and barley. The exports by far exceed the imports. Goods can only be introduced through Austria and Turkey, the government having prohibited every other way that might be selected for the purpose.

II. Asia. The commerce of Asia is mostly inland, carried on chiefly, in Western and Middle Asia, by means of those caravans (called, by a poet, the *fleets of the desert*), in which, sometimes, more than 50,000 merchants and travellers are collected, while the number of camels is far greater. The central point of this trade by caravans is Mecca, which, during the presence of the caravans, offers to the eye of the traveller a more active trade and a greater accumulation of merchandise than any other city in the world. The muslins and other goods of the East Indies, the productions of China, all the spices of the East, the shawls of Cashmere, &c., are transported on the backs of camels to Mecca, from whence they are scattered over, not only the Asiatic, but also the African continent.

The *Arabs*, who were, before the discovery of the passage to the East Indies around the cape of Good Hope, the first commercial people of the world, have now no commerce of consequence. Coffee, aloes, almonds, the balsam of Mecca, spices and drugs, and their African imports of myrrh, frankincense and gum-arabic, are their chief articles of export. Yemen, rich in the costly productions of nature, resorts for a market to Mecca. The Arabian gulf and the Red sea connect the commerce of Arabia with that of Africa, especially with that of Egypt and Abyssinia.

From Masuah, the capital of Abyssinia, are exported gold, civet, ivory, rhinoceros' horns, rice, honey, wax and slaves; and for these the Africans obtain, in Mocha, or Mecca, and Jedda, cotton, cloves, cinnamon, pepper, musk, ginger, cardamom, camphor, copper, lead, iron, tin, steel, turmeric, vermilion, tobacco, gunpowder, sandal-wood, rice, hardware, arms, and a

number of other kinds of European manufactures. The exports from Aden, an Arab city, on the straits of Babelmandeb, where many Jews reside for the purpose of trade, are coffee, elephants' tusks, gold, and various kinds of gums; for which it imports chiefly East India and Chinese productions. Muscat, a port in the Arabian province Oman, the key of Arabia and Persia, carries on considerable trade with British India, Sumatra, the Malay islands, the Red sea, and the eastern coast of Africa.

Well adapted as the geographical situation of *Persia* is for commerce, it is pursued, nevertheless, with very little energy, and little enterprise. Its exports consist mostly of horses, silk, pearls, brocades, carpets, cotton goods, shawls, rose-water, wine of Schiras, dates, wool of Caramania, gums, drugs of various kinds, &c. The chief places for Persian trade are the Turkish cities of Bagdad and Bassora. The harbor of Abuschar, or Buschir, on the Persian gulf, is also a mart for Persian and Indian goods. Bagdad, once the centre of a brilliant and extensive commerce, may still be considered as the great mart of the East, though it is by no means what it has been. From Bassora, the productions of Arabia, India, Persia and the Asiatic islands are sent to Bagdad, where they find a very good market, and from whence they are scattered through the other cities of the Turkish empire. By means of the Arab caravans, Europe supplies Persia with goods of all kinds, and even with the productions of America. On the other hand, it has nothing to give but dates, tobacco, and a very moderate quantity of woollen stuffs, its whole trade consisting in the distribution and sale of the products of other countries. Bassora is, by its situation, the mart of the active East Indian, Persian and Arabic trade, carried on in the Persian gulf. Its trade with the East Indies is very considerable, it being the channel through which the Ottoman empire is supplied with the groceries of the East, and with the manufactures of the British possessions in the East Indies.

Asiatic Turkey. The principal port of the Levant is Smyrna, a very important depot of the merchandise of the East and West. The articles exported from the Levant are coffee, cotton, wool, silk, madder, camels' and goats' hair, hides, raisins, figs, pearls, rotten-stone, whet-stones, nutgalls, opium, rhubarb and other drugs. Angora sends to Smyrna, by caravans, considerable quantities of Angora goats' hair, and stuffs made of the same material; for the Angora goats' hair is manufactured into camlet, in the Levant itself, and in Europe, especially in England, France and Holland, some of whose camlet manufactories keep agents in Angora, through whom they make their purchases. Damascus is the centre of trade in Syria, and does a good deal of business through the caravans, which go from the north of Asia to Mecca, and from Bagdad to Cairo. Aleppo has much commercial intercourse with Constantinople, Bassora, Bagdad, Damascus and Scanderoon, or Alexandretta, to which places caravans go every year, through Aleppo. Its exports are its own silk and cotton goods, the shawls and muslins of the East Indies, the gall-nuts of Curdistan, copper, pistachio-nuts, and drugs. Alexandretta has some trade of importance. Erzerum is the mart of silk and cotton goods, printed linens, groceries, rhubarb, madder, and East Indian zedoary.

The British East Indies, and the Malay Peninsula. For the long period of 4000 years, the products of India, so important in commerce, have remained the same; for all the commodities and treasures of India, mentioned by the ancients, are, to this day, those for which the nations of the other quarters of the world resort thither, viz., rice, indigo, cochineal and other dye-stuffs, opium, cotton, silk, drugs, cinnamon, cassia, cocoa-nuts, &c. The East India trade is mostly in the hands of the English, under the management of the East India company. Next to the English, the U. States are most extensively engaged in the East India trade. Denmark carries on but an inconsiderable trade with the East Indies, and that once carried on by Sweden is now almost annihilated, although, prior to the late great changes in the government of that country, the Swedish East India company was, of all the commercial societies of Europe, the best regulated, and the most successful in its operations, next to the English. The trade of Portugal with the British possessions in the East Indies is of importance; that of Spain, on the other hand, inconsiderable. Calcutta is the most important commercial city of the East Indies. Besides it, Benares, Guzerat, Oude and Moultan are worthy of note, among the commercial towns of northern India; Madras and Pondicherry, on the eastern coast; Bombay, Surat and Cochin, on the western; Goa, &c. From Queda, on the peninsula of Malacca, are obtained tin, rice, wax, fish maws and sharks' fins; at Salengore, Pahang and Trangano, cloves,

nutmegs, pepper, camphor, betel, ivory, gold dust, tortoise shell, tin, &c. Gold dust is exported chiefly from Malacca. Since 1819, the British government in Calcutta, through sir Thomas Stamford Raffles, has founded, according to his plan, a new commercial town on the fertile, well-wooded island of Sincapore (q. v.), on the south extremity of the peninsula of Malacca, on the straits of this name, which is of extreme importance to the British trade with China, and must destroy the China trade of the Dutch. If Sincapore is made a free port, England will be able to supply from thence all of Further India with the productions of its industry.

China. The trade which China carries on with Europe, British India, the U. States of America, Cochin-China and Siam, with Japan and the other Asiatic islands, is very considerable. The British imports into China are partly shipped by the East India company, partly by private merchants. From 1781 to 1791, the company sent thither to the amount of £3,471,521 in goods, and £3,588,264 in bullion; from 1792 to 1809, £16,502,338 worth of goods, and £2,466,946 in bullion. The exports which the company made to England, amounted, from 1793 to 1810, including duties, freights, &c., to £41,203,422, and they were sold for £57,896,274, leaving the company a net profit of £16,692,852. As the English East India company trades more extensively with the Chinese than any other body, we shall subjoin the following official statement of its exports of tea and raw silk from the port of Canton, for each of the following ten years, as given in the appendix to the report of the committee of the house of lords, printed in 1821.

Years.	*Tea, pounds.*	*Silk, pounds.*
1810—11	19,710,737	81,828
1811—12	26,164,221	87,074
1812—13	28,267,413	145,889
1813—14	24,727,436	140,129
1814—15	26,195,144	209,073
1815—16	33,013,387	37,642
1816—17	29,353,973	67,518
1817—18	20,151,597	55,597
1818—19	21,085,860	48,007
Average of 1825, 6, 7	37,090,898	

From the different ports of the British possessions in the East, 35 ships entered the port of Canton in the years 1818 and 1819, and the value of their cargoes was $8,714,272, and, including what was shipped to Macao, the total was $11,999,272. The exports of the English merchants not connected with the company, to China, probably amount annually to £500,000.—Next to the English, the people of the U. States have the most trade with China. In the following years, their imports into, and exports of tea from, Canton were as stated below, the value of the imports being given in dollars, the amount of tea exported being stated in pounds.

Years.	*Imports.*	*Tea exported.*
1815—16	$2,527,500	7,245,290
1816—17	5,609,600	8,954,100
1817—18	7,076,828	9,622,130
1818—19	10,017,151	10,988,649
Average exports to 1800,		2,735,090
" " of 1824—25,		13,314,449

having increased 387 per cent. in 25 years. The exports of tea by the East India company, in this time, have also greatly increased. The company's export trade from Europe to China has long been stationary. The imports of the nations on the continent of Europe into China consist chiefly of gold bullion, for which tea is received; but these imports are small, since most of them obtain their tea from the English and Americans. With Siam, Cambodia, Cochin-China, the Asiatic islands and Japan, China has a very active intercourse, and, of late, with Russia also, both by land through Kiachta to Irkutsk, &c., and by water. The Dutch, English and Americans have factories at Canton, the French an agent there or at Macao, the Spaniards an agent at Macao, where the Portuguese have a colony.

From Siam and Tonquin are exported tin, ivory, diamonds and other precious stones, gold dust, copper, salt, betel, pepper, wax, silk, timber and lackered wares, and the commerce of these two countries is mostly in the hands of the Chinese and Portuguese. The trade of Cochin-China is mostly in the hands of the Chinese. The exports are sugar, silk, gold, betel-nuts, ebony, Japan-wood, buffaloes' horns, dried fish and fish-skins. The Chinese empire is so vast, and the variety of the products of the different provinces so great, that the inland commerce of this world in itself has withdrawn the attention of the people from the foreign trade, which oppressive regulations have injured. Formerly, however, Chinese vessels went to Arabia, and even to Egypt.

Japan. Since the expulsion of the Portuguese from Japan, the commerce of this country has been almost wholly domestic. The only foreigners, with whom the Japanese still have any trade, are the Chinese and the Dutch, and these are limited to the single port of Nangasaki.

The Chinese supply the Japanese with rice, common porcelain, sugar, ginseng, ivory, silks, nankeen, lead, tin plates, alum, &c.; and, in return, receive copper, camphor, lackered wares, pearls, coals, and a metallic composition, called *sowas*, consisting of copper and a small quantity of gold. The Dutch obtain chiefly copper, camphor, lacker and lackered wares. Only 2 Dutch and 12 Chinese vessels are allowed to enter the harbor of Nangasaki annually. After the arrival of a vessel and the performance of the preliminary ceremonies, the goods are sent on shore. Then come the imperial officers (for the trade with foreign countries is the monopoly of the emperor), who examine the quality and the quantity of the goods, deliberate together, and fix the price of the native commodities that are demanded in return. Foreigners must submit to these conditions, or keep the goods which they have brought. The Japanese merchants can obtain foreign goods only by purchasing them of the emperor. In the manufacture of silks and woollens, porcelain and lackered wares, the Japanese are in no degree inferior to the Europeans. In the manufacture of hardware, they have also attained great skill. The Japanese sabres and daggers are very excellent, and are perhaps surpassed only by the sabres of Damascus. In polishing steel and all other metals, they are also very skilful, and their fine porcelains are much superior to the Chinese. In the beginning of the 17th century, the English began to trade with Japan; but the Portuguese missionaries, and afterwards the Dutch, succeeded in prejudicing the government against them. In 1673, the attempt to renew the trade was again frustrated by the Dutch. On account of the great advantages which it was thought this trade would ensure to England, a third attempt was made in 1699, and the factory at Canton was instructed to enter into connexion with Japan, if by any means possible. The result, however, did not satisfy expectation, and all further attempts have been given up. In 1813, however, when Java was subjected to Great Britain, the East India company had some slight intercourse with Japan. The Russian mission to Japan, under Krusenstern, in 1805, was no less unsuccessful than the English had been. (See *Golownin.*)

The Islands of Amboyna, Banca, the Bandas, Java, Sumatra, Borneo, &c.—From Amboyna are exported cloves, to confine the cultivation of which solely to this island, the Dutch took great pains to extirpate all the clove-trees on the neighboring islands. For this purpose, also, the government of Amboyna, with a numerous retinue, still makes a journey every year to the other Dutch islands. Banca is celebrated for its tin mines, and the exportation of this tin to China is of much importance, as the Chinese prefer it to the English on account of its malleability. About 4,000,000 pounds of tin are obtained annually. The Banda islands produce nutmegs and mace. The staple exports from Batavia, where all the goods of the Dutch East India company are deposited, are pepper, rice, cotton, sugar, coffee and indigo. 6,250,000 pounds of pepper, part of which is raised on the island itself, part brought from Bantam, Sumatra, Borneo, and the other islands, are annually stored in the magazines. Both coffee and sugar have also been cultivated here, of late years, to the amount each of 10,000,000 pounds. Borneo has, besides pepper, gold in dust and bars, wax, sago, camphor, the last of the most excellent quality. In addition to the Dutch and English, the Chinese have here an active trade. The exports of Ceylon are cinnamon, pepper, coffee, tobacco, betel, cocoa-nuts, drugs, timber, pearls, precious stones, corals, &c. Of the Philippines, the principal are Lucon or Manilla, and Magindanao or Mindana. The exports are indigo, sugar, silk, gold dust, quassia, pepper, tortoise-shell, wax, precious stones, silver, sago and tobacco. The trade of the Philippines with China and South America is considerable. Manilla produces sugar, the best Asiatic tobacco, indigo, and a kind of hemp. The Prince of Wales' island, from its situation between India, China and the Eastern isles, has an important trade. Its exports are chiefly benzoin, pepper, betel-nuts, groceries, metals, East India zinc, cochineal, eagle-wood, Japan-wood, elephants' teeth, sugar, and silver bullion. Sumatra carries on considerable trade. The exports are gold dust, betel, benzoin, pepper, camphor, Japan-wood, sulphur and rattans, wax, gum-lac, groceries, tin, &c.

III. Africa. The want of navigable rivers, and the immeasurable deserts by which the fruitful regions of Africa are separated, form an insurmountable obstacle to that extension of commerce, which the great fertility of this quarter of the globe would promise. In addition to the intercourse of the interior, the commerce of Africa has its sources in Egypt, the Barbary states, on the west coast in

Guinea, in the neighborhood of the rivers Gambia, Niger and Senegal, at the cape of Good Hope and the Portuguese colonies, and on the coasts of the Red sea. The inland trade is carried on by means of caravans. The African caravans consist of from 500 to 2000 camels. The three principal countries from which they proceed are Morocco, Fez and Egypt. The chief articles of the inland trade of Africa are salt, gold and slaves. The greatest caravans go from the western coast and from the interior by way of Timbuctoo, the great mart of the inland trade, and other places of depot, to the eastern coast, where the most important commercial places are Natal (on the coast of Lagoa), Soffala, Quilimane, Mozambique, Querimba, Quiloa, Mombaza, Melinda, Brava, Magadoxo, Berbera, Zeila and Adel. Quilimane, Mozambique and Melinda are Portuguese settlements. From Adel, Zeila, Berbera and Brava are exported, mainly, gold dust, ivory and incense, for which the products of Arabia and the East Indies are returned. There is considerable trade between the British settlements in the East Indies and Mozambique, and the English obtain elephants' and hippopotamus' teeth, tortoise-shell, drugs, cowries, gold, &c.

The Barbary States. The commercial intercourse of the Barbary states with Europeans is very inconsiderable and vacillating, and the little business which is transacted is mainly in the hands of the French, British and Americans. The exports consist of olive-oil, wax, wool, wheat, gums, almonds, dates, aromatic seeds, ivory, leather, hides and ostrich-feathers. Even the coral fisheries on the coasts (from cape Rosa to cape Roux) are in the hands of the French and Italians; and the annual produce of about 50,000 pounds of coral is more than $420,000. But a far more important commerce is pursued by the Barbary states with Arabia, Egypt, and the interior of Africa. Their caravans are met with in Mecca, Cairo and Alexandria. The chief commercial cities are Algiers, Tunis, Tripoli, Sallee, and Agadeez, or Santa Cruz, and in Morocco, Mogadore. Before the French revolution, the commerce of Algiers was wholly in the hands of a company of French merchants at Marseilles, who had regular settlements in the ports of Bona, La Calle and Il-Col. But, in 1806, the dey conveyed, for $50,000, the possession of those ports to England. The chief ports of export of Algiers are Bona and Oran. Tunis is the most important commercial state in Barbary. Its chief harbors are Biserta, Susa and Soliman. Tripoli has little trade, and its exports consist mostly of saffron, ashes, senna leaves and madder. The trade of Morocco and Sallee is also of little importance. Agadeez, or Santa Cruz, is the most southerly harbor of Morocco, and was once the centre of a very important trade. Fez is still such a centre between the ports of Morocco, the Mediterranean sea and the interior of Africa. (See *Timbuctoo* and *Wassanah.*)

Cape of Good Hope. The trade with the cape of Good Hope is extremely advantageous to Great Britain. In 1809, the importation of English goods exceeded £330,000, while the exports of the colony (mostly Cape wine) did not amount to £6000. The amount of the trade has since been very much enlarged by the increase of colonization. The average exports from Great Britain to the cape of Good Hope amount to $2,119,000, and the imports into England from the Cape to $1,561,000.

Egypt. From its uncommonly favorable situation in the centre of three portions of the globe, this country seems destined by nature to be also the centre of their commerce; but it has altogether lost its former high rank in the commercial world, since it has ceased to be the channel of the India trade. It has, nevertheless, considerable inland trade, which extends into the interior of Africa. Three caravans go thither, every year, from Egypt. One goes to Sennaar, and collects the productions of this country and Abyssinia; another to Darfour, and the third to Fez, whither the productions of Bornou, and all the countries lying along the Nile, are brought. Other caravans exchange Egyptian commodities for those of the East Indies and Arabia. But the most considerable is that which consists of the united caravans of Abyssinia and Western Africa, and goes annually to Mecca. The exports of Egypt are rice, corn, cotton, myrrh, incense, opium, dates, mother-of-pearl, ivory, gums and drugs of various kinds, hides, wax, &c., most of which go to Constantinople, the Barbary states, Great Britain, Venice and Marseilles. It also exports the productions of Arabia, e. g., Mocha coffee. The chief commercial cities are Cairo and Alexandria, since 1819 united again by a canal. Cairo has two ports, Rosetta and Damietta. France sends to Egypt woollen cloth, red caps, fringes of all kinds, and ornaments of dress, ordinary china ware, arms, &c. England sends muslins, and cloths of

different kinds, alum, iron, lead, vitriol, guns, &c. From Florence, silks are imported.

Guinea. Sierra Leone, and the Pepper, Ivory, Gold and Slave Coasts, where the Dutch, French, English and Danes have settlements, export gold dust, ivory, gums, hides, &c., and formerly slaves, in exchange for woollen and cotton goods, linen, arms, gunpowder, &c. The coasts of Lower Guinea (Congo, Angola, &c.), and the Guinea islands, mostly occupied by the Portuguese, export grain, provisions, cotton, indigo, sugar, &c. The slave-trade (q. v.) is here prosecuted still by the Portuguese. Among the other

African Islands, the Azores raise, for exportation, wine and fruits. About 20,000 pipes of the former are annually exported by the English and Americans, chiefly to the East and West Indies. The island of St. Michael sends, every year, to England and the United States 60—80,000 boxes of oranges. The oranges of the island of Pico are remarkable for their superior quality. This island also produces a beautiful kind of wood, which is almost equal to mahogany.—The staple productions of the Canaries are archil, in its raw state, rose-wood, brandy and Canary wine. The last goes chiefly to the West Indies and England: in the latter country, it is always sold for Madeira wine. —The cape Verd islands export archil in a raw state, and coarse cotton cloths for the use of the Africans.—The staple product of Madeira is valuable wine, which is divided into five kinds, according to the market for which it is designed. The most excellent is called *London particular.* The next in quality is also sent to the London market. Of inferior quality is that destined for the India market. The kind that goes to America holds the fourth rank, and the fifth is designated by the name of *cargo.* Of this wine, the English annually receive more than 7000 pipes; the U. States, about 3000.—The Isle of Bourbon produces coffee, cloves, white pepper, cotton, gums, benzoin and aloes. Its trade is confined almost wholly to Madagascar, Isle de France, the Comoro islands, and the settlements of the Arabs on the eastern coasts of Africa.—The Isle de France, or Mauritius, exports coffee, indigo, cotton, sugar, nutmegs, cloves, ambergris, &c.—The exports of Madagascar are cowries, betel-nuts, ambergris, wax, cocoa-nuts and corn.

IV. AMERICA. The extensive coasts of America give it all the commercial advantages of the ancient world, free from the obstacles presented by those masses of continents, the interior of which is so remote from the sea and destitute of navigable rivers, like the whole of Africa and the boundless tracts of Asiatic Tartary and Siberia. In the abundance of navigable rivers, both North and South America have an immense advantage over the other quarters of the world. The long chain of great lakes, and numerous navigable rivers in North America are already the theatre of a very active commerce. The great inland countries of South America are rendered accessible by rivers of gigantic magnitude, and from the mouth of the river Plata to the gulf of Darien, an inland navigation may be effected, almost without having recourse to the aid of art. But there still remains, for the promotion of American commerce, the execution of a great work—the digging through the narrow isthmus of Darien—by which a connexion between the Pacific and Atlantic would be effected, the advantages of which would be incalculable. The western passage to India, which Columbus sought for, would then be effected. Alexander von Humboldt points out three places as most adapted to the execution of such a project. Nature herself seems willing to assist, for, though the mountains forbid the idea of forming a canal immediately across the isthmus, yet, by starting in lat. 12° N., joining the head of lake Nicaragua to a small river which runs into the Pacific ocean, and forming a canal 30 miles long, through a low, level country, a communication between the two oceans might be effected. The governments which are most directly interested in making such a canal are, at present, too weak and too unsettled to be able to carry it into effect; yet Bolivar appears to have always had this great work in view.

THE UNITED STATES OF NORTH AMERICA. The rapid progress which the U. States have made, in commerce and navigation, is unparalleled. Hardly had this people appeared on the ocean, before every coast of the earth was visited by their navigators. While they are seen covering the ocean with their vessels, throughout the Atlantic coast, even to cape Horn, whence they enter the broad Pacific; in the other direction, they press onward to the ice of the north pole, and penetrate the deep recesses of Hudson's bay and Davis's straits. The most remote and dangerous seas are traversed by their keels. The coasts of the whole southern hemisphere, the western coast of America, and the eastern coasts of Asia, are visited by

them. It is a very common thing for an American merchantman to make a voyage round the world, starting from the U. States, going round cape Horn to the north-west coast of America, taking in furs, sailing to China, and going thence, with tea, &c., to the ports of Europe. The American whalers are distinguished for skill and boldness.

Agricultural Exports. The trade of the U. States for the year ending September, 1828, may be assumed as the basis of the remarks to be made upon the subject of this commerce. The exports of domestic products for that year, according to the custom-house estimates, were $50,669,669. Those of cotton, the great staple of the country, were $22,487,229, and, accordingly, nearly half of the entire amount. The next greatest export is that of tobacco, which amounted to $5,269,960. Of rice, the export amounted to $2,620,696. The value of these three articles, being over $30,000,000, thus constituted three fifths of the whole. In the annual returns made to congress, the exports of domestic products are divided into those of the *sea*, the *forest*, *agriculture* and *manufactures*. The three species of agricultural articles above mentioned are mostly the productions of the Southern States, including Virginia and Kentucky. The other exports, coming under the same head, are mostly furnished by the Middle and Western States; namely, beef, tallow, hides and cattle, butter, cheese, pork, bacon and hogs, horses, mules, sheep, flour, biscuits, corn-meal, rye-meal, oats, potatoes and apples, flax-seed and hops. Of these articles, the principal is flour and biscuit, the value of which was $4,464,774, being the third article in value among the exports. The fifth article in value is that of swine and their products, viz., bacon, pork and lard, the value of which was $1,495,830, making about one thirty-third part in value of the whole export. The articles of corn-meal and rye-meal amounted to $881,894, constituting a little more than one sixtieth part of the whole exports. Cattle and their products, including butter and cheese, exceeded the last amount, being $896,316. This species of export is of far less comparative importance in the trade than formerly, being limited to its present amount, not by the capacity for production, but by the extent of demand in the foreign markets; for an increase of the foreign demand would very soon double and treble the quantity. Some of the articles comprehended in the above list, though agricultural products, yet involve some process of manufacture; such, for example, as butter, cheese, bacon, flour, biscuit, meal, and part of the tobacco. A great many, however, of the exports coming under the head of *manufactures*, include in them the value of materials supplied by agriculture, such as the cotton fabrics, those of leather, and spirits distilled from grain; so that, on the whole, the strictly agricultural products of the country constitute a larger proportion of the whole exports than the tables represent; and yet the proportion represented by the tables is very large, being 38,500,000 out of the 50,000,000; and, if we add the value of the materials supplied by agriculture for the manufactured exports, we shall have at least six sevenths of the whole domestic exportation consisting of the raw products of agriculture.—*Products of the Sea.* The products of the whale, cod, mackerel and herring fisheries, exported mostly from the Northern States, amount to $1,693,980, being nearly a thirtieth part of the whole domestic export. Nearly one half of this value consists of codfish, and more than one third of the products of the whale-fisheries.—*Products of the Forest.* The value of skins, furs, ginseng, lumber, staves, bark, tar, pitch, rosin and turpentine, and pot and pearl ashes, partly from the Northern and partly from the Southern States, which were formerly of much greater comparative importance in the trade of the country, now constitutes about one thirteenth part of the whole value of the domestic exports, and amounts to $3,889,611. A large proportion of the trade in these articles, as well as in those of codfish and bread-stuffs, is carried on with the West Indies, Mexico and South America. The skins and the furs go to Europe and Canton, the ginseng to Canton, but in less quantity than formerly, being, in 1828, but $91,164; and the pot and pearl ashes are sent to England and France.—*Manufactures.* The manufactures are, as yet, of the coarser sort, consisting partly of articles made of the products of the country, and partly of those fabricated from foreign materials. But it is obvious that the arts of the country, in their early stages, will be most naturally directed to the working of the raw materials of domestic production; and we accordingly find, that a very small part of the value of exported manufactures consists of the cost of raw materials previously imported. The articles in which the foreign materials form a considerable part of the value, are, spirits manufactured from molasses, refined sugar, articles of

iron, cordage, chocolate, gunpowder, umbrellas and parasols, gold and silver coin, and jewelry. The whole estimated value of exports of home manufactures is about $6,500,000, being about 13 per cent. of the whole domestic exports of the country. About $700,000 of this amount ought to be struck out of the list of domestic exports, being gold and silver coin, consisting, mostly, of metals imported from abroad, and, after being coined at the mint, again exported. The labor put upon these materials, in coining, is so inconsiderable a part of their value, that the value of the coin of the country exported ought not to be included in the estimate of the value of domestic exports. Considerable quantities of gold, it is true, have been produced in North Carolina, but by no means enough, as yet, to supply the demand for the consumption of the country, though it is to be considered, at the same time, that this article, as far as it can be supplied from the domestic mines, will tend directly abroad, being drawn into this channel by the higher price of gold, compared with silver, in England and France than in the U. States; the value being, in England, as $15\frac{6}{10}$, in France, as $15\frac{65}{129}$, and in the U. States, as $15\frac{1}{2}\frac{1}{1}$ to 1. Consequently, the gold, whether in coin or bullion, tends strongly to leave the country. Some of it is arrested for use in jewelry and the arts, but very little in the currency, or in the vaults of the banks. Omitting this article, then, the other articles above enumerated, being the only ones the value of which is made up, in any considerable degree, of foreign materials, are valued, in the returns, at $683,000. The value of materials imported, and then wrought up in manufactured articles, and exported, and included in the list of domestic manufactures, may be estimated at about $200,000 or $250,000; leaving the net exports of manufactures from the raw products supplied by the country about $5,750,000. As cotton fabrics form a large item in this list of exported manufactures, and those fabrics are mostly of the coarser kind, the raw material will constitute a very considerable part of their value, and the proportional value of the direct wages of manufacturing labor, incorporated in these exports, will be proportionally less. If, for instance, a plough, or trunk, or quantity of combs, be sent abroad, almost the whole value of the export consists of the wages of the manufacturers; and a still greater proportion of the value of earthen and stone wares, which make a very considerable item in this list, is of this description; whereas an export of spirits distilled from West India molasses comprises a comparatively small proportional value of manufacturing labor. Taking the whole list of domestic manufactured articles together, and making allowances for the cost of the raw materials, in their rudest state, after they are taken from the ground or from animals, and assume the character of merchandise, by deducting their value from the gross amount of that of the exported manufactures, the remainder, which is the result of the manufacturing labor, interest of capital and profits incorporated into these materials, to bring them into the state in which they are exported, may be estimated at about $4,000,000. We will now glance hastily at the descriptions of articles on which the arts of the U. States are employed for the supply of foreign markets; and the most considerable of them is cotton twist, thread and fabrics, the exported value of which, for the year 1828, was $1,000,000 and a fraction over, being one fiftieth part of the whole domestic exports, the principal markets of which are South America, Mexico and the Mediterranean. The value of leather, and its various manufactures, exported, is a little over $500,000, making one per cent. of the entire exports of the description of which we are speaking. The value of hats exported during the same year was about $333,300—a very large amount, considering the short period since this article has been sent to foreign markets. Soap and candles have long been supplied for the foreign markets, the amount for the year in question being about $900,000. The various articles manufactured, for the most part, of wood, such as furniture, or of wood, leather and iron, such as coaches and carriages, besides various agricultural implements supplied to the West Indies and South America, constitute a very important branch of trade, which amounted to between $600,000 and $700,000. The American glass begins to appear in the foreign markets. The value sent abroad in 1828 was $51,452, and it bids fair to be increased. The other exports consist of a variety of articles in small quantities, among which are, wearing apparel, combs and buttons, brushes, fire-engines and apparatus, printing-presses and types, musical instruments, books, maps, paper and stationary, and trunks. It is apparent, from the above enumeration and estimates, that the manufactured articles, of which the export is most considerable and the most flourishing, are

those of which the raw materials consist, mostly, of cotton, wood and leather.

Foreign Exports. The foreign articles imported and again exported from the country, during the same year, amounted to $21,595,017. This transit trade thus appears to form a very important part of the American commerce. But one third of this whole amount consists of an article which affords very little freight, namely, specie, the export of which, during the same year, was about $7,500,000. Another large item in value, of this transit trade, consists of cotton fabrics, the exports of which were $2,000,000. The foreign silks exported amounted to about a quarter as much. The value of wines exported was about $333,300; that of teas about twice as much; and that of coffee and cocoa $1,500,000, and of sugar nearly $1,000,000. These are the most important articles of foreign export. The other exports of foreign articles previously imported amounted, during the same year, to about $8,000,000 in the whole; but it is not necessary to enumerate them.

Imports. The imports, for the same period, according to the custom-house estimates, amounted to $88,589,824, and exceeded the estimated value of the exports by about $16,250,000. There should, of course, be an excess of value of imports, according to those returns, whether their value is estimated at the cost in foreign ports, or at the market-price in the American ports; for these goods are the returns for the exports, the value of which is estimated at the rate of the markets in the U. States; and, unless a greater value of merchandise can be obtained in exchange, in the foreign ports, the ship-owners would obtain nothing for outward freight: and still more ought the value of the imports in the American markets, after deducting duties, to exceed that of the exports; for this excess is the only fund for paying the two freights and interest on the capital employed. This excess, for the year in question, was about 22 per cent., which cannot, however, be considered very exact, but is probably below the actual rate. That it must be a large amount, in order to save the merchants from loss, is evident; for the registered tonnage, which is mostly employed in foreign trade, is about 750,000 tons, so that an excess of $16,000,000 in the value of imports over that of exports, supposing an exchange of one for the other, would give only about $21 per ton per annum for the shipping employed—an amount scarcely sufficient to defray the expenses of the navigation, including port-charges, and leave a surplus for interest on the capital invested in the cargoes, and a small profit to the merchant. But the rate per ton for the shipping actually employed in the foreign trade, if we estimate the accession at $16,000,000, and suppose the whole trade confined to American ships, will exceed that above-mentioned, since the registered vessels are partially employed in the coasting-trade, as vessels often take a cargo from one home port to another, whence a cargo is taken for exportation. But a part of this trade requires none of the excess, of which we have been speaking, to defray the expenses of navigation, for about one thirteenth part in value is carried on in foreign bottoms, the imports in which were about $6,500,000. If the whole trade were carried on by foreign shipping, and the whole were a barter trade, without credits, as the trade between any two nations, or any number of nations, must, in effect, be, in the long run, the value of exports and imports, estimated at the prices in the home market, after deducting duties paid on importation, must be just equal; for, in the case supposed, all the expenses of transportation are defrayed by the foreign ship-owners. In proportion, therefore, as foreign shipping is employed in the trade, the excess of the value of imports over that of exports will be reduced; since, if a country employs foreign shipping in its trade, it must export an additional value of merchandise to pay the freights, or import a smaller value of merchandise in exchange for the same exports. In regard to the various kinds of goods imported, without pretending to great exactness, which is the less important as the proportions vary considerably from year to year, it appears that some of the principal articles have constituted nearly the following proportion of the whole imports, previously to 1828; viz.—wool and woollen fabrics, 11 per cent.; cotton stuffs, 12; silks, 10; hemp and flax, and manufactures of them, 5; iron and steel, and manufactures of them, 5; spirits, 1½; molasses, 2½; teas, 4; coffee, 3½; sugar, 5½; and indigo, 1½ per cent.

The principal trade, both import and export, is with Great Britain and its dependencies, whence, in 1826, the imports were forty-two ninety-sixths of the whole importation. But to state, even in a general manner, the species of merchandise of which the commerce to and from each country principally consists, would extend this part of the present article to too great a length. Before closing it, however, we

should not omit to remark, that the domestic trade of the country is more extensive and more important than the foreign. That it is more extensive, appears from the returns of the shipping, a greater quantity of tonnage being employed in the coasting trade and fisheries than in the foreign commerce; and as these vessels make from 3 to 10, 12 or 20 passages in a year, according to the distance of the ports between which they trade, the amount of commercial exchanges along the coast, and up the rivers to the head of sloop navigation, without including the trade between the coast and the interior, must greatly exceed the foreign commerce.

From the official report of the treasury department, it appears, that the imports into the U. States, during the year ending September 30, 1829, amounted to $74,492,527, of which amount $69,325,552 were imported in American vessels, and $5,166,975 in foreign vessels; that the exports, during the same year, amounted to $72,358,671, of which $55,700,103 were of domestic produce, and $16,658,478 of foreign produce; that of domestic articles, $46,974,554 were exported in American vessels, and $8,725,639 in foreign vessels; and of the foreign articles, $15,114,887 were exported in American vessels, and $1,543,591 in foreign vessels; that 872,946 tons of American shipping entered, and 944,799 cleared, from the ports of the U. States; and that 130,743 tons of foreign shipping entered, and 133,006 cleared, during the same period. (See the valuable *Statistical Tables*, by Watterston and Van Zandt, Washington, 1829.)

The Canadas, Nova Scotia and New Brunswick. The trade of the two Canadas was long confined to the bare produce of the fisheries and the fur trade. But, in consequence of the improvement of the British colonial system, and of the embargo which was imposed on the American trade during the last war of the U. States with Great Britain, it has much increased. Its exports are wheat, flour, corn, biscuit, fish, oak and pine timber, staves, masts, lumber, Canadian balsam, spruce beer, pot and pearl ashes, cast-iron, furs and skins, castoreum, ginseng, &c. The imports are wine, rum, sugar, molasses, coffee, tobacco, salt, coal and British manufactures. Since 1825, the trade of Canada has increased rapidly. (See *Canada.*) The trade is mostly with the British West India colonies and with the mother country. They do some business, however, with the U. States. (q. v.) The trade which they have with the Indian tribes, consists merely of barter.—Nova Scotia and New Brunswick have nearly the same exports. In Haliburton's Nova Scotia, vol. i, p. 233, is an interesting table of the prices of different articles, estimated in spring beaver, as settled by government in 1761. The trade of Nova Scotia has lately again increased, particularly with the West Indies. (See the statistical table in Th. C. Haliburton's *Histor. and Statis. Account of Nova Scotia*, 2 vols., Halifax, 1829.)

Mexico. The commerce of Mexico is, at present, checked by natural and political causes. The want of river communication is a great impediment to its internal commerce. Roads lead from the *plateaux* to the seaports, but they are very imperfect, and beasts of burden, therefore, are preferred to carriages, which would not be able to make their way. A much easier communication between the Mexican Atlantic seaports and those on the coast of the Pacific, would be effected in case of the execution of the great canal across the isthmus of Tehuantepec, so much spoken of. The principal objects of export are gold and silver, either in bullion, coined, or worked up in various ways; cochineal, sugar, flour, indigo, salt meat, dried vegetables, tanned hides, sarsaparilla, vanilla, jalap, soap, Campeachy wood, and pimento of Tabasco. Among the articles imported are woollen cloths, silks of Lyons, linen from Germany, white and printed calicoes from France, England and the U. States, paper, china, spirits, cacao, quicksilver, iron, steel, wine, wax, jewelry, watches and clocks, and all kinds of ornaments. In 1826, 1267 vessels entered the ports of the republic. The chief port of Mexico is Vera Cruz. Mexico, the capital, is a commercial place, as we might easily suppose to be the case in a country in which very little is manufactured, and which is so fertile. A part of the commerce of the U. States with Mexico is carried on by means of caravans, which go from the state of Missouri to Santa Fé, in Texas. The smuggling trade in Mexico is very great. The chief commercial cities of Mexico are Acapulco and Vera Cruz. Acapulco, or Los Reyes carries on a considerable trade with the Philippines, and the coasts of Quito and Peru. To Manilla a galleon used to be sent from this port every year, freighted with silver, cochineal, cacao, sweet oil, Spanish wool and European toys. This brought back muslins, printed linen, silks,

Chinese goods, groceries, spices and precious stones. Guatimala is celebrated for its indigo, which is noted for its hardness, lustre and weight.

South America. South America has many articles of trade. The mineral treasures of the country are boundless. In the 16th century, gold and silver existed in such profusion, that, for 25 years, $13,000,000 are said to have been annually exported to Spain from Peru alone, exclusive of what was sent in bars. These precious metals are found throughout Peru, Chile, and the upper section of Tucuman, especially in the Cordilleras; but, in addition to gold and silver, this immeasurable chain of mountains affords copper, lead, iron and platina. The richest mines of South America are those of the province Las Charcas, in the territory of the former viceroyalty of Buenos Ayres. There are, in that district, 30 gold mines, 27 silver mines, 7 copper, 1 tin, and 7 lead mines. The richest of these mines are those of Potosi, which are situated near the sources of the La Plata. Acosta's account, that, during 40 years that the mines had been wrought, they had yielded $12,000,000,000, is much exaggerated. But we gather from official reports, that, from the time of the discovery of America till 1538, the fifth part, accruing to the king, of all the silver obtained from the mines of Potosi, and registered, amounted to $395,619,000, so that, when 39 years had elapsed from the discovery of America, $41,255,043 were obtained annually, exclusive of the considerable quantities which undoubtedly were conveyed from the country secretly, and without the payment of duties, and of that which was used for making silver vessels, images and ornaments for the monasteries and churches, which must have amounted to an immense sum, since all the religious establishments in the country, and especially in the city of Potosi, were very rich in silver vessels. But, whether owing to the exhaustion of the mines themselves, or the faulty management of them, the profits have since diminished. The other exports from South America, although the Spanish and Portuguese directed their chief attention to the obtaining of metals, are very considerable. The following are the principal: cochineal, indigo, cacao, the Peruvian bark, hides, ox horns, tallow, wax, cotton, wool, flax, hemp, tobacco, sugar, coffee, ginger, pimento, jalap, sarsaparilla, ipecacuanha, guaiacum, dragon's blood, and various other medicinal gums, dye-wood, ebony, mahogany, emeralds, various kinds of balsams, &c.

The chief commercial cities of South America are Rio Janeiro, Buenos Ayres, Lima, Carthagena, Caracas, Potosi and Bahia. Buenos Ayres was in possession of the transit trade of all the Spanish possessions in America, and, before the beginning of the revolution, was the mart of the trade of the mother country and its colonies. The principal source of gain for Caracas is the cacao plant, as it supplies nearly two thirds of the European demand. The hides and skins which it exports are superior to those of Buenos Ayres; and the rich ore from the copper mines of Aroa is superior to the Swedish, or to that of Coquimbo, in Chile. The internal trade of South America, especially between Buenos Ayres and Peru, is very considerable. That with the Indian tribes is chiefly in the way of barter; axes, knives, scissors, swords, necklaces, mirrors, and coarse cotton and woollen goods, being exchanged for the productions of the country, especially the celebrated Paraguay tea, and some fine furs.

Brazil has three great commercial cities —Rio Janeiro, Bahia, or St. Salvador, and Pernambuco. The exports are, chiefly, cotton, indigo, sugar, coffee, rice, tobacco, tallow, mahogany, Peruvian bark, ipecacuanha, hides, gold, cacao, vanilla, the diamond, the topaz, chrysolite, amethyst, and other precious stones, and a great variety of dye-stuffs, balsams and gums, dried beef, and India-rubber shoes. The greater part of the Brazilian trade is in the hands of the English. The imports are iron, steel, copper utensils, salt, woollen cloths, linen, calicoes, hats, shoes of all kinds, china, glass-ware, trinkets, books, paper, watches, clocks, and particularly East India goods, such as are not raised in Brazil. Portugal sends to Brazil wine, oil, spirits, hats; the U. States, flour, turpentine and furniture. Naval munitions, sailors' clothes and arms are likewise imported.

Colombia, consisting of Venezuela and New Grenada, says Alex. Humboldt, has received from nature a greater and richer variety of vegetable products, suited for commerce, than any other country of Spanish America; yet its commerce has been declining every year since its separation from Spain. In Colombia, Peruvian bark is found of the best quality and in the greatest quantity. Coffee, indigo, sugar, cotton, cacao, ipecacuanha, the tobacco of Varinas, hides and dried meat, pearls, gold and platina, &c., are obtained in this highly favored country. Its imports embrace all kinds of manufactured

goods, oil, soap, ropes, paper, in fact almost every thing which is wanted by the indolent inhabitants, and made by the hands of men; for the people themselves manufacture hardly any thing. Humboldt has estimated the exports of Colombia at $9,000,000, and its imports at $11,200,000. M. Mollien estimates the former at $8,000,000, and the latter at $10,000,000. The state of this country, at the present moment, prevents the possibility of obtaining accurate information on this subject. The ports of La Guayra (harbor of Caracas), Rio del Hacha, St. Martha, Carthagena, Chagres, Porto Cabello, Panama and Guayaquil are the most frequented by strangers. The English, from Jamaica, the Americans and French, are the nations who trade principally with the Colombians in the Atlantic ports; the Peruvian vessels carry on the coasting trade on the Pacific.

Buenos Ayres, like all the other South American states, is in an unsettled condition. The chief exports of this country are horse and ox hides: in fact, Buenos Ayres may be called, by way of eminence, the country of cattle. Its imports include all the manufactured articles which the inhabitants make use of. England sends thither woollen and cotton cloth, cutlery, hardware, furniture, saddlery, hats, porter and cheese; the U. States, lumber, cod-fish, mackerel and herring, leather, gunpowder, provisions; from Brazil are sent sugar, coffee, cotton, rum; steel and iron from the north of Europe; and France sends her manufactures. The exports and imports are estimated at $9,000,000.

The commerce of *Chile* is, at present, in a low condition. Its rich mines are poorly managed, and the political state of the country prevents its commerce from acquiring that activity which it might easily attain by the export of the precious metals of the country to the East Indies, to give in return for sugar and cotton. It could also provide Peru with salt meat, and take in return coffee, sugar, &c. Caldcleugh estimates the English importations into Valparaiso, in 1822, at 4,071,250 francs, and Lowe at 47,248,625 francs, for the same year. The U. States send thither flour.

Peru trades with the U. States, with Europe, the Philippine islands, Guatimala and Chile, and, by land, with Buenos Ayres. Its exports are chiefly gold and silver, wine, brandy, sugar, pimento, Peruvian bark, salt, vicuna wool and coarse woollens. It receives, in return, from the U. States, bread-stuffs, and manufactures of various sorts; from Europe, manufactured goods, particularly silks, fine cloth, lace, fine linen, and other articles of luxury and show; from the Philippine islands, muslins, tea, and other East India goods; from Guatimala, indigo; from Chile, wheat and copper; and from Buenos Ayres, mules and Paraguay tea. Callao is the port of Lima.

The commerce of *Central America*, or Guatimala, is increasing in activity. Colonial commodities, chiefly sugar, coffee, cacao, cotton, indigo, cochineal, ebony and logwood (from the bay of Honduras), are the principal exports sent to Europe and some of the U. States. The imports are linen, from Germany and France; woollen cloths, silks and wines, from France; English and French calicoes; flour, and some manufactured goods, from the U. States. This country is well adapted for commerce, on account of its fine harbors and several navigable rivers. A canal across the isthmus would be of vast benefit to this country; in fact, the execution of such a canal would bear a similarity to some of those great inventions, which have changed the face of the world.

The English, Dutch and French possessions in South America are *Demerara*, *Berbice*, *Essequibo*, *Surinam* and *Cayenne*. From Cayenne are exported cloves, Cayenne pepper, annotta, sugar, cotton, coffee and cacao; from Berbice, rum, sugar, cotton, cacao, &c.; from Demerara, Surinam and Essequibo, sugar, rum, cotton, coffee and molasses.

West Indies. The chief islands which constitute the West Indies are Cuba, St. Domingo, or Hayti, Jamaica, Barbadoes, Dominica, St. Christopher, or St. Kitt's, Curaçao and Guadaloupe. They have all very nearly the same productions, viz. sugar, coffee, wax, ginger and other spices, mastich, aloes, vanilla, quassia, manioc, maize, cacao, tobacco, indigo, cotton, molasses, mahogany, long peppers, lignum-vitæ, Campeachy wood, yellow wood, gums, tortoise-shell, rum, pimento, &c. Before St. Domingo or Hayti became an independent government of blacks, it was the depot of the goods brought from Havanna, Vera Cruz, Guatimala, Carthagena and Venezuela; but, since that event, Jamaica has been the magazine of all goods from the gulf of Mexico. Trinidad is the great seat of the contraband trade with Cumaná, Barcelona, Margarita and Guiana. The imports are manufactures of all kinds, wine, flour, and, formerly, slaves, who are still smuggled into many of the

islands. The West Indies form one great source of the commerce of the world; and we must refer the reader, for more particular information, to the articles on the different islands.

A new path has been laid open to the commerce of the world by the British, in the Southern ocean, where, of late, the Sandwich, the Friendly and the Society islands have been taken within the circle of European and American intercourse; and in Australia and Van Diemen's land, a great market has been established for the exchange of British manufactures for the productions of nature; while the North Americans have attempted to found commercial settlements on the Washington (Nukahiva) and other islands of the Pacific. (See Moreau de Jonnes *Du Commerce extérieur du XIXme Siècle*, 2 vols., Paris, 1826.) In 1828, the imports from New Holland and the South sea islands, into Great Britain, amounted to £83,552, and the exports to £267,529.

Commercial Courts are tribunals distinct from the ordinary civil courts, and are established in commercial towns, or within certain districts, to settle disputes with regard to rights and obligations between persons engaged in trade, with the assistance of experienced merchants, by a brief process, according to equitable principles. It is doubtful whether the commercial nations of antiquity had any commercial tribunals of this sort. The general introduction of them began in the middle ages. The first of these tribunals was probably that established at Pisa, in the 11th century, and the basis of its decisions was the code of maritime laws of Pisa, confirmed by pope Gregory VII, in 1075, from which the *Consolato del Mare* may have been, in part, borrowed. At first, the commercial tribunals were not so much courts established by government as arbiters of disputes, freely chosen by the merchants, and confirmed by the governments. This is evident from the first chapter of the *Consolato del Mare*, which runs thus:—"The good seamen, ship-owners, and seafaring people generally, are accustomed to assemble on Christmas evening of every year, either all or the greater part of them, at a place of their appointment, and when nearly all are convened, they appoint, not by lot, but by vote, two worthy men, experienced in all maritime affairs, for their consuls, and another, of the same occupation, as judge of appeal. To him are made all appeals from the sentence of the consuls." Under the name of *commercial consuls*, such committees of arbitration were appointed in all the great commercial cities of Europe; and, in the course of time, they really became tribunals of justice, and were, in part at least, administered by men of legal learning and experience. Pope Paul III confirmed the commercial consuls in Rome. Francis II, in 1560, granted to the Parisian merchants particular arbiters for the adjustment of commercial disputes, and in 1563 was established the Parisian court of commerce, consisting of a judge and four consuls. The same thing soon followed in all the important commercial towns of France. In London, Henry VII appointed particular commercial judges. The president of the commercial tribunal for the Hanse towns, established in 1447, bore the name of *alderman*. At Nuremberg, in 1621, a similar tribunal was instituted under the name of *inspectors of the markets* (*marktvorsteher*). There was one, also, in Botzen, in 1630. The diets of the empire even called upon the German princes and commercial cities to follow this example, as the decrees of the empire of 1654 and 1668, and the decree of the imperial commission of Oct. 10, 1668, show. In many of these cities, as in Frankfort on the Maine, and in Leipsic, they were not so much independent authorities as delegates from the city councils. When commercial courts take cognizance particularly or solely of disputes relating to maritime affairs, they are called *courts of admiralty*. Such a court was erected in Hamburg in 1623. Among the tribunals more recently established are the French, formed in 1808, according to the provisions of the *Code de Commerce;* and the new Hamburg commercial court, of the same kind, which dates from the time when Hamburg was the chief city of a French department; this was, in 1816, retained with some modifications. Their internal regulations commonly require that a part of the members, or, at least, the presidents, should be lawyers: the rest are, for the most part, experienced merchants, who are better adapted than regular judges to give counsel on commercial affairs, with which they are more acquainted, and which, very often, are not to be reduced to simple principles of law, but are to be decided according to commercial practice. Their jurisdiction commonly extends over all commercial disputes, whether occurring during the fairs, or at other times, matters of exchange, insurance, freight, bottomry, average, &c., and, further, over bankrupts, the hiring of shops and stores, clerks and apprentices, the debts

of those who receive goods from merchants upon credit; and all natives and foreigners who traffic in the place, and are found there, all ship-owners, contractors for transporting goods, brokers, factors, &c., are obliged to submit to their decisions. They do as much as possible by oral investigation; and the intention of their institution is, that they shall avoid the long and formal process of other courts. But when the difficulty and confusion of the matters in dispute occasion the necessity of an investigation in writing, recourse is had thereto. The greater despatch of these courts consists principally in this—that the defendant is orally summoned, once, or several times, to appear before them, at an early day, and, if he twice fails to come, is brought by force; the complaint is then made orally, both parties are heard, and sentence is given, if possible, immediately after. But, as this can seldom be done, and most cases require reference to written documents, a day not far distant is appointed for the answer to the complaint, and for the evidence on both sides, and the time is seldom or never prolonged. The remedies against a sentence (such as revision, restitution, &c.; see *Hamburg Code of Commercial Procedure* of Dec. 15, 1815) must be sought from the same judges, and are not easily obtained. Appeals are only allowed in very important cases, and upon the deposit of a large sum as a pledge that the final decision shall be obeyed without delay. The principal features of this process are found in the *Consolato del Mare* (see chapters 8—31), and form the basis of most commercial codes. According to the French code, each tribunal consists of a president, several judges (not more than 8, and not less than 2, in number), together with several persons, who, in case of a pressure of business, become assistant judges (vice-judges—*suppléans*), a clerk of the court (*greffier*), and several inferior officers (*huissiers*). (*Code de Commerce*, livre 3, tit. 1, § 615—24.) The members of a commercial tribunal are chosen from among the most respectable merchants. Every merchant 30 years of age, who has done business in an honorable manner for 5 years, can be appointed judge or assistant judge. The president must be 40 years old, and have already exercised the office of judge. The election is made by secret ballot. The members elect take an oath before entering upon their office, which they hold for 2 years; they receive no salary, and cannot be reëlected until a year after the expiration of their term. The rules of the commercial tribunal are to be found under the 25th title of the 2d book of the *Civil Code*, and are very similar to those of the *Consolato del Mare*. From the sentence of these tribunals appeal is made to the court of appeal within whose jurisdiction they happen to be. (See *Commercial Law*.)

Commercial Law (or the *law merchant*) is that which relates to trade, navigation, maritime contracts, such as those of insurance, bottomry, bills of lading, charter-parties, seamen's wages, general average, and also to bills of exchange, bills of credit, factors and agents. Lord Mansfield describes it as a branch of the public law, and applied to its universal adoption the language of Cicero respecting the great principles of morals and eternal justice—*nec erit alia lex Romæ, alia Athenis.* The body of rules constituting this law is substantially the same in the U. States and Europe, the rules, treatises and decisions of one country and one age being, in general, applicable to the questions arising in any other. The reason is obvious why this law should be common to different nations, for it regulates those contracts and transactions in which they come in contact, being a sort of neutral ground between their hostile interests, institutions, customs and prejudices. National law, which regulates the conduct of different nations towards each other, is distinguished from maritime law, by which private contracts between individuals are regulated. The first collection of marine laws was that of Rhodes, of which some fragments have come down to us in the Digest of Justinian, in the title *De Lege Rhodia de Jactu;* the collection under the title of *Rhodian Laws*, published at Basle in 1561, and at Frankfort in 1596, being generally considered as spurious. This title and that *De Nautico Fœnore* recognise the first broad principles on the subjects of jettison and maritime law. The law *de exercitoria actione*, in the Digest, also transmits to us their principles as to the liability of the owners for the acts and contracts of the master of a vessel. The remaining rules and principles by which the commercial transactions of the ancients, in the Mediterranean, were governed, have, for the most part, passed into oblivion. The reason of so small a space being assigned to this branch of jurisprudence, in the Roman laws, may be the low estimation in which trade was held by the Romans, who prohibited men of birth and rank from engaging in commerce, of which the code (4. 63. 3) speaks contemptuously; and

Cicero says it was not fitting that the same people should be both the porters and the masters of the world. The Greeks, being the merchants and navigators of the ancients, adopted the Rhodian laws, with modifications. The Athenian law, on the subject of maritime loans, is stated particularly in Boeckh's Economy of Athens, b. 1, sec. 23, from which it appears that the rules on this subject were very definitely settled. The laws of trade naturally followed the trade which they were designed to regulate. Accordingly, we find them first revived in the middle ages, on the shores of the same sea, in one of the islands of which they had their origin; a collection of them being made at Amalfi, a city within the limits of the present kingdom of Naples, about the time of the first crusade, towards the close of the 11th century, called the *Amalfitan Table*, the authority of which was acknowledged throughout Italy. The origin of the compilation of sea laws, which passes under the title of *Consolato del Mare*, though involved in some obscurity, is most generally assigned to the city of Barcelona, in Spain. Some writers, however, and particularly Azuni, claim the honor of this collection also for Italy. But Casaregis, a profound commercial jurist, who published an edition of it, in Italian, at Venice, in 1737, and M. Boucher, who published a French translation in 1808, from what he considers the original edition of Barcelona of 1494, both admit the Spanish claim. These laws are supposed by M. Boucher to have been adopted and in use as early as the 9th century, and their authority was acknowledged in all the maritime countries of Europe, and some of the articles of this collection form a part of the present commercial law of all civilized nations. It has been translated into German, also, but no entire English translation has yet been made. It is an ill-arranged, confused compilation; and, though it is interesting as a historical record of the marine laws and customs of the middle ages, a large proportion of its provisions do not apply to the modes of transacting business and making contracts in modern times. The *Jugemens d'Oléron* (or Laws of Oleron) are supposed to have been compiled about the time of Richard I; and the honor of this collection, like that of the *Consolato*, from which it is partly borrowed, is in dispute, being claimed for the French by Valin, Emerigon and Cleirac, who say it was made by order of queen Eleanor, duchess of Guienne, for the use of that province, and adopted by her son Richard I, duke of Guienne. But Selden, Coke and Blackstone assert that it is an English work, published by Richard I, in his character of king of England. The maritime codes of Wisbuy and the Hanse towns are also of historical celebrity, and constitute a part of the legal antiquities of this branch of jurisprudence. These were the principal marine codes down to 1673, the date of the French ordinance of commerce, which treated largely of bills of exchange, and negotiable paper. In 1681 was published, also, the French Ordinance of Marine, one of the most glorious monuments of the reign of Louis XIV. It was framed under the influence of Colbert, and merits all its celebrity, being comprehensive, and including provisions, not only on many of the subjects of commercial law, as we have defined its limits, but, also, very ample regulations on the subject of prizes. These ordinances are the foundation of the present system of marine law in Europe and the U. States. Valin's commentary upon the Ordinance of the Marine, published in 1760, is a profound, original, comprehensive, learned and accurate work. In 1763, he also published his commentaries on the provisions of the ordinance in relation to prizes. About 20 years afterwards (1782), Emerigon published his masterly treatise on insurance. The two ordinances, with the commentary of Valin, and the treatise of Emerigon, made the commercial law a science, of which the principles were now settled, and their application also traced out into a great number of examples. It was now in the power of jurists, judges and legislators to make every new question and case that should arise only a confirmation and extension, in application, of doctrines which had been established upon conclusive reasons, and made parts of a harmonious system; and all the commercial nations have adopted the system thus formed. It constitutes the present French code of commerce, and appears every where in the British, American and continental treatises and decisions. The other French writers of greatest celebrity, on this branch of law, are Pothier, Cleirac and Boucher. Mr. Jacobsen, a jurisconsult of Altona, has published a useful work on the subject of sea laws. The earlier English writers on commercial law were Malynes (a merchant), Molloy (a lawyer), Beawes (a merchant), Postlethwaite, Magens (a *dispacheur*, or adjuster of marine losses, originally of Hamburg, afterwards of London) and Wiskett (a merchant). But the marine law cannot be considered

as having become a branch of the general science of jurisprudence in England, until the time of lord Mansfield, who appears to have had some considerable acquaintance with the treatise of Valin, from which he drew principles and reasons, and incorporated them into the reluctant common law. By degrees, during his judicial career, this branch of jurisprudence gained popularity, and, from that time, has occupied an important part of the British legal administration, though very few legislative enactments have either disturbed or promoted its progress. Though the maritime law in that country continued in a very rude and undigested state, long after it was arranged into an admirable system in France, yet the assiduity with which it has been cultivated since its introduction, and the splendid talents which have been brought to its illustration, have contributed to advance it with a rapid progress. Among the ornaments of this branch of law, we ought particularly to mention lord Stowell, judge of the British high court of admiralty, a jurist and judge unsurpassed in comprehensiveness of learning, depth, justness and clearness of thinking, cogency of reasoning, richness of illustration and brilliancy of expression. The present chief-justice of the court of king's bench, lord Tenterden, has also, by his learned and well arranged treatise on merchant shipping, as well as by his opinions from the bench, contributed very materially to the present advanced state of British commercial jurisprudence. The other principal writers on this law are Millar, Park, Marshall, Bayley, Chitty, Lawes, Holt and Benecke. Nor have the U. States been idle spectators of this improvement in a branch of law in which their industry and prosperity are so deeply interested. Though they have supplied but few original systematic treatises and digests, yet, in the numerous important and interesting questions that have been brought under discussion before the legal tribunals, the research, comprehensive views and logical power displayed both by the counsel and the courts, will support a comparison with those of their European contemporaries, who might derive very useful additions to their own adjudications, particularly on the subjects of merchants' shipping and insurance, from the American reports. It is not, perhaps, invidious to distinguish, among the most eminent of those who have contributed to the elucidation of the commercial law, chief-justice Marshall and justices Washington and Story, of the supreme court of the U. States, and chancellor Kent of New York.

Commerson, Philibert, a botanist, born 1727, at Chatillon-les-Dombes, was a doctor of medicine in Montpellier. In 1767, at the command of the king of France, he accompanied Bougainville (q. v.) on his voyage round the world. From the name of a young French lady, Hortense Barré, who accompanied him in a man's dress, he called a flower, now well known, *Hortensia*. During this voyage, he died on the Isle de France, in 1773. He wrote, among other things, a botanical martyrology—a biography of those who have fallen victims to their efforts in the cause of botany. He left his plants, drawings and papers to the royal cabinet at Paris.

Commines. (See *Comines*.)

Committee. Large deliberative assemblies, with a great variety of business before them, are unable to discuss and investigate, sufficiently, many subjects on which they are obliged to act. Committees, therefore, are appointed, to examine and to report to the assembly. Committees have a right to choose their chairman. In the English parliament and the legislative bodies in the United States, as, in fact, in all legislative bodies in representative governments, there are select and standing committees. The French chambers are divided into *bureaux*. The standing committees are appointed, in England and the United States, by the speaker or president of the house, at the beginning of each session. In the English parliament, the standing committees appointed at every session are those of privileges and elections, of religion, of grievances, of courts of justice, and of trade, though only the first mentioned acts. In the congress of the U. States, the standing committees are very numerous; some of the most important are those of elections, of ways and means, of commerce, of public lands, of the judiciary, of public expenditures, of Indian affairs, of foreign affairs, of manufactures, &c. In fact, business is done by means of committees much more in the American congress than in the English parliament. The French chamber, on the request of five members, must resolve itself into a secret committee.

Committee of the Whole. Matters of great concernment are usually referred to a committee of the whole house, where general principles are digested in the form of resolutions, which are debated and amended, till they take a shape which meets the approbation of the majority. These, being reported, and confirmed by

the house, are then referred to one or more *select committees*, according as the subject divides itself into one or more bills. The sense of the whole assembly is better taken in committee, because in all committees every one speaks as often as he pleases. They generally acquiesce in the chairman named by the speaker, but, like all other committees, have a right to elect their chairman, some member, by consent, putting the question. When the house is desirous of forming itself into a committee, the speaker, on motion, puts the question whether the house will resolve itself into a committee of the whole, to take into consideration such a matter, naming it. No previous question can be put in a committee; nor can this committee adjourn, as others may; but, if their business is unfinished when the time of separation arrives, a motion is made for rising, and the chairman reports that the committee of the whole have, according to order, had under their consideration such a matter, and have made progress therein, but, not having had time to go through the same, have directed him to ask leave to sit again. The question is then put whether the request shall be granted, and, if so, at what time the house will again resolve itself into a committee. But, if they have gone through the matter referred to them, the chairman reports, either immediately, or, if the house wish, at a later period. (See Jefferson's *Manual of Parliamentary Practice*, pp. 33, 39.)

Committee of Public Safety (*Comité de Salut Public*). Under this name, the Mountain party or Terrorists (see *Terror, Reign of*), in the national convention (see *France*), concealed the dictatorial power which they had assumed to overthrow the *Girondists* (q. v.) and the moderate party, that the Mountain party might rule, and the republic triumph over its domestic and foreign enemies. The revolutionary tribunal was subservient to this committee, which was at first composed of 9, then of 12 members. The committee was established April 6th, 1793, in the stead of the *comité de défense générale*, which had existed hardly 10 days; and the convention, from the midst of which its members (among them Danton, Barrère, Cambon) were chosen, intrusted it with unlimited power of secret deliberation, and of supervising the ministers. It was, in every case, to provide for the public welfare as its own judgment should dictate; and therefore, after the lapse of a few months, the right of imprisonment was also given it. The prevailing party acted on the ground that France, threatened from within and without, could not be governed as if at peace (as the Girondists wished), but could only be saved by desperate measures, as in times of the greatest danger. But, after the downfall of the Girondists, June 1st and 2d, 1793, when the Mountain, on the recommendation of the committee of safety, declared that the population of France consisted of but two parties, patriots and enemies of the revolution, and consigned the latter to the persecution of all good citizens, terror took the place of law. Robespierre (q. v.) soon afterwards, July 27, 1793, became a member of the committee of safety, the members of which were appointed monthly; but the old members were, at this period, commonly reëlected. From this time, the committee governed the Mountain party, and, through it, the convention. As the sole rule of his conduct, Robespierre declared that the main-spring of a popular government in a state of revolution was *la vertu et la terreur!* With him, and in accordance with his views, St. Just, Couthon, Billaud de Varennes, Collot d'Herbois and Hérault de Séchelles acted in the committee. Carnot (q. v.), likewise a member of the committee of public safety, confined himself to the direction of the armies, and left to his colleagues the affairs of the interior. At the motion of these men, the new constitution was suspended for a time, and the revolutionary government conferred on the committee of safety, by a decree of the convention, of Dec. 4, 1793. The committee now instituted in all the communes of the republic, as judges of the suspected, revolutionary committees, composed of the most furious zealots: the number of these new tribunals was as great as 20,000. The last remaining forms of regular process were abolished; their place was supplied by violence, and often by avarice and folly. In this time of internal revolutions, and danger from without, it was not in the power of man to restrain the exasperated fury, which, probably, alone prevented France from being conquered. Finally, Danton, who had absented himself for a time from the committee, on account of the influence of Robespierre, declared himself against this system of bloodshed; and Robespierre himself acquiesced in the condemnation of the ringleaders of the Paris mob (March 24, 1794), among whom was Hébert (q. v.); but, soon after (April 5), Danton, with Hérault de Séchelles, was himself overthrown by Robes-

pierre. Till July 28, 1794, he now remained master of the lives of thirty millions of men. He appointed Fouquier-Tinville (q. v.) public accuser. Prisons were multiplied and crowded; the prisoners were cruelly treated, betrayed by spies, and condemned without being allowed the privilege of defence; the property of all imprisoned on suspicion was confiscated, and the guillotine remained *en permanence*. The same violence was practised in the provinces by some of the delegates of the committee of safety, especially Collot d'Herbois, Carrier (q. v.) and Jos. le Bon. Among the numberless victims of this system were the noble Malesherbes (q. v.) and the celebrated Lavoisier. (q. v.) The members of the committee of public safety, and of the *comité de sureté générale*, at last disagreed among themselves. Each committee contained three parties. These, and not Tallien, were the real causes of the 9th Thermidor. In the committee of public safety, Robespierre, Couthon and St. Just ("*gens de la haute main*") formed one party; Barrère, Billaud and Collot d'Herbois ("*les gens revolutionnaires*"), another; and Carnot, Prieur and Lindel ("*les gens d'examen*"), a third. In the *comité de sureté générale*, one party comprised Vadier, Amar, Jagot, Louis (*du bas Rhin*) and Voulland (the "*gens d'expédition*"); to a second belonged Danton and Lebas ("*ecouteurs*"); to the third, Moïse Bayle, Lavicomterie, Elie Lacoste, Dubarran ("*les gens de contrepoids*"). Robespierre attempted to remove the unyielding Carnot from the committee of safety. On the other hand, Billaud de Varennes labored to effect Robespierre's downfall. Couthon, St. Just, the Jacobins, and the *commune* of Paris, alone adhered to Robespierre. But when St. Just actually proposed, in the committee, a dictatorship for the safety of the state, an opposition was raised against Robespierre, in the national convention, by Vadier, Collot d'Herbois, Billaud de Varennes, and especially by Tallien (q. v.) and Fréron; the dictator and his faction were proscribed, and the victory of Barras (q. v.), on the 9th Thermidor, (July 27), brought Robespierre, his brother, St. Just, Couthon, &c., 105 in all, to the scaffold, July 28. The convention now recovered its authority; the Jacobins and the partisans of terrorism (*la queue de Robespierre*) were completely overthrown; at the same time the convention gave the committee of safety and the revolutionary tribunal a more limited power and jurisdiction. The bloody despotism ceased; and when a new constitution introduced (Oct. 28, 1794) a directorial government (see *Directory*), the convention was dissolved, and with it sank into its accursed grave the revolutionary government, the reign of terror, and the committee of public safety.—See *Mémoires inédits de Senar* (secretary-general of the committee, who died in 1796), or *Révélations puisées dans les Cartons des Comités de Salut Public et de Sureté Générale* (2d ed., Paris, 1824). The *Mém. Historiques de M. de la Bussière* (Legendre's private secretary) narrate how ingeniously this *employé au comité de salut public* preserved a number of the arrested from condemnation.

Commodore (corrupted from the Spanish *commendador*); a general officer in the British marine, invested with the command of a detachment of ships of war destined for any particular enterprise. He retains this title only during the continuance of the expedition, during which he has the rank of a brigadier-general in the army, and his ship is distinguished from others in his squadron by a broad, red pendant. The eldest captain of three or more vessels cruising in company is often called *commodore* by courtesy. In the U. States, the title *commodore* is only given by courtesy, not officially.—*Commodore ship*, in a fleet of merchantmen, is the convoy and principal ship, which leads the other vessels, and keeps them together, bearing a light in her top.

Commodus Antoninus (L. Ælius Aurelius), born A. D. 161, son of Marcus Aurelius and of Anna Faustina, daughter of Antoninus Pius, gave early proofs of his cruel and voluptuous character. When a boy of 12 years old, he ordered the overseer of his bath to be thrown into the furnace, because his bath was too hot. His father, who hoped to correct him by mildness and his own example, permitted him early to partake in the government, conferred on him the office of tribune, and, in his 16th year, the dignity of consul, and soon afterwards the titles of *Augustus* and *father of the country*. He married him to Crispina, daughter of Bruttius Præsens. On the death of Marcus Aurelius, A. D. 180, Commodus ascended the throne, and showed himself a more execrable monster than even Caligula, Domitian or Nero. For his amusement, he cut asunder p r-sons whom he met, put out their eyes, mutilated their noses, ears, &c. He was endowed with extraordinary strength, and often appeared, in imitation of Hercules, dressed in a lion's skin, and armed with a club. Three hundred concubines, and as many boys, even the lowest prostitutes of

Rome, were not sufficient to satisfy his infamous lusts. He had even an incestuous intercourse with his sisters, and killed one of them (Lucilla), who had refused to submit to his wishes, and had concerted a conspiracy against him. To fill the treasury, exhausted by his extravagances, he imposed unusual taxes upon the people, sold governments and offices to the highest bidder, and pardoned criminals for money. To display his strength and skill in arms, he appeared publicly on the amphitheatre. He is said to have fought in this way 735 times, and always to have been victorious. Immediately after ascending the throne, Commodus concluded an inglorious peace with the Quadi and with other German nations. In Britain, his valiant general Ulpius Marcellus gained important victories over the Caledonians; on account of which Commodus took the titles of *imperator* and *Britannicus*. The administration of affairs had been, at first, left to his freedman Anterus, who was accused of having seduced the emperor, and was killed by the commanders of the body guard. Commodus, after taking a bloody revenge for the death of his favorite, placed another freedman, Cleander, at the helm of state. A part of the city having been consumed by fire, and the people having been reduced to despair by famine, disturbances broke out, and the emperor was obliged to consent to the death of his minister, who was charged with being the author of these calamities. On the 1st of January, A. D. 193, he intended to appear at the same time as consul and gladiator, after having put to death the two consuls elect. He was so much enraged by the opposition of his friends to this design, that he resolved on their death. The tablets upon which he had written their names were found by accident, and given to one of his concubines (Marcia), who, with surprise, found herself among the number. She conspired, with the rest, against the life of the emperor. They administered poison to him, and, as the poison operated too slowly, he was strangled by the hands of his favorite gladiator, Narcissus (Dec. 31, 192). On the news of his death, which was reported to be the consequence of an apoplexy, the senate declared him an enemy of the state, ordered his statues to be broken to pieces, and his name to be erased from all public inscriptions. He perished at the age of 31 years and 9 months, after a reign of 12½ years. Rome was indebted to him for her handsomest baths—the *thermæ Antoninianæ*. He established, also, an African fleet, in addition to the Egyptian one, for the purpose of supplying the city with corn.

Common Carriers are persons whose business and employment is carrying goods for hire, as distinguished from those who agree to carry in any particular instances. Carriers are one species of bailees. The material question in the contract relates to the degree of care which the carrier is obliged to exercise. By the civil law, he is required to use ordinary diligence, that is, the care and diligence used by a man of common prudence in like cases. The French code follows the civil law very nearly, being, however, a little more strict, as it makes the carrier answerable for the goods, except in cases of superior force, or inevitable accident, or damage arising from the quality of the articles. Down to the time of Henry VIII, the English law seems not to have imposed on the common carrier a greater responsibility than the French code. But, since the time of Elizabeth, he has been held answerable for all losses and damage not arising from the perishable nature of the article, the *act of God*, as it is called, or of a public enemy. Thus he is answerable for loss by robbers, for which the French code would excuse him. The reason of this strictness, given by chief-justice Holt in the case of Coggs *vs.* Bernard (*Raymond's Reports*, vol. ii, p. 909), is to provide "for the safety of all persons, the necessity of whose affairs obliges them to resort to those sorts of persons, that they may be safe in their ways of dealing; for else these carriers might have an opportunity of undoing all persons that have any dealings with them, by combining with thieves, and yet doing it in such a clandestine manner as would not be possible to be discovered." In regard to the continuance of the responsibility, in a case of the carriage of hops from Stourport to Manchester, and thence to Stockport, they were carried to Manchester by one set of carriers on the canal, where they were stored in their storehouse, until they should be taken by another set of carriers, to be forwarded to Stockport, and, being so stored, were burnt. The goods were considered as being in the defendants' hands, not in their character of carriers, but in that of warehouse-men; and so they were held not to be liable. Lord Kenyon said, "The case of a carrier stands by itself on peculiar grounds; he is held responsible as an insurer; but I do not see how we can couple the character of a carrier with that of a warehouse-man." In another case

against the same company by Hyde (reported in *Term Reports*, vol. v, p. 389), the goods were brought to Manchester, to which place they had been brought and stored in the duke of Bridgewater's store-house, where they were consumed by fire. The company had charged for cartage from this store-house to the consignees' store. The goods were, from this circumstance, considered to be in the hands of the defendants, as common carriers; and they were held liable for their value. These cases consider loss by fire as not among the inevitable accidents denominated *acts of God*. The distinction was made upon this point in another case (reported in the *Term Reports*, vol. i, p. 27), of some bags of hops, which were in the course of transportation from London to Shaftesbury, deposited in a booth at Andover, and destroyed by a fire, which, at first, caught in a neighboring booth, at a hundred yards distance. It was said, in this case, if the fire had been occasioned by lightning, the carriers would not have been answerable; but as it was occasioned by the agency or carelessness of man, they were answerable. This risk of fire does not seem to be one which ought to be imposed upon the carrier, upon the principle alleged in favor of his answering for a robbery, namely, for the purpose of preventing collusion with the robbers, for there appears to be no reason for collusion with incendiaries. The above cases show that the law of England considers persons employed in transporting goods on a canal to be common carriers. The rule extends, also, to persons employed in inland navigation generally; and some of the old cases appear to extend it to the coasting trade; but there is no question that it is not, under a bill of lading in the usual form, applicable to foreign navigation, the risk from pirates being universally acknowledged to be a "danger of the seas," for which the ship-owner is not responsible. A wagoner or coachman, whose business is carrying for hire, is answerable as a common carrier; and the owners of the vehicle, who employ him, are also answerable in the same manner; but they are not answerable for any articles which it is known not to be their business to carry; as when the driver of a coach, intended by the proprietors, and ordinarily used, only for the transportation of passengers, took a box to carry, without the consent or authority of the owners, intending to keep the fare himself, they were held not to be answerable for the loss of the box. (*Bac. Abr.*, art. *Carrier*, vol. i, p. 553.) A post-master was held not to be under so strict a responsibility, nor answerable for money enclosed in a letter stolen from his office, for he is a public officer; but chief-justice Hale thought he ought to be answerable upon the same principle and to the same extent as a common carrier. (*Lord Raymond*, vol. i, p. 646; *Modern Reports*, vol. xii, p. 477.) A person who undertakes to carry goods in a special instance, though it be for hire, is not answerable, under the English law, as a common carrier; that is, he is not an insurer, but is only bound to use due diligence. So one who carries goods without receiving any compensation is answerable only for the loss and damage occasioned by his negligence or misconduct, and the reason of his being thus far answerable is his undertaking to carry the goods, which are accordingly put into his hands upon the presumption that he will not be guilty of any gross negligence in so doing. Mr. Dane, in the first volume of his Digest, says that the law in respect to the liability of carriers is the same in the U. States (excepting Louisiana and Florida) as in England. That the carrier is liable for any loss by his own negligence or fault, or that of the persons employed by him, there is no doubt; but it admits of at least some doubt whether he is considered so far an insurer against losses not occasioned by his own fault, as in England. Chief-justice Kent, indeed, has decided (*Johnson's Reports*, vol. x, p. 7) that, in case of no storm or other extraordinary peril, "the dangers of a well-known and dangerous rapid were at the risk of a common carrier, as much as the dangers of a broken and precipitous road." But no American case has yet gone the length of holding the carrier to be an insurer against inevitable loss by robbery or inevitable loss by fire, according to the English doctrine. The case coming nearest to such a rule is one decided in Virginia, Murphy *vs.* Staton (reported in *Mumford*, vol. iii, p. 239), in which it is held that a carrier by boat navigation on James river was liable for the value of cotton lost in his boat, though the boat was good and navigated with adequate skill. The original strictness of the English law, as far as it was grounded on the danger of collusion between carriers and robbers, seems hardly necessary to be kept up at present, either in that country or in the U. States; for, in general, in both countries, there is little danger of such collusion between the owners of boats, stage-coaches, baggage-wagons or coasters, and

gangs of robbers. Where there is no special stipulation as to the delivery of goods by the carrier, and where the contract is not modified by some very distinct and well-known usage, he must deliver the goods to the consignee, or to some person authorised by him to receive them, and the responsibility of the carrier continues till the goods are so delivered. The rule in England is the same in this respect. All those accidents which, in England, will excuse the carrier for damage or loss, as acts of God, will undoubtedly exonerate him in the U. States. Thus, where, in attempting to shoot a bridge, the boat was driven, by a sudden gust of wind, against a pier, and sunk, the carrier was held not to be answerable. (Amies *vs.* Stevens, *Strange's Reports*, p. 128.) And so where a vessel, beating up Hudson river, in attempting to tack, ran aground, in consequence of the sudden failure of the wind, the accident was considered to be at the risk of the owner of the goods. (Colt *vs.* M'Mechen, *Johnson's Reports*, vol. vi, p. 160.) But where any accident of this sort happens, in consequence of overloading the vessel, or otherwise, by the fault of the carrier, he is answerable; as, where goods were taken to be carried from Hull to Stockwith, and the vessel arrived at Stockwith, where a part of the cargo was discharged, but not the goods in question, which, being stowed under some that were to be carried on to Gainsborough, were left on board, the master intending to deliver them on his return from Gainsborough, but the vessel was run aground, and the goods damaged, in going to Gainsborough, the owners of the vessel were held responsible. (Ellis *vs.* Turner, *Term Reports*, vol. viii, p. 531.) The particular circumstances under which goods are taken to be transported, may modify and control the responsibility of the carrier; as where, in time of scarcity, some wheat was taken by a boatman on a canal, to be carried from Wolverhampton to Manchester, on a day of the week on which it was not usual for his boat to go, and for the purpose of removing the wheat from a mob who showed a riotous disposition, he was held not to be answerable for damage done by some of the mob, who seized a part of the wheat, about four or five miles from Wolverhampton. (Edwards *vs.* Shinatt, *East's Reports*, vol. i, p. 604.) It was held, in this case, that the boatman did not take the wheat as a common carrier. And if the owner of the goods contract with one of the partners in the business of transportation, with a knowledge that he alone is to be benefited, and receive the fare, his partners are held not to be liable. (*Maule and Selwyn's Reports*, vol. i, p. 255.) But in Massachusetts, where a coachman, who was part owner of the coach, took a package of money to carry from Northampton to Springfield, for which and similar small packages, he was, according to the understanding between himself and his partner, exclusively entitled to the fare, his partner was, notwithstanding, held to be answerable as a common carrier. It does not appear that these terms of the agreement between the partners were known to the owners of the package. (Dwight *vs.* Brewster, *Pickering's Reports*, vol. i, p. 50.) But carriers may limit their responsibility by giving notice of the conditions upon which, and the extent to which, they will be answerable. Thus, where carriers gave notice that they would not be answerable for any package over the value of five pounds, unless entered and paid for as such, persons sending goods were bound by such notice. (Boston *vs.* Donevan, *Barnewall and Alderson's Reports*, vol. i, p. 31.) And so if they give notice that they will not be answerable for the faults of the master and mariners, provided the notice is so given as to afford ground of presumption of its reaching the party for whom the goods are carried, or in such way that it shall be his fault if he does not receive the notice.—The law relating to the responsibility of carriers has been thus more fully stated than is usual in this work in regard to legal subjects, because it is one of general and popular interest.

Common, Rights of. There are various kinds of rights of common recognised by the common law, namely, of *pasture*, of *piscary* or fishing, of *estovers* or fuel, and of *turbary* or of digging turf. But the phrase usually means the right of pasturing cattle, horses, &c., in a certain field, or within a certain territory. And this again is of different kinds; as common *in gross*, when the grantee is not in the occupation of lands with which this right of pasturage is connected; and *appendant*, where a person, occupying a certain piece of arable land (or *appurtenant*, where he occupies such land or a house), has the right of pasturage in a certain other piece of land; and also a right of common *par cause de vicinage*, or by reason of vicinity,—the right which the tenants of a lord in one town had of pasturing their cattle with those of the tenants of another lord in another town. These rights, in England, have been mostly determined by prescrip-

tion or immemorial usage; by which also was regulated, in most instances, the kind of animals which might be turned upon the land (which were usually horses, oxen, cows and sheep, but not goats, hogs or geese), and the number, and the time of the year when they might be turned in.—In the U. States, there are not wanting instances of right of common, appurtenant and in gross; but the regulation of this species of rights does not occupy a great space in the laws. A law of the province of Massachusetts, of 1693, regulates the rights of common belonging to the freeholders of a town or village, by prescribing the number of cattle that each commoner might put upon the common; and there are rights of common appurtenant in New York, but these are most commonly rights in gross, and the grant from one commoner to another generally specifies the number and kind of beasts to be pastured upon the common field, as "one cow right," or a right for a certain number of sheep, and the like.—Besides the articles on this subject in the abridgments, digests and general treatises, an elaborate work on rights of common was published in 1824, by Mr. Woolrych of London.

Common Law. The phrase "the common law" is a very familiar expression in English jurisprudence, and has various significations, or, rather, is used sometimes in a limited and sometimes in a more enlarged sense. In a large sense, it comprehends the whole body of English law, as well the statutes passed by parliament as the general customary law of the realm. In this manner, it is used in contradistinction to the Roman, or, as we call it, the *civil* law. In a more limited sense, "the common law" expresses that portion of English jurisprudence which is unwritten (*lex non scripta*), in contradistinction to the parliamentary statutes, which are the positive written code (*lex scripta*). For instance, we say that a particular remedy for a wrong is given by the common law, and that another remedy, by way of penalty, is provided by statute; meaning that the latter depends upon some known act of the legislature; but the former rests altogether upon immemorial usage or general principles, which cannot be traced back to any such act. There is yet a still more limited sense, in which the expression is used to designate that portion of the English common law, which is strictly the custom of the realm, and local and municipal in its origin, in contradistinction to the law of nations, and the maritime and commercial law, which are drawn from the general usages and principles recognised among civilized nations. Correctly speaking, the common law now comprehends the law of nations and the law merchant. But these are of much later introduction into English jurisprudence, than the other general customs of the realm, of which we have been speaking. They have been borrowed, for the most part, from the general usages of merchants, in the commercial nations, which, upon the revival of commerce and letters, inhabited the shores of the Mediterranean. For instance, the law of foreign bills of exchange, of insurance, and of general average, is of comparatively recent adoption in England, and cannot be traced back far in her annals. The law of insurance has almost entirely grown up since the time when lord Mansfield became the chief-justice of England (1756). The name of the *common law*, which is thus given to this collection of maxims and customs in England, Blackstone (1 *Bl. Comm.* 67) says, was either given to it in contradistinction to other laws, as the statute law, the civil law, the law merchant, and the like; or, more probably, as a law common to the realm (*jus commune*, or *folk-right*), mentioned by king Edward the Elder, after the abolition of the several provincial customs and particular laws by king Alfred and his successors. But though it is called the *lex non scripta* (or *unwritten law*), we are not to imagine that it is, at present, merely oral, and transmitted, from age to age, by word of mouth. In the dark ages, indeed, amidst the general ignorance of the times, few laws were reduced to writing; and still fewer of these maxims and customs were to be found in books or manuscripts. But (as Blackstone has observed, 1 *Bl. Comm.* 63) with us, at present, the monuments and evidences of our legal customs are contained in the records of the several courts of justice, in books of reports and judicial decisions, and in the treatises of learned sages of the profession, preserved and handed down to us from times of the highest antiquity. They are, however, still styled the *unwritten law*, because they are not set down in a code, as acts of parliament are, in writing, but they derive their authority from long and immemorial usage, and the universal recognition of them throughout the realm. The origin of this common law is now lost in remote antiquity. It probably began in the early customs of the aboriginal Britons, and was successively augmented, in different ages, by the admixture of some of the laws and usages of the Romans, the

Picts, the Saxons, the Danes and the Normans, who spread themselves over the country. It was feeble and narrow at first; but, expanding with the exigencies of society and with the progress of knowledge and refinement, it has now become a very complex and intricate system, and presents a singular combination of the strict principles of the old feudal law, with the elegant reasoning of public and commercial jurisprudence, which are so much admired for their general equity. Of such a gradual formation and expansion is, doubtless, the law of most civilized countries. The Roman or civil law is made up, not merely of the positive legislation of the senate and the people, and the edicts of the emperors, but also of the decrees of courts of justice, of the opinions of learned jurists, and of the silent but irresistible usages of the people in the arrangements of their business and domestic policy. These usages, at first voluntary and arbitrary, generally acquired the force of custom; and tradition made them operate as laws to regulate like concerns in other ages; and, as they were generally founded in public convenience, they were adhered to, first from habit, and at last from an anxious desire, natural in all governments, to profit by the experience of the past, and to fix rights by some certain rules coinciding with the existing state of the people. The common law is usually divided into 3 kinds:—1. general customs, which are the universal rule of the whole kingdom, and form the common law in its more usual signification; 2. particular customs, which, for the most part, affect only the inhabitants of particular districts; 3. certain particular laws, which, by custom, are adopted and used by some particular courts of pretty general and extensive jurisdiction. (1 *Bl. Comm.* 67.) The first embraces the general maxims and principles of English jurisprudence, such as the regulation of the descent of estates, the exposition of contracts and wills, the remedies for civil injuries, and the definition and punishment of crimes, &c. The second embraces the jurisprudence of a peculiar nature existing in certain local districts, such as the custom of gavelkind, in Kent county, where all the sons inherit the estate of their parent, and not (as is the general law of England) the eldest son; so the custom of Borough English, where the youngest son inherits the estate: such, also, are the peculiar customs of the city of London. The third embraces those portions of the civil law and the canon law which are of force in the ecclesiastical and admiralty and other courts, and have long constituted the system which regulates the rights and remedies administered in those courts. This subject will be found discussed at large in 1 Bl. Comm. from p. 63 to p. 92, and in lord Hale's History of the Common Law. A further discussion here would occupy too much space.—The common law of England constitutes the general basis of the jurisprudence of all the U. States of America, except only Louisiana, where the civil law prevails. This common law consists only of the first and third kinds of customary law above mentioned, there being no local or provincial law existing in any particular county or district of any state, as contradistinguished from that which prevails in the state at large. When we say that the common law constitutes the basis of American jurisprudence, we do not mean that the whole common law, as it exists in England, is adopted here. The general doctrine is, that such portions of the common law only as were adapted to the situation of the colonies at their first settlement, and were thenceafterwards used and recognised, are now of force in the states. But many portions were never in force at all in America. For instance, the ecclesiastical establishment, and much of the law growing out of it, was never introduced or recognised here. We, too, consider that all the statutes made in England before the emigration of our ancestors, which were in amendment of the law, and in melioration of it, constitute a part of our common law, and, as such, were brought hither by our ancestors, at their emigration. But statutes since enacted have no force at all here, unless they have been sanctioned by the legislature, or have been adopted into our local practice, by general usage, as amendments of the law. And, indeed, many of the fundamental principles of the common law have been altered, repealed or modified by positive legislation of the various states, as well while they were colonies as since their independence; so that, though the general basis is the same, there are almost infinite shades of difference in the actual jurisprudence of the different states.—There is another sense in which we speak of the common law, in contradistinction to what is called *equity jurisprudence*. The administration of a distinct system of jurisprudence by distinct tribunals of this nature seems peculiar to England and the colonies which derive their origin from her. Blackstone (3 *Bl. Comm.* 50) has well observed, that the distinction between

law and equity, as administered in different courts, is not at present known, nor seems ever to have been known in any other country at any other time; and yet the difference of one from the other, when administered by the same tribunal, was perfectly familiar to the Romans; the *jus prætorium*, or discretion of the prætor, being distinct from the *leges*, or standing laws. It would occupy too much space to enter into a full developement of this distinction in the actual administration of justice in England. In general, courts of equity administer remedies *ex æquo et bono* only in cases where the courts of common law cannot administer an adequate remedy. Hence a very familiar expression is, that a right is an *equitable right*, or an *equity*; by which we mean, that it is a right recognised only in courts of equity, and for which the common law, in its ordinary tribunals, affords no remedy, and of which it takes no notice. (See *Courts* and *Equity*.)

Common Pleas. (See *Courts*.)

Common Schools. (See *Schools*.)

Commoners. (See *Colleges*.)

Commons. The commons of Great Britain, in a general sense, consist of all such men of property in the kingdom as have not seats in the house of lords, every one of whom has a voice in parliament, either personally, or by his representatives. Commons, in parliament, are the lower house, consisting of knights elected by the counties, and of citizens and burgesses by the cities and borough towns. In these elections, anciently, all the people had votes; but in the 8th and 10th of king Henry VI, for avoiding tumults, laws were enacted, that none should vote for knights but such as were freeholders, did reside in the county, and had 40 shillings yearly revenue, equivalent to nearly £20 a year of the present money; the persons elected for counties to be *milites notabiles*, at least esquires, or gentlemen fit for knighthood; native Englishmen, at least naturalized; and 21 years of age; no judge, sheriff or ecclesiastical person to sit in the house for county, city or borough. The house of commons, in Fortescue's time, who wrote during the reign of Henry VI, consisted of upwards of 300 members: in sir Edward Coke's time, their number amounted to 493. At the time of the union with Scotland, in 1707, there were 513 members for England and Wales, to which 45 representatives for Scotland were added; so that the whole number of members amounted to 558. In consequence of the union with Ireland, in 1801, 100 members were added for that country; and the whole house of commons now consists of 658 members. It is well known, that it has been, of late, the constant endeavor of a party in England to obtain a more equal and fair representation in the house of commons, not founded, as at present, on old privileges (in consequence of which, some rotten boroughs (q. v.) send two members, while Manchester sends none), but on the ratio of population. Pitt wished to pay off the rotten boroughs, and to distribute representation more equally. (For further information, see *Parliament*.)

Commons, Doctors'. (See *College of Civilians*.)

Communion. (See *Lord's Supper*.)

Community. The two chief parties, into which theoretical politicians of modern times are divided, approach each other in no point more nearly than in their opinion upon the organization of communities. For those who think that the state should insure an equality of rights to all its members, and those who believe that the common good of the whole is most safely attained by means of an unequal distribution of civil rights and privileges, both agree in this truth, that communities come next in order to private families, in the formation of the great bond by which mankind are united in church and state. They differ, indeed, in their views upon the formation of communities, and their relation to the general government, as well as to their individual members, as widely as they do in their principles in regard to the state, and the claims of citizens upon it. History shows that the establishment of communities has been one of the greatest advances in human improvement; and they have proved, in different ages, the cradle and the support of freedom. By the formation of communities, the patriarchal or family government was broken, which arose from the natural connexion of families, but had terminated in most unnatural restraints and inequalities. In the family, individual interest predominated; and even when increasing numbers gave rise to tribes, the same motives still prevailed. The head of the tribe, the patriarch, was elevated to unrestrained authority. In after years, all employments were distributed among the branches of the family by inheritance: then arose fixed castes—the grave of all human improvement; for their influence palsies individual effort; every man is shut up in one fixed circle, be his talents and accomplishments what they may. That the branch of the tribe which was originally predominant, viz., the caste

of priests, or the priesthood, should, in the end, give way, and become inferior in influence to the second order (the military caste or rank), is so natural a consequence, that it has occurred in almost every instance of society constituted in the way which we have described, and is shown, with great probability, to have occurred, not only in Egypt and among the Hindoos, but in all the islands of the Indian ocean, in Japan, in the early ages of Greece and Rome, and among all people of Gaelic origin. Some writers, such as Eichhorn, for example, have thought, and with much reason, that they found traces of an original and hereditary superiority of the priesthood, in the relations of the ancient German priests to the military and other orders of society. This constitution of society, derived from family ties, with the institutions belonging to it,—a patriarchal government, a hereditary priesthood, and a fixed arrangement of castes,—existed among the earliest nations, and was probably the first form of government which went into operation upon the earth. With it was usually connected a common right of the whole tribe to the ground which they occupied. This was transferred to the head of the tribe, first as the common representative of the members, and for the purposes of fair distribution, but finally became the individual property of the chief. This is found to have been the case not only in Egypt and among the Hindoos, but also in the islands of the Indian ocean, and among the Scotch Highlanders, among whom, more especially, the old Gaelic constitution of tribes and family races has been preserved in their clans, even till a very late period. It will be easily perceived, that such a state of society must have been very oppressive to men of energetic, ambitious spirits, and, therefore, that emigrations would frequently occur; and, as bold adventurers from all castes would join the leaders of these expeditions, it is evident that the original divisions of the castes could as little be kept up among themselves, as they could be forced upon the foreign nations among whom the wanderers, by reason of their higher civilization or superior force, might obtain an influence. In the domestic history of Greece and Rome, we can discover a long-continued contest between the old family constitution of government, which gave particular races particular claims to sovereignty, and the rights of the community in general, which terminated, after many hard-fought battles, with the entire overthrow of the former. The first shock given to the old system took place almost contemporaneously, in Athens and Rome, by the substitution of divisions founded on property, in the room of the old divisions according to tribes and families. The removal from landed property of all restrictions in favor of families, and the equal inheritance of women, were among the most important consequences of this change in Rome.—Among the Germans, the system of communities, which was, from the beginning, the foundation of their political constitution, has remained essentially the same to the present time. The common people (*Gefolge*), who had voluntarily joined a certain leader, acknowledged him as their commander in war, but not as their sovereign in time of peace; as the defender of the laws, but not as their superior. All affairs of general interest, even to the determination upon a new campaign, were decided by the people themselves; and this custom was retained in all the states which they established, in which all the free members enjoyed equal rights. A hereditary distinction of ranks, in the earlier periods of these institutions, is neither certain nor probable. It is only possible, at the most, that some tribes, who had already possessed institutions recognising these distinctions, may have transferred them to their new seats. The military associations were again subdivided into smaller portions, which were perhaps divided in the common military form, as the divisions into tens and hundreds were the only ones strictly observed; and, as new possessions were acquired, the new geographical and political divisions naturally took the form and title of *tithings*, *hundreds* and *counties*. The free inhabitants of these societies were so far connected, that they were responsible one for the other. They had courts, and chose their own judges. This form of society continued nowhere so long as in England, although it is not entirely given up in any of the states of Germanic origin. The freemen of the county formed in England a particular community, whose head—the oldest *ealdorman*, *comes*, count or governor—was appointed by the king; but the second in command, the receiver of the royal taxes (*shire-gerefa*, *grave*, *graf*, *sheriff*, equivalent to the German *Schultheis*, exactor), was for some time elected by the people. The royal boroughs, which were scattered through the counties, were occupied by burgesses, who formed communities distinct from the tithings, consisted of freemen (nobles), and, like the counties, were represented at

the assemblies convoked by the king. The lands which did not belong to the king, or were not given to his followers, seem originally to have been the property of the county, a part or lot in which belonged only to those capable of doing military duty, and constituted the common property; the *folk-land*, *allodial*, or *reeve-land* of the Anglo-Saxons; the *salland* of the Franks; while the lords' property, or *thane-land*, or *book-land* of the Anglo-Saxons, was conferred only upon the followers of the king, or of the great territorial lords, upon condition of the performance of personal service. This last union of the king and the great lords with their vassals threatened the overthrow of the freedom of the communities, as all who were not thus dependent on the great were left without protection from violence; but, after the 10th century, the commons rose again, in consequence of the influence of several causes, partly from the wealth accumulated by the practice of arts and trades, partly from the growth of towns around the castles of the knights. In these towns, which had obtained their freedom, artisans of various sorts were collected, who were distinguished for spirit and boldness. It frequently happened, that, in the course of time, the knights—the original protectors of these communities—were expelled. In some cases, however, they became mingled in the mass of citizens. Many traces of this state of society are still to be found, especially in England, exhibited in the various constitutions of the cities and towns, and in the representation of boroughs in parliament. Only those towns which were in existence at the establishment of these Germanic institutions, or which remained as relics of the Roman and British times, owe their representation in parliament to their importance as towns. All other places hold their privileges as royal boroughs, which were originally the sole possessors of the corporate rights of towns. The privilege of voting in cities is chiefly confined to the descendants of the old free families, or depends upon certain burgage tenures, and is thus in the possession of a certain number of independent voters; while, in the boroughs, the freedom of the borough is sometimes the common property of all the inhabitants of the place, and sometimes depends on certain burgage tenures. As these boroughs were created for the defence of the country, and the protection of the royal interests, we may see in this the reason why they are so much more numerous in the frontier counties, and especially in Cornwall, than in other parts. The formation and constitution of municipal communities, in other European states, has taken a nearly similar course, although the description of this course, as given by Eichhorn, is not of universal application. The *Burgwardeien*, which are found to have existed in Meissen and Brandenburg in the 10th century, are nearly related to the English boroughs, in like manner as the older towns and cities, which have remained as specimens of the Roman times and institutions, have served as models for towns of modern origin, and for the establishment of their city-privileges (*libertas Romana*). These municipal communities seem to have taken an important part in the representation of the country; in the establishment of which, the old notions respecting the character and rights of a community seem to have had as great or a greater share than the modern and most unjust notion of a representation of the landed interest. England is the only country in which the boroughs and the free possessors of landed estates have continued to form one body or chamber of representation—the commons—to which they have always belonged; while, in other countries, the gentlemen or knighthood have united themselves to the nobility, and thus become separated in their interests from the towns. But, in almost all parts of the European continent, the representatives of the towns appear to have lost much of their influence, to which various causes seem to have contributed. The most important among them has been the internal corruptions of the institutions of the towns themselves. The constitution of the German towns has generally suffered an injurious change, by the establishment of a chief magistrate for life, who has the power of appointing his inferiors in office, who are naturally selected from among his own friends and dependents. Though, in the large towns, the high and independent character of the burgesses, and their republican institutions, have been strong obstacles to these abuses, or the occasion of their being quickly corrected (as has been the case in all the imperial cities, and in the large towns of other countries); on the other hand, there has grown up, in the small towns, a contracted policy and cast of feeling, in accordance with the diminutiveness of their influence and importance, which has made them proverbial, in Germany, for narrowness of spirit. In this manner, all true public spirit has been lost. The mismanagement and corruption of the governments

of the towns have destroyed their prosperity, and, with it, the old citizen spirit; and few towns are to be found in Germany, where just complaints are not heard of the corruption of old institutions, and the waste of the property of the place. These defects in the government of the towns, and the frequent contests between the burgesses and their magistrates, attracted the attention of government still more, from the fact that another branch of the popular authority—the administration of justice—had entirely departed from its original character. This portion of their authority had been wrested from the burgesses by the increasing subtleties of the law, and had passed into the hands of functionaries who were seldom able to command public confidence and respect; and the town-officers could, in truth, be no longer regarded as the agents of the municipality, even before they began, both in name and in reality, to assume the character and duties of state and police-officers. This occurred first in France, where the royal treasury was, for a short time, supplied by the sale of these offices. This example was followed by other states, especially in Germany, after the time of Frederic II of Prussia, where it was first seen, that, upon every reform of the towns and their institutions, something valuable was taken from them, and sacrificed to the cause of absolute authority. In Prussia, an approach to a freer government of municipalities took place by the ordinance of Nov. 10, 1808, which has served as a model for several other German states, but, if carefully examined, will appear valuable only as demonstrating how necessary some approach to popular institutions is, even in an absolute monarchy. It is the work of the Prussian minister Stein. (q. v.) In republics, the organization of the municipalities, the establishment and due regulation of popular rights and privileges, is of the greatest importance. (See the articles *City* and *Town*.)

Comneni; an extinct family of sovereigns, according to an unsupported tradition, of Italian origin, which numbered, on the throne of Constantinople (from 1057 to 1204) and on that of Trebisond (from 1204 to 1461), 18 emperors, besides 19 kings, and numerous independent princes. (See *Byzantine Empire*, and *Trebisond*). When the crusaders had overturned the throne of the Comneni in Constantinople, and established the Latin empire there, in 1204, a prince of the ancient house of the Comneni founded an independent state at Trebisond, in Asia Minor, where he was governor. The last sovereign of this house was David Comnenus. From him, it is said, was descended Demetrius Comnenus, a French captain of dragoons, who died without children, at Paris, in 1821, with the title of *maréchal de camp*. But his descent cannot be historically traced. Ducange, an accurate, faithful and learned historian, asserts, without hesitation, that Mohammed II, the conqueror of Constantinople, after he had obtained the empire of *Trebisond*, so called (which was scarcely as large as a French department), from the emperor David, by a treaty, sent for this prince and his seven children to Constantinople. In order to get possession of the income which had been secured to the Greek prince, he ordered him to be put to death, with all his children, at Adrianople, in 1462, under pretence of a conspiracy. This is confirmed, according to Ducange, by all contemporary writers—Chalcondylas, Ducas, Phranzes. A later historian maintains that one of his children was carried off unhurt to Laconia (Maina), where the family maintained a war with the Turks, generation after generation, for 200 years. Betrayed, but not conquered, Constantine Comnenus emigrated at last from Maina, landed, in 1676, at Genoa, accompanied by several Greeks, and planted a colony in the isle of Corsica. His posterity governed this district, inheriting the dignity and title of *capitano;* but, when Corsica was joined to France, they lost their possessions. This account, however, is not credible; for no mention whatever is made in contemporary history, either of a child of David Comnenus, or of his posterity, after 1462. Demetrius Comnenus, indeed, who pretended to be the last branch of the family of Corsican colonists (born in Corsica, in 1750), was recognised by the French government as a descendant of David Comnenus, by a royal decree of 1782, registered duly by the parliament; but this recognition was effected by M. de Vergennes, merely from political motives. The fall of Constantinople was then supposed to be at hand, and it was for the interest of France to secure the claim of legitimate inheritance to a descendant of that family in France. If the sceptre of the grand seignior had then been broken, France would have supported the claims of the French officer; for, in the diploma of Louis XVI, he was recognised as the lawful successor of the emperors of Trebisond. Captain Demetrius Comnenus emigrated in the beginning of the revolution, fought under the banners of the prince of Condé, returned, in 1802, to France, and

lived, till 1814, on a pension of 4000 francs, which Napoleon had assigned him. Louis XVIII confirmed this stipend, and made him *maréchal de camp*, and knight of St. Louis. He died Sept. 8, 1821, and left a manuscript work, in which he labored to show that the Greeks had risen from a state of barbarism even before the time of Homer. A remarkable member of the family was the princess Anna Comnena, daughter of the emperor Alexius I, who flourished in the first half of the 12th century. In the history of her father, whom she praises with all the affection shown by madame de Staël towards her parent, she gives a lively description of the manners of her age, and the state of the court of Constantinople. (See Gibbon's *Roman Empire*, c. 48.)

Como, Lake (*lago di Como*; anciently, *lacus Larius*); a lake in the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom, at the foot of the Alps. Towards the middle, it is divided into two branches, by the point called *Bellaggio*. The branch extending towards the S. W., to the city of Como, goes under the same name; that which turns to the S. E., to Lecco, takes the name of *lake Lecco*. The length of the lake to Bellaggio is five leagues; that of the S. W. branch, six leagues; and that of the S. E. branch, four leagues. The greatest width is one league. More than 60 rivers and rivulets empty into it, and the Adda passes through it. It is about 700 feet above the level of the sea, and 191 feet above the territory of Milan. Lake Como, the most delightful of all the lakes at the foot of the Alps, is surrounded by mountains 8 or 9000 feet high, which descend towards the lake, and terminate in hills, resembling terraces. It is bordered by delightful gardens and country seats. Many delicious fish, particularly trouts, are taken in the lake. The neighboring country is rich in minerals, iron, copper and lead.

Como (anciently *Comum*); capital of the province of Como, in the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom, 9 leagues N. N. W. of Milan, in a delightful valley on lake Como (q. v.); lat. 45° 48′ 20″ N.; lon. 9° 5′ 12″ E. It is a bishop's see. The number of the inhabitants is about 7500, many of whom travel about with little manufactures, such as mirrors, spectacles, little pictures. Even in the time of the Roman emperors, this taste for emigration manifested itself. The inhabitants of Como were then to be found in all parts of Italy, in the capacity of masons. This city contains some antiquities, and 12 beautiful churches; also a cabinet of natural history and natural philosophy. The 11th and 12th centuries were the flourishing period of Como. It was then at the head of the Ghibeline party, and the rival of Milan. The *province* of Como, which constituted the department of Lario in the kingdom of Italy, includes 315,634 inhabitants, in 530 communities.

Comoro, or Commorro, or Gomara Islands; islands in the Indian ocean, between the northern extremity of Madagascar and the continent of Africa. They are four in number—*Angareja* (called also *Comoro*), *Mohilla*, *Johanna* and *Mayotta*. The inhabitants are uncivilized, but harmless. Europeans have never formed settlements there. These islands are extremely fertile, well stocked with cattle, sheep, hogs, and birds of various kinds. They produce, likewise, sweet and sour oranges, citrons, bananas, honey, sugar-canes, rice, ginger, cocoa-nuts, &c. They are situated between lat. 11° 20′ and 13° 5′ S., and lon. 43° 10′ and 45° 30′ E. The population, consisting of Negroes and Arabs, is estimated at 20,000.

Company, in military language; a small body of foot or artillery, the number of which varies, but, in the English army, is generally from 50 to 120, commanded by a captain, a lieutenant and an ensign, and, sometimes, by a first and second lieutenant, as in the artillery and flank companies of the line. In the Austrian and Prussian armies, companies are stronger. In France, the strength of a company has varied very much. In former times, a company consisted of from 25, 30, 40, up to 200 men; in 1793, of 80 men: in 1808, they had 137 men; in 1814, 72 men; in 1823, 80 men. In 1820, a French battalion was composed of 8 companies, and a regiment of 3 battalions.

Companies for carrying on the Fur-Trade. (See *Fur-Trade*.)

Companies, Joint Stock. (See *Joint Stock Companies*.)

Comparative Anatomy is the science which investigates the anatomy of all animals with the view to compare them, to explain one by means of the others, and to classify the various kinds, according to their anatomical structure. As comparison, and the formation and extension of genera and species, are the delight of the naturalist, comparative anatomy is one of the most interesting sciences. The want of an organ in certain classes of animals, or its existence under different modifications of form, structure, &c., cannot fail to suggest interesting conclusions concerning the office of the same part in the

human subject. Thus comparative anatomy is of the highest importance to physiology. Haller observes, very justly, "Physiology has been more illustrated by comparative anatomy than by the dissection of the human body." Without comparative anatomy, the natural history of animals would always have remained in a backward state, more so even than mineralogy without the aid of chemistry. And it is to comparative anatomy that we owe, in a great measure, that more liberal view of nature, which belongs to modern times, and considers all nature, man included, as one unbroken whole. Cuvier's *Leçons d'Anatomie comparée* (in 5 large 8vo. volumes) is an excellent work. Blumenbach's works on comparative anatomy, also, are highly valuable. His *Handbuch der vergleichenden Anatomie und Physiologie* (Göttingen, 1804), has been translated by Mr. Lawrence, under the title of a *Short System of Comparative Anatomy* (London, 1807—1808, 8vo.). Gall has rendered great service to science by investigations in comparative anatomy, though he has sometimes fallen into extravagant conclusions in reference to phrenology.

Compass, the Mariner's. The ancients, whose only guides on the trackless waters were the heavenly bodies, so often covered by clouds, could not venture far from shore. It is the compass which has enabled men to steer boldly across the deep. The inventor of this great instrument shares the fate of the authors of many of the noblest inventions. He cannot be precisely ascertained. Some call him Flavio Gioja; others, Giri, a native of Amalfi, in Naples, at the beginning of the 14th century: but there are proofs, that the use of the magnetic needle, in pointing out the north, was known at an earlier period in Europe, and that a contrivance similar to a compass went under the name of *marinette* in France, as early as the 12th century. The English first suspended the compass, so as to enable it to retain always a horizontal position, and the Dutch gave names to the divisions of the card. The earliest missionaries to China found the magnetic needle in use in that country. —The compass is composed essentially of a magnetic needle, suspended freely on a pivot, and containing a card, marked with the 32 points of direction into which the horizon is divided, and which are thence called *points of the compass*. The needle always points to the north (excepting slight variations), and the direction which the ship is steering is therefore determined by a mere inspection of the card. This apparatus is enclosed in a brass box, with a glass covering, to allow the card to be seen without being disturbed by the wind. This again is freely suspended within a larger box, so as to prevent, as much as possible, the needle from being affected by the motion of the vessel. The whole is then placed in the binnacle, in sight of the man at the helm. On the inside of that part of the compass-box which is directly on a line with the vessel's bow, is a clear black stroke, called the *lubber-line*, which the steersman uses to keep his required course; that is, he must always keep the point of the card, which indicates his course, coinciding with the lubber-line. The compass here described is called the *steering compass*. Several other sorts are used for different purposes, but the principle on which they are constructed is the same. Some land compasses are of the size of a watch-seal, and actually fixed in such seals; others of the size and external form of a pocket watch. Sometimes a little sundial is affixed to compass-boxes. The box, of whatever material it is made, must have no particle of iron in its construction.

Compasses, or Pair of Compasses; a mathematical instrument, used for the describing of circles, measuring lines, &c. The common compasses consist of two branches or legs of iron, brass, or other metal, pointed at bottom, and joined by a rivet, whereon they move as on a centre. We have compasses of various kinds, and contrivances accommodated to the various uses for which they are intended.

Compiègne; a French town, in the department *de l'Oise*, 15¾ leagues N. N. E. of Paris. It has 6260 inhabitants, crooked streets and ill-built houses, and some manufactures and commerce. Formerly, it was supported only by the court, which occasionally resided here. It has two fairs, one in April, and one in November. Charles VI took this town from the duke of Burgundy in 1415. In 1430, Joan of Arc was taken prisoner here by the English.

Complutensian Polyglot. (See *Alcala de Henares.*)

Composite Order. (See *Architecture.*)

Compost, in husbandry and gardening; several sorts of soils, or kinds of earthy matter mixed together; or a mixture of earth and putrid animal substance, or vegetable substance; in fact, any artificial manure to assist the soil in the work of vegetation. (See *Colonies, pauper.*)

Compostella, or San Jago de Compostella (anciently *Brigantium*); a city of Spain, and capital of Galicia; 98 miles

W. of Astorga; lon. 8° 30′ W.; lat. 42° 52′ N.; population, about 12,000. It is situated in a beautiful plain, on all sides surrounded with agreeable hills, between the Sar and Sarella, which unite about half a league below. It is the see of an archbishop. In the metropolitan church are preserved, as the people believe, the remains of St. James, the patron of Spain, to whom the church is dedicated, and from whom the town is named. There are 12 parish churches, 14 religious houses, and 4 hospitals. The annual revenue of the archbishop is said to amount to 60,000 ducats. A university was established here in the year 1532, consisting of 4 colleges. The order of St. Jago takes its title from this city, the knights of which possess 87 commanderies, with an annual income of 200,000 ducats.

Compostella, Nuova; a town of Mexico, in Guadalaxara, built by Nuñez de Guzman, once the see of a bishop, removed to Guadalaxara; 300 miles W. N. W. Mexico; lon. 106° 11′ W.; lat. 21° 20′ N. There are silver mines in the neighborhood.

Compound Blowpipe; an instrument producing an intense heat from the combustion of oxygen and hydrogen gases. The gases are contained each in a separate gas-holder, and are expelled by the pressure of a column of water, not being allowed to mix until they arrive nearly at the aperture of a pipe tipped with platina, when they are inflamed. The heat produced is sufficient to melt all the earths, and the natural as well as artificial compounds which they form with each other. The metals, also, are brought by it into a state of ebullition, and are even completely volatilized.—This modification of the *oxyhydrogen blowpipe*, as it has sometimes been called, which was invented by doctor Hare, of Philadelphia, is far preferable to that of Newman, or rather of Brooke, who appears to have been the first inventor, since it is not attended by any danger, whereas the original instrument, in which the gases were previously mingled, was liable to a violent and hazardous explosion. The compound blowpipe has been found of occasional use in the arts, where an intense and long-continued heat is required.

Compressibility; the quality of bodies of being reducible, by sufficient power, to a narrower space, in consequence of their porosity, without diminishing their quantity of matter. All bodies are probably compressible, though the liquids, in particular, offer an almost invincible resistance to compression. Those bodies which occupy their former space when the pressure is removed are called *elastic*.

Compression Machines; instruments for compressing or condensing elastic fluids. Such, for instance, is an air-pump with cocks, by which the air can be condensed in tight vessels. For the compression of liquids (for instance, water), Abich has constructed a metallic cylinder of 21 inches $5\frac{1}{12}$ lines high, and $3\frac{1}{2}$ inches $7\frac{1}{2}$ lines in diameter, 1 inch $2\frac{1}{2}$ lines thick. This cylinder is filled with water, and an iron piston, covered with leather, and exactly fitting the bore, is pressed into it. For this pressure, a screw was first used; but, in order to produce a better application of the power, a lever was afterwards employed to force down the piston. A mark on the piston shows, by its distance from a little ledge across the cylinder, how far the piston has been forced down, and, when the force subsides, how far it has been driven up. (See Zimmerman on the *Elasticity of Water*, Leipsic, 1779.) The latest experiments on the compressibility of water, we owe to Oersted (*Annales de Chimie et de Physique*) and Mr. Perkins, so distinguished for his mechanical inventions.

Comus (from the *Greek*); the name of a merry company of young people, who came singing into the houses of their friends and mistresses, to entertain them with their music. *Comus* was also the name of the songs sung at festive entertainments. This name is not given, by early ancient writers, whose works have been preserved, to a divinity presiding over such meetings, who is a creation of later times, which gave him the name of the festive songs in which were celebrated the praises of the giver of social joys. He is first mentioned by Philostratus.

Concave. (See *Convex*.)

Concave Lens; an epithet for glasses ground hollow on the inside, so as to reflect on the hollow side.

Concentration (in Chemistry;) the act of increasing the strength of fluids, by solatilizing part of their water.

Concentric; an epithet for figures having one common centre.

Conception, Immaculate. The belief is entertained in the Roman Catholic church, that the virgin Mary was born without the stain of original sin. St. Bernard, in the 12th century, rejected this doctrine, in opposition to the canons of Lyons, and it afterwards became a subject of vehement controversy between

the Scotists and the Thomists. The Dominicans espoused the opinion of St. Thomas, the Franciscans that of Scotus. Sixtus IV, himself a Franciscan, allowed toleration on this point. In the 5th session of the council of Trent, it was resolved, that the doctrine of the conception of all men in original sin was not intended to include the Virgin. The controversy was revived in the university of Paris towards the close of the 16th century. During the times of Paul V and Gregory XV, such was the dissension in Spain, that both Philip and his successor sent special embassies to Rome, in the vain hope that this contest might be terminated by a bull. The dispute continued to run so high in Spain, that, in the military orders of St. James, of the Sword, of Calatrava, and of Alcantara, the knights, on their admission, vowed to maintain the doctrine. In 1708, Clement XI appointed a festival to be celebrated throughout the church in honor of the immaculate conception. Since that time, it has been received in the Roman church as an opinion, but not as an article of faith. This belief is held by the Greek church also, which celebrates the feast under the title of the *conception of St. Anne.* Petrus de Alva et Astorga published more than 40 volumes on this subject. He died in 1667.

Conception, La, or Penco; a city and seaport of Chile, on the coast of the South Pacific ocean, capital of a jurisdiction, formerly the capital of Chile; lon. 73° 5′ W.; lat. 36° 49′ 10″ S.; population, 13,000. The bay of Conception is one of the most commodious harbors found in any part of the world. The city is of great extent, because the houses are built only one story high, that they may be the better able to resist the earthquakes that happen every year. It is the residence of the bishop, and of the major-general, who is at the head of the military department. Conception was founded by Peter Valdivia, in 1550. In 1823, the Indians devastated a part of it.—There is not in the universe a soil more fertile than that of this part of Chile. Grain yields 60 for 1; the vineyards are equally productive, and the plains are covered with innumerable flocks, which multiply astonishingly, though abandoned entirely to themselves. All the inhabitants have to do is to set up fences round their respective possessions, and to leave the oxen, horses, mules and sheep in the enclosures. The common price of a fat ox is $8; that of a sheep, ¾ of a dollar; but there are few purchasers, and the natives are accustomed, every year, to kill a great number of oxen, of which the hides and tallow are alone preserved, and sent to Lima. There is no particular disease incident to this country. There are at Conception several persons who have completed a century.

Concert; a musical performance, in which any number of practical musicians, either vocal or instrumental, or both, unite in the exercise of their respective talents. The concerts of the ancient Greeks were executed only in the unison or octave.

Concerto; a kind of musical composition, which is an imitation of the solo song with accompaniments—in short, an imitation of the *aria.* In the concerto, one chief instrument is distinguished, and leads the rest. In the case of such concertos, the performance is called after this instrument, or it is called, in general, *concerto di camera.* The term *double concerto* is used if there are two chief instruments.

Concerto grosso is an expression applied to the great or grand chorus of the concert, or to those places of the concert in which the *ripienos* and every auxiliary instrument are brought into action, for the sake of contrast and to increase the effect.

Concerto spirituale was a concert at Paris, performed in the religious seasons, when the theatres were closed. The pieces performed, however, were not always of a spiritual kind. It was introduced in 1725, by Anne Danican, called *Philidor.*

Concetti; sparkling but strained sentences, far-fetched plays on words, &c., which have become famous, in particular since the use of them by the Italian poet Marino. The taste for them is a disease which has manifested itself in the developement of almost all literatures. The Spaniards and English suffered from it for a long time. Marino, who introduced them into Italy, caught this poetical infection in France, where a poet called the wind the *courier of Æolus,* the sun, the *prince of tapers.* Germany has had its Lohenstein; and, even now, there are, in every country, writers afflicted with this passion for a false brilliancy.

Conchology (derived from κόγχη, a shell-fish with two shells, and λόγος, word), more correctly, Conchyliology (derived from κογχύλιον, all sorts of shell-fish, and λόγος), is that branch of natural history which describes those animals which produce shells, and teaches the art of arranging the shells themselves. The beginnings of this science are to be found in the writings of Aristotle, who established some of those divisions which are in use

among modern authors. He divided shells into *monothyra* and *dithyra;* that is, *univalves* and *bivalves.* The *monothyra* were turbinated or not turbinated; they were terrestrial or aquatic; both were marine or fluviatile, fixed or free. To the facts recorded by Aristotle, other ancient authors have added little; to his distribution, nothing. The first modern author who attempted a systematic arrangement of shells, seems to have been Daniel Major, who, in 1675, published Synoptical Tables, containing a few Genera, naturally arranged, and established upon the Species described by Fabricius Columna. He divided shells into *univalves* and *multivalves*, placing the bivalves among the latter. In 1681, Grew, in his *Musæum Regium*, added a division analogous to our bivalves, and indicated most of the subdivisions that have since obtained. About 1687, the celebrated Lister published his *Historiæ sive Synopsis Methodicæ Conchyliorum, Libri quatuor.* This work contains a great number of accurate figures of shells, pays great attention to the hinge of bivalves, and considers them as equivalve or not. Tournefort, who died in 1708, seems to have first suggested, in bivalves, the distinction of *close* or *gaping* (*clausæ vel hiantes*). In 1711, Rumph added to the conchyliological catalogue many shells from the Indian seas, and indicated some good generic divisions. In 1730, Breyn pointed out a character in univalves, until then not noticed; namely, that some of them possess more than one compartment or chamber. This character divides the univalves into *monothalamia* and *polythalamia.* After 1730, no improvements of much value were made in the science, until 1757, in which year the publication of Adanson's Voyage to Senegal took place, and probably suggested many considerations, that became fixed principles of conchyliology by the adoption of Linnæus. In studying the univalves (*limaçons*), Adanson considered the spire, the apex, the aperture, the operculum, the nacre, the periosteum; in the bivalves (*conques*), the valves, whether equal or unequal, whether shutting close or gaping; the beaks (*sommets*), whether prominent or not, and according to their relative position with respect to the middle of the valve; the hinge, according to the number of the teeth and cavities; the ligament, according to its shape and situation; the muscles, according to their figure, size and number. In forming his conchyliological arrangement, Adanson adopted an important principle, which Guettard had suggested one year before, namely, that the consideration of the animal is as necessary as that of the shell, in order to form a natural system of conchyliology. He described and figured the different species of shell-fish that he found in Senegal, and thereby formed a store from which the most valuable materials have been drawn by later authors to enrich the science. Contemporary with Adanson was the celebrated Linnæus, whose genius has exercised such great influence over the arrangements of the vegetable and animal kingdoms. The ninth edition of the *Systema Naturæ* of Linnæus was published in 1746, 11 years before the appearance of Adanson's work, forming only an octavo volume of 236 pages, in which Linnæus does not appear to have used the term *mollusca*, the animals now thus designated being distributed by him, the naked species in the order *zoophyta*, in the class *vermes*, and the species bearing shells in the order *testacea* of the same class. The 10th edition, which appeared in 1758, one year after the publication of the Voyage to Senegal, was much enlarged; and in the 12th edition, which may be supposed to have received the last touches of its illustrious author, the part relating to the animal kingdom had swelled to 1327 pages. This edition was published about 10 years after Adanson's work, the perusal of which had probably somewhat modified the views of Linnæus. Linnæus divides his sixth class of animals into five orders, in the second of which are eight genera of true *mollusca*, viz., *ascidia, limax, aplysia, doris, tethys, sepia, clio* and *scyllæa.* The third order is almost entirely devoted to *testacea*,* divided into, 1. *multivalves*, the shell having more than two pieces; 2. *bivalves*, having two pieces; 3. *univalves*, having one piece. The first division contains three genera, *chiton, lepas* and *pholas.* The second contains 14 genera *mya, solen, tellina, cardium, mactra, donax, venus, spondylus, chama, area, ostrea, anomia, mytilus* and *pinna.* The third division, separated into two sections, according as the spire is regular or not, contains 19 genera—*argonauta, nautilus, conus, cypræa, bulla, voluta, buccinum, strombus, murex, trochus, turbo, helix, nerita, haliotis, patella, dentalium, serpula, teredo* and *sabella.* In giving the characters of his genera, with respect to the animals, Linnæus is always satisfied with citing the name of a naked *molluscum* described in

* As Linnæus has said so little about the animals, if we translate *testacea* by the term *shells*, perhaps the error will be scarcely appreciable.

the preceding order, which he supposes to be analogous to the animal of the genus under consideration; therefore it is probable that the influence exerted by Adanson's work over the latter editions of the *Systema Naturæ* extended only to increasing the number of genera, and causing them to be more rigorously marked out and described. Some of the approximations of the Linnæan system are unnatural and inconvenient, and some genera, nearly related, are too far separated in the arrangement; but its nomenclature, and the clearness and precision of its technical terms, gave it a predominance that it has maintained almost to the present day. A detailed explanation of the conchyliological system of Linnæus may be found in a dissertation by I. Murray, published in the eighth volume of the Academical Amenities. The *Neues systematisches Conchylien Kabinet*—a great work, commenced by Martini in 1769, continued by Chemnitz, and finished by Schröter in 1793—may be considered rather as a magnificent collection of figures of shells, well drawn and colored, than as a system of conchyliology. As its figures are constantly referred to by the modern authors, it will be found very useful to students in identifying species and arranging their cabinets. The whole work consists of 12 volumes 4to. In 1776, Da Costa published his Elements of Conchology, in which more attention was paid by him to the characters of the aperture in univalves, and to the hinge in bivalves, than had been done by his predecessors; and the science is indebted to him for some valuable hints on the indelicacy of some of the terms employed by Linnæus to designate particular parts of bivalve shells. In 1766, Pallas had published his *Miscellanea Zoologica*, the principles of which, perhaps, entitle him to be considered as the founder of that new school which the French conchyliologists have since so successfully supported. He indicated the impropriety of separating the *testacea* from the naked *mollusca*, in the arrangement of Linnæus, and showed that a natural method could only arise from the consideration, not of the shells, but of the generic differences of the animals inhabiting them. Notwithstanding the light struck out by Pallas, Bruguière, one of the modern authors to whom the science is most indebted, in 1792, still followed so closely the Linnæan arrangement as to admit the division of the molluscous worms and testaceous worms into two orders. His order *testacea* is nearly the same as that of Linnæus, except that the genera are somewhat more numerous and better defined. This order contains three divisions, according to the number of the valves. He divides the genus *lepas* of Linnæus into *balanus* and *anatifa*, dropping the term *lepas* altogether, in which he has been followed by Lamarck. This is so unusual, and, indeed, so ungracious a proceeding, that we would recommend to American conchyliologists always to use the term *lepas* instead of *anatifa*. Besides the two genera above-mentioned, he places among the multivalves, *chiton*, *teredo*, *fistulana*, *pholas*, *anomia* and *crania*. Among the bivalves, his new genera are, *placuna*, *perna*, *trigonia*, *unio*, *tridacna*, *cardita* and *terebratula*. Among his univalves are the following new genera: *fissurella*, *siliquaria*, *aspergillum*, *ovula*, *oliva*, *purpura*, *cassis*, *terebra*, *fusus*, *cerithium*, *bulimus*, *planorbis*, *natica*, *camerina*, *ammonites* and *orthocera*. In 1791 appeared the first volume of *Testacea utriusque Siciliæ, eorumque Historia et Anatome*—a splendid work, by Poli, an Italian physician, who first attempted to establish the genera of *mollusca* from the consideration of the animal only, without reference to the shell. This work may be considered as forming a remarkable epoch in the science, because, since its appearance, the classification of the *mollusca* and of the bivalves has become much more conformable to nature. The subjects figured in the superb plates of this work had been previously modelled in wax by the scholars of the author. In 1798, G. Cuvier proposed a new classification of molluscous animals. (*Tableau élémentaire de l'Histoire naturelle des Animaux.*) In this, he acknowledged himself indebted to the critical observations of Pallas, and carried nearer to perfection the inventions of Poli. In this arrangement, also, may be found the improvements successively introduced by Bruguière into the distinction of genera, which Lamarck was then increasing every year, in his *course* at the *jardin du roi*. Lamarck did not begin to publish the results of his labors until 1798, when a memoir on the division of the genus *sepia* into three genera, *sepia*, *loligo* and *octopus*, appeared in the *Journ. d' Hist. Nat.*, t. 1. Early in 1799, Lamarck published his *Prodromus* of a new classification of shells, laying down, more precisely, the generic characters, and establishing many new genera, and still continuing the old division into *univalves*, *bivalves* and *multivalves*. Up to this time, Lamarck does not seem to have profited much by the labors of his

predecessors towards the establishment of a natural conchyliological method, but acknowledges that he has adopted the principles and views of Bruguière. Late in 1799, Cuvier published a table of the divisions of the class of *mollusca*, at the end of the first volume of his Lessons of Comparative Anatomy. We see, in this, that Cuvier had derived light from the *Prodromus* of Lamarck. Indeed, these two great naturalists, by their successive works, seem to have afforded light alternately to each other for a number of years. In 1801, Lamarck published his *Animaux sans Vertèbres*, in which, not confining himself entirely to the shells, he has, like Cuvier, paid attention also to the animals. From this period until 1822, when he finished publishing the second edition of *Animaux sans Vertèbres*, under the title of *Histoire naturelle des Animaux sans Vertèbres*, many authors,* both continental and English, had published memoirs and treatises on conchyliology, and many interesting facts had been collected, shedding much additional light on the science. Part of the 5th, and the whole of the 6th and 7th volumes of the *Histoire naturelle des Animaux sans Vertèbres*, are devoted to the conchyliophorous animals, the proper subjects of conchyliology. In this excellent work, Lamarck has improved upon the views of his friend Bruguière in the following particulars:—not confining himself to the consideration of the shell; viewing the shell as forming part of an animal; introducing into conchyliology a great number of new generic groups; using a very rigorous and exact terminology; and treating as the foundation of the principal division among bivalves, the number of the muscular impressions. He has also abandoned the division of multivalves, bivalves and univalves, which had been followed by most of the preceding conchyliologists, and has increased the number of genera to upwards of 200, the enumeration of which would swell this article beyond a reasonable limit. The specific descriptions of Lamarck, although short, are admirable for their precision, and the skill displayed in them in distinguishing clearly minute specific differences. The study of them will be found, by young naturalists, very beneficial and instructive. In 1812, H. M. Ducrotay de Blainville read, before the philomathean society, a memoir, pointing out a necessary relation subsisting between the shell and the respiratory organs, and drawing therefrom a new principle of arrangement, depending on the existence or non-existence of a symmetry or regularity of form in those organs, and the protecting body, the shell. In 1825, De Blainville published his *Manuel de Malacologie et de Conchyliologie*—a very valuable work, to which we are indebted for most of the historical facts recorded in this article. The first chapter of the second section of this work, consisting of 80 pages, treats of *shells*, or the *principles of conchyliology*, and recommends itself strongly to students by the fulness, accuracy and clearness of its definitions, and the consistency of its general views. In modern times, the study of the mollusca and their coverings has become very important from geological considerations. As particular genera are known to belong to particular strata of the earth's crust, and as the positions assumed by the living animals are known, the ascertained position of the fossils determines, with sufficient certainty, whether the stratum has undergone removal, disruption or subversion since the death of the animals. The most interesting considerations are presented to the inquiring mind by some of the genera of microscopic shells; and the magnitude of the results produced by their infinite multiplicity causes their importance in the economy of nature to be felt with astonishment and admiration. Take, for instance, the *miliolites*, thus commented on by Lamarck: "The *miliolites* is a shell of most singular form, and perhaps one of the most interesting to study, on account of its multiplicity in nature, and the influence which it has upon the condition and size of the masses at the surface of the earth, or which compose its external crust. It is one of those numerous examples which prove, that, in producing living bodies, what nature seems to lose in size, she fully regains in the number of individuals, which she multiplies to infinity, and with a readiness almost miraculous. The bodies of these minute animals exert more influence on the condition of the masses which compose the surface of the earth, than those of the largest animals, such as elephants, hippopotami, whales, &c., which, although constituting much larger individual masses, are infinitely less multiplied in nature. In the environs of Paris, some species of miliolites are found in so great a quantity, that they form almost the principal part of the stony masses of certain

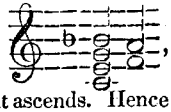
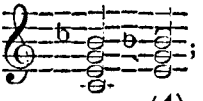
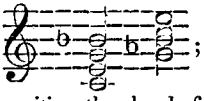
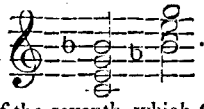
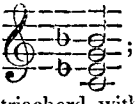
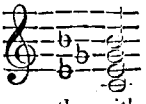
* De Ferussac, Draparnaud, Denys de Montfort, de Roissy, Bosc, Pérron, Lesueur, De Blainville, Duméril, Chamisso, Kuhl, Von Moll, Von Fichtel, Megerle, Oken, Rafinesque, Desmarest, Savigny, Leach, Olfers, Sowerby, Schweiger, Swainson, Ranzani, Say.

ranges." The naturalists of the U. States have also contributed much valuable matter to the science in question, and some new genera and many new species have been added by their labors. Among the scientific gentlemen in the U. States who have written on this subject, are Thomas Say, of Philadelphia, the late D. H. Barnes, of New York, doctor Hildreth, doctor Jacob Green and Isaac Lea, of Philadelphia. The papers lately contributed by the last-named gentleman to the Journal of the Transactions of the American Philosophical Society on the Naiades of Lamarck, containing descriptions of several new species, are illustrated by plates executed with remarkable beauty and accuracy.

Conclave (*a room*); the place where the cardinals assemble for the election of the pope; also the electoral assembly of the cardinals themselves. Pope Gregory X, whose election had been delayed for three years, established, in the council at Lyons (1274), the regulations of the conclave. It was settled, that if the pope should die in a city where he had resided with his court, the cardinals present should not be obliged to wait longer than 10 days for their absent brethren. After the lapse of 10 days, all the cardinals present should assemble in the palace in which the pope had died. Here they were all to be shut up in one room (*conclave*), without partitions or curtains, which, with the exception of one outlet, was to be closed on all sides, so that no one should speak with them, nor be admitted into their presence, except those who were called, with the consent of all the brethren, for the purpose of assisting, in some way, in the election. No one was to be permitted either to send in a messenger, or to write to the cardinals; but a window was to be left open in the room, through which the necessary food could be handed to them. If, in three days after entering the conclave, they had not chosen a pope, they were, on the five following days, to receive but one dish at noon and in the evening; and, after this, nothing but bread, wine and water, till the election should take place. These regulations of Gregory X have been observed in their essential provisions in recent times, though not always in every particular. As most of the popes have died in Rome, the conclave has usually been held in the Vatican, in the galleries of which, as many cells are built in a row as there are cardinals to be present. There the cardinals repair, two by two, the day after the funeral of the pope, or on the 10th day after his death, after having heard a mass, which is called *Missa spiritus sancti*, and remain till the election is finished. The conclave which chose pope Pius VII was held at Venice by the assembled cardinals, as Pius VI died far from Rome.

Conclavist; the companion, either lay or clerical, whom the cardinal is allowed to take with him into the conclave (q. v.) during the election of a pope, or to send for if he should fall sick. The conclavists are, in this case, subject to the same laws as the cardinals; they are not permitted to leave the conclave except in case of severe sickness; they partake at the same table with the cardinals, and have a cell of the same size. The place of conclavist is honorable, and very much sought for. The conclavist of the cardinal who is chosen pope seldom fails to make his fortune. As every cardinal generally becomes a member of the committee of regency, consisting of three cardinals, who are changed daily, each of the conclavists of the cardinals thus engaged has an opportunity to display his talents before the cardinal and his colleagues, as secretary of the committee.

Concord (also called *accord*, from the Italian *accordare*, and this from the Latin *chorda*); an expression used in music. It denotes an association of sounds, founded on the natural relations of simultaneous tones. Upon this association depends all harmony; in fact, every proper chord is of itself harmony; hence, e. g., the expression *harmony of the dominant*. In its proper acceptation, harmony is the result of connected tones in consecutive chords. With regard to their simultaneous expression, however, tones differ in their relations. Some, by the mere act of being sounded together, convey to the ear a sense of pleasure. They harmonize in themselves, and are therefore termed *consonant chords*, or *concords*. Take, for example, one tone as the fundamental tone; then, to form a concord, all the other tones must harmonize with it and with each other. The idea of a chord has no reference to the number of consonant tones of which it is formed. The most simple and least perfect concord is made by the combination of two tones, and is formed by connecting the interval of the third with the fundamental tone. The most perfect consonant chord is the harmonic triachord, which is formed by the addition of another third, and constitutes the perfect fifth from the fundamental tone: it is usually termed the *dominant*. From the character of the

first third, or mediant, these combinations are either major or minor; thus, major C, E, G, or minor C, E flat, and G. The minor triachord is to be distinguished from the diminished triachord, which, by some, is called the *false* or *dissonant*, and is formed by two minor thirds, or by the fundamental tone and the minor third and minor fifth; thus, C, E flat, G flat. There is also a redundant triachord, constituted by two major thirds. By the transposition of the tones composing these triachords into higher or lower octaves (changing the positions or inverting the intervals), all other consonant chords are formed. It is usual to fix the designation of chords by counting the intervals ascending. Thus arises, 1. the chord of the sixth (hexachord), in which the fundamental tone is placed an octave higher, so that the third becomes a fundamental tone; the fifth is then the third, and the transposed fundamental becomes the sixth; thus, E, G, C, designated by the figure **6**. 2. The chord of the fourth and sixth, where the fundamental tone and its third are both placed in a higher octave, so that the fifth becomes the fundamental, the original fundamental is changed to the fourth, and the transposed third becomes the sixth. Hence the name, from the characteristic intervals and the notation, thus $\frac{6}{4}$. The dissonant chords are first obtained by adding to the triad another third, which, consequently, stands in the relation of a seventh to the fundamental, and produces a quadrichord. The seventh is the dissonant interval, and, to relieve the ear, requires to be resolved. The chord of the seventh is formed of the fundamental, the third, the fifth and the seventh. The first, and most usual, is constituted by the major triad with the minor seventh; thus C, E, G, B flat. It is called the *principal*, sometimes the *essential chord of the seventh*, and is simply designated thus, **7**. It rests upon the dominant of that key in which it is to be resolved; for the minor seventh resolves itself downwards, thus,  , while the major dissonant ascends. Hence it may also be called the *dominant chord of the seventh*, or the *chord of the dominant seventh*. If we transpose the intervals of these chords, in the same manner as with the triachords, we form, 1. the chord of the fifth and sixth (denoted by $\frac{6}{5}$), consisting of the minor third, the minor fifth and major sixth, thus,  ; 2. the chord of the third and fourth $\left(\frac{4}{3}\right)$, in which the seventh and the fundamental tone of the essential chord of the seventh become the third and fourth,  ; 3. by further transposition, the chord of the second is formed, by which the seventh, with the fundamental tone, forms the interval of the second, thus,  . The other chords of the seventh, which Godfr. Weber terms *by-chords of the seventh*, in opposition to *principal chords of the seventh*, are, the chord of the seventh, formed by the minor triachord and the minor seventh,  ; again, by the diminished triachord, with the subsisting minor seventh of the chord of the seventh,  ; finally, the chord of the seventh, with the major triachord and seventh major, . By the transposition of these by-chords of the seventh are formed the chords of the fifth and sixth, the third and fourth, and the chord of the second. We have thus, as appears from this review, nine fundamental chords, viz. two simple accords, three triachords, and four chords of the seventh (the essential chord and the by-chords of the seventh). However complicated the harmony may be, it is reducible to these chords. There is yet a five-toned chord, the *quintchord*, which is a union of simultaneous tones, and is formed by the addition of another third (major or minor) to the chord of the seventh, which, consequently, makes the ninth from the fundamental tone, and is termed the *chord of the ninth*. But if, from the adverse concurrence of the seconds, we omit the fundamental tone, as is usual in close harmony, and transpose the notes as above, we obtain thus

the proper modifications of the quadrichord; for example, the enharmonic chord of C, E flat, G flat, A; C sharp, E, G, B. These concords, then, are capable of being presented in the most diversified forms—in immediate collision, or broken, so that the tones constituting them are heard in succession. Further, the intervals may be confined to one octave, or distributed through distant and different octaves. This forms the ground-work and the distinction between close and dispersed harmony, according to the close or dispersed position of the chords. Further, the application of the intervals composing the chords is governed by the variety of positions, inasmuch as the music may be adapted for two, three, four, five voices or parts. In the former, some intervals must be omitted; in the latter, doubled. One of the first systems of chords was offered by Rameau, grounded on the ideas of D'Alembert, and afterwards elucidated in Marpurg's system, which much resembled Vogler's. It has been more recently elucidated by Türk. Another is by Tartini, which is given in Rousseau's *Dictionnaire de la Musique*. The one deduces and explains the chords from fundamental keys (of the base), the other from melody (the upper tones). Another very simple system of chords is that of Kirnberger, which is much followed by Godfr. Weber, in his treatise on thorough-base. From music, the idea of harmony is transferred to colors, and we may speak of the *harmony* of colors, as opposed to the harsh and dazzling contrast of them, which is avoided by a judicious middle tone of coloring.

Concord; a post-town of New Hampshire, and the seat of the state government, in Merrimack county, on both sides of the river Merrimack; 45 miles W. N. W. Portsmouth, 63 N. N. W. Boston, 100 W. S. W. Portland; lon. 71° 29′ W.; lat. 43° 12′ N.: population, in 1810, 2301; in 1820, 2838. The principal village is pleasantly situated, extending along the western bank of the river nearly two miles in length. It contains a state-house, a state-prison, both of stone, a court-house, 3 houses of public worship, and about 200 dwelling-houses. The state-house, erected in 1817, is a large and very elegant edifice, and cost $60,232. Much of the trade of the upper country centres here; and the importance of the town is increased by the boat navigation, which is opened between this place and Boston by means of the Merrimack river and Middlesex canal. There are two bridges in Concord across the Merrimack—one in the north part, the other connecting the town with Pembroke.

Concord, Battle at. (See *Lexington.*)

Concord, Form of (*formula concordiæ*); one of the most important doctrinal books of the Protestant church, composed at the command of Augustus elector of Saxony, by several distinguished theologians. Augustus had long suspected the existence of secret adherents to the doctrine of Calvin; and, being confirmed in this suspicion by investigation, he thought a book of concord, that is, of union, which should definitively settle the form of doctrine to be received, would be the best means for terminating the religious troubles. Twelve divines were invited to Lichtenburg, who, in the assembly afterwards convoked at Torgau, examined and settled the principal points, and finished the work in Kloster-Bergen, in 1577; after which followed the solemn signing by the several electors, princes, counts, states of the empire, and the printed publication of the work in 1580. It is said that this affair cost the elector $53,000. (See *Symbolical Books.*)

Concord, Goddess of. (See *Concordia.*)

Concordance; a book containing the principal words in the Holy Scriptures, in alphabetical order, with a designation of the places in which they are to be found. There are concordances of subjects and of words; and, for both kinds, either the Greek or Hebrew text, or a universally received translation, may serve as a basis. Works of this kind are useful for the exegetical theologian, because the comparison of parallel passages is one of the most important auxiliaries of exegesis; and not less so for the preacher, because they enable him to examine, at once, all the passages of scripture which treat of the same subject. The first work of this kind was published by Hugo Sancto Caro, who used the universally-received Latin translation of the Bible, called the *Vulgate.* Some of the most approved concordances in English, are those of Cruden, Butterworth, Brown and Taylor. The name *concordance* might be given, without impropriety, to similar indices of other works, as the writings of Homer and Shakspeare. In fact, it is so applied in Germany. The index of Samuel Ayscough to Shakspeare is a concordance.

Concordate; a convention between the bishop of Rome, as head of the church, and any secular government, for the settling of ecclesiastical relations. Treaties

which the pope, as a secular sovereign, concludes with other princes respecting political concerns, are not called *concordates*. One of the most important of the earlier concordates is that of Worms, called, also, the *Calixtine Concordate*, made in 1122, between pope Calixtus II and the emperor Henry V, in order to put an end to the long contest on the subject of investiture, and which has since been considered a fundamental ordinance in respect to the relations between the Catholic church and the government in Germany. Most of the concordates have been extorted from the popes by the different nations or governments. This was done as early as the 15th century; for, when the council of Constance urged a reformation of the papal court, Martin V saw himself obliged, in 1418, to conclude concordates with the Germans, and soon afterwards, also, with other nations. The popes, however, succeeded, even in the 15th and 16th centuries, in concluding concordates for their advantage. This was the case with the concordates of Aschaffenburg. That, also, which was made by Leo X and Francis I of France (1516), was chiefly to the advantage of the pope. In later times, in particular, towards the end of the 18th century, the papal court could not any longer maintain a struggle with the spirit of the times and with the secular powers, and was obliged to resign many privileges by concordates. Bonaparte, when first consul of the French republic, concluded a concordate with pope Pius VII, July 15, 1801, which went into operation in April, 1802. It reëstablished the Catholic church in France, and has become the basis of the present ecclesiastical constitution of that country. The government obtained by it the right to appoint the clergy; the public treasury gained by the diminution of the large number of metropolitan and episcopal sees to 60; the pope was obliged to give up the plan of restoring the spiritual orders and the influence which he exercised by means of delegates, but retained the right of the canonical investiture of bishops and the revenues connected with this right. The interests of religion suffered by this compact, inasmuch as most of the dioceses became now too large to be properly administered; and the lower clergy, the very soul of the church, who were in a poor condition before, were made entirely dependent on the government. Louis XVIII concluded, at Rome, with Pius VII (July 11, 1817), a new concordate, by which that of 1516, so injurious to the liberties of the Gallican church, was again revived; the concordate of 1801 and the *articles organiques* of 1802 were abolished; the nation subjected to an enormous tax by the demand of endowments for 42 new metropolitan and episcopal sees, with their chapters and seminaries; and free scope afforded to the intolerance of the Roman court by the indefinite language of article 10, which speaks of measures against the prevailing obstacles to religion and the laws of the church. This revival of old abuses, this provision for the luxury of numerous clerical dignitaries at the expense of the nation, could please only the ultra-royalist nobility, who saw in it means for providing their sons with benefices. The nation received the concordate with almost universal disapprobation; voices of the greatest weight were raised against it (Grégoire, *Essai historique sur les Libertés de l'Église Gallicane*, Paris, 1818; Lanjuinais, *Appréciation du Projet de Loi rel. aux trois Concordats*, 5th ed., Paris, 1818; De Pradt, *Les quatre Concordats*, Paris, 1818, 3 vols.); and the new ministers saw themselves obliged to withdraw their proposition. The pope was more fortunate in the concordate made with Naples (Feb. 16, 1818), at Terracina, in which stipulations were made for the exclusive establishment of Catholicism in this kingdom; for the independence of the theological seminaries on the secular power; the free disposal of benefices to the value of 12,000 ducats, in Naples, in favor of Roman subjects; the reversion of the revenues of vacant places to the church; unlimited liberty of appeal to the papal chair; the abolition of the royal permission, formerly necessary for the pastoral letters of the bishops; the right of censorship over books; besides many other highly important privileges. The king obtained the right to appoint bishops, to tax the clergy, to reduce the number of the episcopal sees and monasteries, which existed before Murat's reign. The quiet possession of the estates of the church, which had been alienated, was also secured to the proprietors. In the concordate concluded with Bavaria, July 5, 1817, two archbishoprics were established for the 2,400,000 Catholics in Bavaria. These were Münich (with the bishoprics of Augsburg, Passau and Ratisbon) and Bamburg (with the bishoprics of Würzburg, Eichstädt and Spire). Seminaries, moreover, were instituted and provided with lands; the nominations were left to the king, with the reservation of the papal right of confirmation; the limits of the civil and ecclesiastical jurisdiction

were precisely settled, and the erection of new monasteries was promised. This concordate was published in May, 1818, together with the new political constitution, by which all apprehensions for the Protestant church in Bavaria were allayed. (Respecting the concordate between Prussia and the pope, see *German Church* and *Prussia.*) The other German princes have formed a plan for a common concordate with the pope. On the whole, the contest which has been carried on for more than 800 years between the secular power and the church is as little settled as it was in the times of Gregory VII and the emperor Henry IV, and the concordates are to be considered only as temporary agreements, which are followed as long as either party is obliged or thinks it best to observe them. In fact, it is vain to think of putting an end to the dispute, while secular governments maintain that it rests with them to appoint the officers and instructers of the people, and the pope maintains that the authority of the church is prior in time and superior in degree to any other. The light in which the Roman court views the cessions made in concordates appears from a letter of pope Innocent I, in 1416: *Ergo quod pro remedio necessitas reperit, cessante necessitate debet utique cessare, quia alius est ordo legitimus, alia usurpatio, quam ad præsens tantum fieri tempus impellit.* The governments, on the contrary, add reservations to the concordates, as in the case of the articles which the French government prefixed to the concordate of 1801, before it was promulgated. Against the appeal to a divine institution, on which the pope founds his authority, the sovereigns maintain the following claims:—1. The sovereign of the state is, at the same time, the secular head of the church, and all the power of the church to make regulations and appoint clerical functionaries has been given by him, and remains under his superintendency; 2. the temporal possessions of the church are properly subject to the state, which has a right to prevent them from becoming excessive; 3. the secular government can prohibit such acts of worship as are opposed to the interest and peace of the state, and interfere with the rights of other religious societies; 4. the state has the right of protecting new sects; 5. the civil rights of subjects (even with regard to the validity and consequences of marriage) are to be exclusively regulated by the laws of the state. It is easily understood that no such contest between church and state can take place where the church does not claim any political authority, and the sovereign does not consider religion as an instrument for state purposes. Of course there is no such contest in the U. States of America.

Concordia; or concord, personified and worshipped as a goddess in Rome, where she had several temples, the most important of which was that in the capitol, erected by Camillus. An annual feast was celebrated, in her honor, the 16th of January. She was represented with wreaths of flowers on her head, and in one hand two cornucopiæ, in the other, a bundle of rods or a pomegranate. Symbolically, Concordia was represented by two hands clasped together, or by the caduceus. (See *Grecian Mythology.*)

Concrete; a technical word in logic. If we conceive of certain qualities as existing in an object, we then regard them, according to philosophical language, *in concreto;* but if we think of them separately from the object, we then regard them *in abstracto;* for example, *a just man* is a concrete conception, but *justice* is an abstract idea. (See *Philosophy.*)

Concretions, morbid, in animal economy; hard substances that occasionally make their appearance in different parts of the body, as well in the solids as in those cavities destined to contain fluids: in the former case, they are denominated *concretions* or *ossifications;* in the latter, *calculi.* The concretions that make their appearance in the solids of the animal body are denominated *pineal* concretions, from their being found in that part of the brain called the *pineal gland;* or *salivary* concretions, as being discovered, occasionally, in the salivary glands; or *pancreatic* concretions, which are hard substances found in the pancreas; or *pulmonary* concretions, which have been sometimes coughed up by consumptive persons; or *hepatic* concretions, of which the liver is sometimes full. Concretions have also been found in the *prostate.* These have all been examined by chemists, and found to consist of phosphate of lime and other substances. Concretions have been discovered in the intestines and stomach of man, but more frequently in the bodies of other animals. Those found in the intestines of a horse were examined by Fourcroy, and found to consist of magnesia, phosphoric acid, ammonia, water and animal matter. (See *Calculi.*)

Concubinage; the cohabitation of a man with a concubine. Among the Greeks, concubinage was allowed even to married men: the number of their con-

cubines, also, was unlimited. Among the Romans, concubinage was neither unlawful nor disgraceful. It was, moreover, formally permitted to unmarried men, by the *Lex Julia*, and by the *Lex Papia Poppæa*, but with the provision, that it should be limited to a single concubine, and that only women of mean descent, as freed-women, actresses and the like, should be chosen for the purpose. The children begotten in concubinage were not considered as legitimate, but were called *natural*, and the right of inheritance of the concubine and her children was very much limited. With the introduction of Christianity, concubinage ceased; and, indeed, Constantine the Great made laws against it. The *Code Napoléon* did not expressly forbid concubinage, but the lawful wife could sue for a divorce (since the restoration of the Bourbons, only for separation), in case of the introduction of a concubine by her husband into their common residence. The Prussian code does not allow concubinage, as some authors have asserted, but it establishes two kinds of marriages, one of which does not confer the rank, &c., of the husband on the wife, nor give the children the same rights as those enjoyed by the children born in the other kind of marriage. This form of marriage seems to have been allowed by the code chiefly for the benefit of poor officers of government, whose rank far exceeds their salary; but, though it stands in the code, it never has received from the king the authority of law. The ruling family, however, sometimes contracts such marriages. The present king is married to the princess of Lignitz in this form. There is no want of legality in the connexion; it is merely to prevent the wife from becoming a queen, and her children royal princes.

Condamine, Charles Marie la, a naturalist, born at Paris in 1701, died at the same place in 1774. With an ardent spirit and a powerful frame, the young Condamine, who had entered the military profession, gave himself up to pleasure; but he soon renounced the military career, and devoted himself to the sciences. He entered the academy as *adjoint chimiste*. His desire of knowledge induced him to apply himself to several sciences, without advancing very deeply in any particular one. After he had visited the coasts of Asia and Africa on the Mediterranean, he was, in 1736, chosen, with Godin and Bouguer, to determine the figure of the earth, by a measurement to be made in Peru. (See *Earth*.) He there made the discovery, that mountains attract heavy bodies, and give them a direction different from that which they would take according to the simple law of gravity—a truth which was afterward confirmed by Maskelyne and Cavendish. Having finished his labors in America, and escaped a thousand dangers, he returned to his native land, after an absence of eight years, and soon after went to Rome, where Benedict XIV gave him a dispensation to marry one of his nieces. Of his curiosity the following anecdote is related. At the execution of Damiens, he mingled with the executioners, in order to let no circumstance of this horrible manner of death pass unobserved. They were about to send him back, but the chief executioner, who knew Condamine, prevented them with these words: "*Laissez, messieurs, c'est un amateur.*" His principal works are his account of his travels, his work on the figure of the earth, and that on the measurement of three degrees of the meridian in the equatorial regions. Besides these, he published treatises on inoculation for the small-pox.

Condé; a fortress of France, in the department du Nord, nine leagues and a half S. E. of Lisle. Inhabitants, 6,080. It is, according to the French military terminology, a *place de guerre de première classe*. During the revolution, it was called *Nord-Libre*. Its port is much frequented.

Condé, Louis de Bourbon, prince of (the great Condé); born in 1621; a general of distinguished talents, great advantages of person, and very attractive manners. During the life of his father, he bore the title of *duke d'Enghien*. He immortalized this name at the battle of Rocroi, in which, at the age of 22, he defeated the Spaniards (1643). After he had arranged every thing for the battle, on the evening previous, he fell into so sound a sleep, that it was necessary to awake him when the time for engaging came on. Wherever he appeared, he was victorious. He was so fortunate as to repair the consequences of a defeat of marshal Turenne. He besieged Dunkirk in sight of the Spanish army, and gained this place for France, in 1646. He was equally fortunate in putting a stop to the civil war which Mazarin had occasioned, who was afterwards obliged to seek the support of Condé. Jealous of the glory of the prince, and fearing his pride, Mazarin, in 1650, caused his deliverer to be brought captive to Vincennes, and did not restore him his freedom until after the expiration of a year. The offended Condé now entered into

negotiations with Spain, and fought against his native country with such success, that he advanced almost to the gates of Paris. He obtained possession of the neighboring places, while Turenne was approaching the capital in order to cover it. Both generals fought with great valor, very near the suburb St. Antoine, and added to their former reputation (July 2, 1652). A short time after, peace was concluded, in which, however, Condé did not concur, but went to the Netherlands. The peace of the Pyrenees, in 1659, at last restored this great general to France. After Turenne's death, in 1675, he commanded, for a long time, the French army in Germany. The gout at last compelled him to retire to his beautiful estate at Chantilly, near Paris, where he devoted himself to the sciences. Here he was visited by Corneille, Bossuet, Racine, Boileau, Bourdaloue, who enjoyed his conversation as much as he did theirs. He died in 1687 at Fontainebleau. In the church of St. Louis, at Paris, a monument was erected to him.

Condé, Louis Joseph de Bourbon, prince of; born at Chantilly, in 1736; only son of the duke of Bourbon and the princess of Hesse-Rheinfels. By the death of both his parents, he came, in his 5th year, under the guardianship of count Charolais, his uncle. The prince was educated with great strictness, and made some progress in the sciences. In 1753, he married the princess of Rohan-Soubise, who, in 1756, bore him the prince Bourbon-Condé. In the seven years' war, he distinguished himself by his courage and skill, and, in 1762, gained a victory, at Johannisberg, over the hereditary prince of Brunswick. True to the old constitution, he opposed Louis XV, on account of the introduction of a newly formed parliament, and was, on this account, banished, but soon recalled. His leisure he devoted to study, in friendly intimacy with the most learned men of his time, and to the embellishment of Chantilly, where Paul I visited him. He was wounded in a duel with count Agoult. In the revolution, he emigrated, in 1789, to Brussels, and from there to Turin: he afterwards formed, in 1792, at Worms, a little corps of emigrant nobility, 6806 men strong, which joined the Austrian army under Wurmser. After an interview with Gustavus III, of Sweden, at Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1791, on the subject of measures to be undertaken, he was summoned at Worms, by a deputy of the national assembly, and by the king himself, to return to France within 14 days, under penalty of the loss of his estates. With the other princes, he returned an answer of refusal, from Coblentz. On the breaking out of the war, his corps distinguished itself; but the Austrian plan of operations did not agree with the views of the emigrants; therefore the connexion of prince Condé with Pichegru had no results. In 1795, he entered with his corps into the English service. In 1796, he fought in Suabia. In 1797, he entered the Russian service, and marched with his corps to Russia, where he was most hospitably received into the residence of Paul I; and returned, in 1799, to the Rhine, under Suwaroff. In 1800, after the separation of Russia from the coalition, he rëentered the English service. The campaign of 1800 ended the military career of the prince. He lived in England till 1813, in which year his second wife, the princess of Monaco, died. He returned to Paris, May 14, 1814, received the 10th regiment of the line, and the office of colonel-general of infantry, as also that of *grand maître de France*, and the protectorate of the order of St. Louis. He attended the celebrated royal council, March 17, 1815, fled with the king to Ghent, and returned with him to Paris in July, where, being appointed president of a *bureau* of the chamber of peers, he remained some time, but at last retired to Chantilly, where he had formerly written the interesting *Essai sur la Vie du Grand Condé, par L. J. de Bourbon, son 4me Descendant*, of which two editions have appeared since 1806. He died at Paris in 1818. His grandson was the duke d'Enghien. (q. v.)

Condé, Louis Henry Joseph, duke of Bourbon, son of the preceding, born April 13, 1756, was educated to the profession of arms. He had hardly passed the age of childhood, when he was inspired with the most violent passion for Louisa Maria Theresa of Orleans. It was resolved that he should travel two years, and then receive the hand of the lady. But the impatience of the prince would not admit of this delay. He carried off his mistress from the convent where she resided, married her, and, in 1772, she bore him the prince d'Enghien. Condé's impetuosity occasioned a duel between him and the count d'Artois, in 1778. This was followed by his banishment to Chantilly. He likewise quarrelled with his wife, and, in 1780, separated himself from her (she died in 1822). In 1782, he was present, with the count d'Artois, at the siege of Gibraltar, distinguished himself there, and was appointed marshal. The pride of his name, the ardor of his character, and his confi-

dence in the power of the king, caused him, in the beginning of the revolution, to treat with contempt a people in a state of violent fermentation. He continually advised the use of force. In 1789, he emigrated, with his father, to Turin, joined the corps of French emigrants, and, in 1792, 1793 and 1794, showed the ancient courage of the Condés. In 1795, he embarked at Bremen for Quiberon, in order to make a diversion in La Vendée, but was obliged to return to England without success. In 1797, he went with the corps to Russia, and, in 1799, returned to the Rhine. After the dissolution of the royal French army, he went to England, in 1800, where he lived till May, 1814. May 15, 1814, he was appointed, at Paris, colonel-general of the light-infantry, and, on Napoleon's return from Elba, in 1815, received the chief command in the departments of the west. But he was obliged, by a convention, to embark from Nantes. He sailed to Spain, whence he returned, in August, through Bordeaux and Nantes, to Paris.

Condensation. Besides the mechanical powers (see *Condenser*), there are also chemical means for converting gaseous fluids into liquids by condensation; for example, steam into water, by means of cold. Volta gives the name of *condenser of electricity* to an instrument invented by him for collecting and measuring electricity in cases in which it is feebly developed; and an apparatus for the collection of sensible caloric is called a *condenser of caloric.*

Condenser; a pneumatic engine, or syringe, whereby an uncommon quantity of air may be crowded into a given space; so that sometimes 10 atmospheres, or 10 times as much air as there is at the same time in the same space without the engine, may be thrown in by means of it, and its egress prevented by valves properly disposed. (See *Pneumatics.*)

Condillac, Stephen Bonnot de, among the French the founder of the sensual system, born in 1715, at Grenoble, lived, like his brother, the abbe Mably, from his youth, devoted to study. His *Essai sur l'Origine des Connaissances humaines* (1746, 2 vols.) first drew the attention of the world to a thinker, who, with much acuteness of mind, sought to explain, by the law of the association of ideas, almost all the phenomena of the human mind. Although Locke's discoveries in the department of psychology, founded upon experience, might have had an influence on this work, yet no one can deny to Condillac the merit of having made more profound inquiries on many points. He himself, however, thought that he had not sufficiently explained the first principles of the faculties of the human mind, and therefore wrote the *Traité des Systêmes* (1749, 2 vols.), in which he frequently referred to more accurate observations. Any one would misunderstand Condillac, who should believe that he disapproved of all systems; but instead of those maxims and theories which Des Cartes, Spinoza, Malebranche, &c., had laid down as the basis of their speculations, he demanded observations of the simplest kind. His *Traité des Sensations* (1754, 2 vols.) is interesting for the ingenious manner, in which he has explained the consciousness of impressions on the senses. Mortified by the supposition that he had followed the course of ideas in Diderot's and Buffon's works, he wrote his *Traité des Animaux* (1775), in which he refuted Buffon's opinions, by principles which he had advanced in his *Traité des Sensations.* The sagacity and the clearness which distinguish all Condillac's writings obtained for him the distinction of being chosen instructer of the infant duke of Parma, nephew of Louis XV. The intimate friendship which subsisted between him and his colleague, M. de Keralio, made this situation the more agreeable. To this cause we are indebted for his acute work, the *Cours d'Études* (1755, 13 vols.), in which, with his peculiar talent of explanation, he investigates the external signs of ideas. Thus his Grammar necessarily became a universal one; his Art of Writing, a course of instruction for giving the most suitable expression to trains of thought. With the same view, he composed his *L'Art de juger*, and *L'Art de penser*, which constitute a part of the *Cours d'Études.* His history has been less successful than his other works. Considered apart from the tameness of its execution, it might be objected to it, that it represents occurrences in subservience to pre-established theories. Condillac returned, after the completion of the education of the young prince, to Paris, where, in 1768, he was admitted into the French academy, which, however, he did not visit again after the day of his entrance. His work, *Le Commerce et le Gouvernement considérés relativement l'un à l'autre* (1776), which is an application of his analytical method to several problems in the administration of the state, met, however, with little approbation. His Logic, the last of his works, he wrote by request, in 1780, as a manual for the Polish schools. The

tracing back of the thoughts to their simplest beginnings, as the most certain means of finding the truth, is urgently enjoined by him. Condillac died at his estate of Flux, near Bougenci, Aug. 3, 1780. His *Langue des Calculs* first appeared in 1798. The collection of his works, the revision of which he had begun, appeared at Paris in 1798, in 23 vols., and again in the same year, in 35 vols. A later edition, of 1803, consists of 32 vols., 12mo. (See *French Philosophy.*)

CONDITION. (See *Bond.*)

CONDOR. The popular name of the great vulture of the Andes, formed by a mispronunciation of the Indian name *kunter*, which, according to Humboldt, is derived from another word in the language of the Incas, signifying *to smell well.* This species (*vultur gryphus* L., *hodie cathartes gryphus*) belongs to the vulturine family of diurnal rapacious birds, and the genus *cathartes* of Illiger, &c., which is distinguished by the following characters:—the bill is elongated and straight at base; the upper mandible is covered to the middle by the cere; the nostrils are medial, approximate, oval, pervious and naked; the tongue is canaliculate, with serrated edges; the head is elongated, depressed and rugous; the tarsus rather slender; the lateral toes equal; the middle toe is much the longest, the inner free, and the hind one shortest; the first primary is rather short, the third and fourth are longest.—The natural history of the condor was in a fair way to rival the ancient fables of griffins, basilisks and dragons, or even of exceeding the roc of Sinbad the Sailor, in extravagant exaggeration, until that admirable and judicious observer, Von Humboldt, placed it upon the basis of truth. By divesting this bird of all fictitious attributes, and bringing it into its proper family, he certainly spoiled a great number of romantic narratives of their principal embellishment; but he amply compensated therefor, by giving this additional proof, that there are no monsters in nature, and that even when she appears to depart most from the ordinary standard, as to size, situation or habits, her beings are parts of a single plan, in which all the agents are modifications of one great type. We therefore feel grateful to the indefatigable naturalist, whose residence of 17 months in the native mountains of the condor enabled him daily to observe its peculiarities and habits, and to furnish us with satisfying statements of realities, in place of the wild and inconclusive figments, so long imposed upon mankind. His careful measurements establish the fact, that the wonderfully gigantic condor is not generally larger than the lammergeyer, or bearded vulture of the Alps, which it closely resembles in various points of character. We shall soon see whether the rational student has lost by stripping the condor of qualities bestowed upon it solely by credulous ignorance, and whether the truth to be told of its history be not more interesting than all the fictions. Upon a chain of mountains, whose summits, lifted far above the highest clouds, are robed in snows coëval with creation, we find a race of birds, whose magnitude and might, compared with others of the feathered kind, is in something like the proportion of their huge domicils to earth's ordinary elevations. Above all animal life, and at the extreme limit of even Alpine vegetation, these birds prefer to dwell, inhaling an air too highly rarified to be endured, unless by creatures expressly adapted thereto. From such immense elevations they soar, still more sublimely, upwards into the dark-blue heavens, until their great bulk diminishes to a scarcely perceptible speck, or is lost to the aching sight of the observer. In these pure fields of ether, unvisited even by the thunder-cloud—regions which may be regarded as his own exclusive domain—the condor delights to sail, and with piercing glance surveys the surface of the earth, towards which he never stoops his wing, unless at the call of hunger. Surely this power to waft and sustain himself in the loftiest regions of the air; his ability to endure, uninjured, the exceeding cold attendant on such remoteness from the earth; and to breathe, with ease, in an atmosphere of such extreme rarity; together with the keenness of sight, that, from such vast heights, can minutely scan the objects below,—are sufficiently admirable to entitle the condor to our attention, though we no longer regard it as a prodigy, or as standing altogether solitary in the scale of creation.—Notwithstanding that the condor is a lover of the clearest and purest air, it must be confessed that he is a carrion bird, and is quickly lured to the plains by the sight or scent of a carcass, especially of a sheep or ox. To such a feast considerable numbers repair, and commence their filthy banquet by first plucking out the eyes, and then tearing away the tongue of the animal, their favorite delicacies; next to these, the bowels are the morsels most eagerly sought for, and devoured with that greedy gluttony which distinguishes the whole vulture tribe. The appetite of these

birds seems to be limited only by the quantity of food that can be gorged into their stomachs; and when thus overloaded, they appear sluggish, oppressed, and unable to raise themselves into the air. The Indians profit by this condition to revenge themselves on the condors for the many robberies which they commit upon their flocks, and, watching while they eat, until flight has become exceedingly difficult, attack and secure them by nooses, or knock them down with poles, before they can get out of the way. If the condor, thus loaded, succeeds in rising a short distance from the ground, he makes a violent effort, kicking his feet towards his throat, and relieves himself by vomiting, when he soon ascends out of reach. Many, however, are surprised, and captured or killed before they are able to ascend. But the condor does not exclusively feed upon dead or putrefying flesh; he attacks and destroys deer, vicunas, and other middling-sized or small quadrupeds; and, when pinched by hunger, a pair of these birds will attack a bullock, and, by repeated wounds with their beaks and claws, harass him, until, from fatigue, he thrusts out his tongue, which they immediately seize, and tear from his head; they also pluck out the eyes of the poor beast, which, if not speedily rescued, must soon fall a prey to their voracity. It is said to be very common to see the cattle of the Indians, on the Andes, suffering from the severe wounds inflicted by these rapacious birds. It does not appear that they have ever attacked the human race. When Humboldt, accompanied by his friend Bonpland, was collecting plants near the limits of perpetual snow, they were daily in company with several condors, which would suffer themselves to be quite closely approached without exhibiting signs of alarm, though they never showed any disposition to act offensively. They were not accused, by the Indians, of ever carrying off children, though frequent opportunities were presented, had they been so disposed. Humboldt believes that no authenticated case can be produced, in which the lammergeyer of the Alps ever carried off a child, though so currently accused of such theft, but that the possibility of the evil has led to the belief of its actual existence. The condor is not known to build a nest, but is said to deposit its eggs on the naked rocks. The eggs are reported to be altogether white, and 3 or 4 inches long. When hatched, the female is said to remain with the young for a whole year, in order to provide them with food, and to teach them to supply themselves. In relation to all these points, satisfactory information still remains to be desired. We have seen that hunger impels the condors to descend to the plains, and it is also true, that they are occasionally seen even on the shores of the Southern ocean, in the cold and temperate regions of Chile, where the Andes so closely approach the shores of the Pacific. Their sojourn, however, in such situations, is but for a short time, as they seem to require a much cooler and more highly rarified air, and prefer those lofty solitudes where the barometer does not rise higher than 16 degrees. When they descend to the plains, they alight on the ground, rather than upon trees or other projections, as the straightness of their toes renders the first mentioned situation most eligible. Humboldt saw the condor only in New Grenada, Quito and Peru, but was informed that it follows the chain of the Andes from the equator to the 7th degree of north latitude, into the province of Antioquia. There is now no doubt of its appearing even in Mexico, and the south-western territory of the U. States.—The head of the male condor is furnished with a sort of cartilaginous crest, of an oblong figure, wrinkled, and quite slender, resting upon the forehead and hinder part of the beak, for about a fourth of its length; at the base of the bill it is free. The female is destitute of this crest. The skin of the head, in the male, forms folds behind the eye, which descend towards the neck, and terminate in a flabby, dilatable or erectile membrane. The structure of the crest is altogether peculiar, bearing very little resemblance to the cock's comb, or the wattles of a turkey. The auricular orifice is of considerable size, but concealed by folds of the temporal membrane. The eye, which is peculiarly elongated, and farther distant from the beak than in the eagles, is of a purple hue, and very brilliant. The neck is uniformly marked by parallel longitudinal wrinkles, though the membrane is not so flabby as that covering the throat, which appear to be caused by the frequent habit of drawing the neck downwards, to conceal or warm it within the collar or hood. The collar, in both sexes, is a fine silken down, forming a white band between the naked part of the neck and beginning of the true feathers, and is rather more than 2 inches broad, not entirely surrounding the neck, but leaving a very narrow naked space in front. The rest of the surface, the back, wings and tail, are of a slightly grayish-black, though

sometimes they are brilliantly black; the feathers are triangular, and placed over each other tile-wise. Humboldt never saw male condors with white backs, though descriptions of such have been given by Molina and others. The primaries are black; the secondaries, in both sexes, are exteriorly edged with white. The wing coverts, however, offer the best distinction of the sexes, being grayish-black in the female, while, in the male, their tips, and even half of the shafts, are white, so that his wings are ornamented with beautiful white spots. The tail is blackish, wedge-shaped, rather short, and contains 12 feathers. The feet are very robust, and of an ashen-blue color, marked with white wrinkles. The claws are blackish, very long, and but slightly hooked. The 4 toes are united by an obvious but delicate membrane; the fourth is the smallest, and has the most crooked claw. The following are the dimensions of the largest male condor described by Humboldt (it was killed on the eastern declivity of Chimborazo):—length, from tip of the beak to the tip of the tail, 3 feet 3 inches 2 lines (French); height, when perched, with the neck moderately extended, 2 feet 8 inches; entire length of head and beak, 6 inches 11 lines; beak alone, 2 inches 9 lines; breadth of beak, closed, 1 inch 2 lines; *envergure*, or from the tip of one extended wing to the other, 8 feet 9 inches; breadth of leg bone, 11 lines; length of longest toe, without the claw, 3 inches 11 lines; claw, 2 inches; length of two lateral toes, with their claws, 3 inches 7 lines; claw, 2 inches 3 lines; shortest toe and claw, 1 inch 8 lines. From this measurement, it is obvious that the condor does not exceed the average size of the largest European vulture; and Humboldt states that he never saw a condor whose *envergure* measured more than 9 French feet. He was also assured, by very credible inhabitants of the country, that they never saw one whose *envergure* was greater than 11 feet. He finally concludes that 14 feet is about the maximum size to which the largest condor would attain. Two or three specimens of the condor have been exhibited in Philadelphia and New York within the last 7 years, and were evidently not full grown birds; yet the *envergure* of the largest of them measured 11 English feet. The *envergure* of the specimen belonging to the Leverian museum, described by Dr. Shaw, measured 14 English feet. Notwithstanding, therefore, what is said by Humboldt, of the general correspondence in size of the Alpine lammergeyer and the condor of the Andes, we cannot avoid believing that a full grown individual of the latter species would be much more than a match, in every respect, for any European species. The condor is peculiarly tenacious of life, and has been observed, after having been hung for a considerable time by the neck, in a noose, to rise and walk away quickly when taken down for dead, and to receive several pistol bullets in its body without appearing greatly injured. The great size and strength of its plumage defends its body, to a considerable degree, from the effects of shot. It is easily killed when shot, or struck sufficiently hard, about the head.

Condorcanqui, Joseph Gabriel; an American Spaniard, who, having been ill treated by a magistrate, and sustained an act of injustice from the *audiencia* of Lima, attempted to redress his own grievances, and the oppressions of the Indians, by inciting them to insurrection against the Spanish government in 1780. He was an artful and intrepid man; and, with a view to conciliate the Indians, he assumed the name of *Tupac-Amaru*, one of the ancient incas, professing a design to restore the ancient dynasty of Manco-Capac in Peru, a project which had been entertained by sir Walter Raleigh, in the reign of queen Elizabeth. The scheme was, at first, very successful. The spirit of revolt extended far and wide into the interior of the country; the contest lasted three years, and the pretended Tupac-Amaru was hailed inca of Peru. His conduct, however, proved obnoxious to the Spanish settlers, and the efforts of the Indians were too feeble and desultory to support so gigantic an undertaking. Troops were sent against him, and, being deserted by his followers, he was taken and put to death.

Condorcet, Marie Jean Nicolas Caritat, marquis de; born Sept. 17, 1743, at Ribemont, near St. Quentin, of one of the oldest families in Dauphiny. By the assistance of his uncle Jacques Marie de Condorcet, bishop of Lisieux, he was educated in the college of Navarre, at Paris. At a public examination, which was attended by D'Alembert, Clairaut and Fontaine, the manner in which he solved a mathematical proposition gained their applause, and the youth of 16 was so much excited by their praises, that, from that time, he resolved to devote himself entirely to the exact sciences. The duke of Rochefoucault was his patron, and introduced him into the world at the age of 19. But its allurements could not render him

unfaithful to the severe studies which he had chosen. At the age of 21, he presented to the academy of sciences an *Essai sur le Calcul Intégral*, which caused Fontaine to observe, that he was jealous of the young man. His *Mémoire sur le Problème des Trois Points* appeared in 1767. Both works were afterwards united under the title of *Essais d'Analyse*. The merit of this work gained for him, in 1769, the distinction of a seat in the academy of sciences. With astonishing facility and versatility, Condorcet treated the most difficult problems in mathematics; but his genius inclined him rather to lay down beautiful formulas than to pursue them to useful applications. Condorcet also wrote academical eulogies, as Fontenelle's talents in this department were very much missed. Although his *Éloges des Académiciens Morts avant* 1699 (Paris, 1773) leave much to be desired, yet they were received with so much applause, that the place of secretary of the academy, in 1777, was not refused to him even by his rivals. This office imposed on him the necessity of investigating the various departments of the sciences (the most distinguished promoters of which he was obliged to eulogize), in order to be able to exhibit the latest discoveries; but he did not allow himself to be drawn away from his mathematical studies. His theory of comets gained, in 1777, the prize offered by the academy of Berlin, and he enriched the transactions of the learned societies of Petersburg, Berlin, Bologna, Turin and Paris with profound contributions in the department of the higher mathematics. The aversion of the minister Maurepas to Condorcet delayed his entrance into the French academy till 1782. His inaugural discourse was on the advantages which society may derive from the union of the physical and moral sciences. Being intimately connected with Turgot, he was led into a thorough examination of the system of the economists, and his acquaintance with D'Alembert made him take an active part in the *Encyclopédie*, for which he wrote many articles. He was the friend of most of the contributors to this great work. In all his writings, he displays an exalted view of human nature—a circumstance much to his honor, considering the character of those with whom he was associated. This feeling determined him in favor of the cause of the American colonies during their contest with England. He was also a friend of the enslaved Negroes, and was anxious for their restoration to freedom (*Reflexions sur l'Esclavage des Nègres*). In 1787, Condorcet published Voltaire's Life, a sort of sequel to the complete edition of Voltaire's works, which he had given to the world with notes and illustrations, and therein expressed the admiration which the versatility of talent and the zeal in the cause of humanity of this great man had awakened in him. Meanwhile his opinions of the rights of citizens and of men, estranged him from the duke of Rochefoucault, his former benefactor. His enemies have asserted that the refusal of the post of instructer to the dauphin induced him to join the popular party. The real cause was his enthusiasm for the great and good. He wrote, in favor of the popular cause, *Sur les Assemblées provinciales*, subsequently in the *Bibliothèque de l'Homme public* and the *Feuille villageoise*. Under a cold exterior, he possessed the most ardent passions. D'Alembert compared him to a volcano covered with snow. His *Feuille villageoise*, in which he simply stated the first principles of political economy, and of the relations of states, exerted considerable influence. On the intelligence of the flight of the king, he represented, in a speech which was highly admired, the royal dignity as an anti-social institution. The royal treasury, of which he was appointed, in 1791, commissary, received, at his suggestion, the name of *national treasury*. He was finally elected a deputy of Paris to the legislative assembly, and very soon, though his bodily strength seemed inadequate for the office, he was chosen secretary of the assembly. In February, 1792, he was appointed president; composed the proclamation addressed to the French and to Europe, which announced the abolition of the royal dignity; spoke in the national convention, where he had a seat as deputy of the department of Aisne, for the most part, indeed, with the Girondists; but, on the trial of Louis, he was in favor of the severest sentence not capital; at the same time, he proposed to abolish capital punishments, except in case of crimes against the state. This participation in the proceedings against the king was the reason why his name was struck off from the list of members of the academies of Petersburg and Berlin. The revolution of May 31, 1793, prevented the constitution which Condorcet had drawn up from being accepted. The constitution then adopted he attacked without moderation or reserve, and was, in consequence, denounced at the bar (q v.), July 8. He was accused, Oct. 3, of being an accom-

plice of Brissot. To save his life, he concealed himself, and was declared out of the protection of the law. Madame Verney, a woman of noble feelings, secreted him for eight months. She procured him the means of subsistence, and even wrote little poems to enliven his spirits. While in this retreat, without the assistance of others, and surrounded by all the horrors of his situation, Condorcet wrote his excellent *Esquisse d'un Tableau historique des Progrès de l'Esprit humain*, full of enthusiasm for that liberty, the degeneracy of which caused him so much suffering. In answer to the encouraging words of his protectress, he wrote the *Epitre d'un Polonais exilé en Sibérie à sa Femme*, full of those noble sentiments which had been the rules of his life. He at last learned from the public papers, that death was denounced against all those who concealed a proscribed individual. In spite of the prayers of the generous woman who had given him refuge, he left her, and fled in disguise from Paris. He wandered about for a long time, until, driven by hunger, he entered a small inn at Clamar, where he was arrested, as a suspicious person, by a member of the revolutionary tribunal of Clamar, and thrown into prison, to undergo a more strict examination. On the following morning, March 28, 1794, he was found dead on the floor of his room, apparently having swallowed poison, which he always carried about him, and which nothing but his love for his wife and daughter had prevented him from using before. A collection of his numerous writings, complete with the exception of his mathematical works, appeared in Paris in 1804 (*Œuvres complètes, publiés par Garat et Cabanis*, 21 vols.). An excellent historical notice of them is to be found in the *Notice sur la Vie et les Ouvrages de Condorcet, par Antoine Diannyère*, 1796. The *Mémoires de Condorcet sur la Révolution Française* is a poor work.

Condottieri (*leaders*); the captains of those bands of soldiers which were frequent in Italy towards the end of the middle ages, who sought for service in every war, and fought not for their country, but for pay and plunder, and offered their assistance to every party which could pay them. These bands originated in the endless wars and feuds of the Italian states and governments at that time, and the whole military power soon came into their hands. They consisted principally of men too ignorant or too indolent to obtain an honest livelihood, or who wished to escape the punishment of some crime. They included, however, many people who had been deprived of their fortunes by these wars. As these men had not the slightest interest in those who hired them, but that of being paid, and of finding opportunities for plunder, wars terminated with very little bloodshed, sometimes with none; for when the bands of *condottieri* met, the smallest in number not unfrequently surrendered to the other. The most ambitious among them, however, had higher views. Such was Francesco Sforza, who, being chosen by the Milanese to command their army, made himself, in 1451, their duke and lord, and whose posterity continued to possess sovereign power. There is little difference between most of the *condottieri* and some of the nobler kinds of robbers. (See *Captain*.)

Conductor of Lightning is an instrument, by means of which either the electricity of the clouds—the cause of lightning—is conducted, without explosion, into the earth, or the lightning itself is intercepted and conducted, in a particular way, into the earth or water, without injuring buildings, ships, &c. This invention belongs to doctor Franklin. While making experiments on electricity, he observed that a pointed metallic wire, if brought near an electrified body, gradually deprives the latter of its electricity in such a manner that no sparks appear. Therefore, as clouds are electrified, he thought that they might be deprived of their electricity (which is the cause of lightning and of its striking), if a pointed metallic rod were fastened upon the highest part of a building, and a wire carried down from this into the earth, so that the electricity of the cloud, attracted by the point, might be conducted into the ground. Franklin's conjecture proved to be well founded, and conductors were soon after introduced into many countries. They at first consisted of an iron rod, running down the sides of a building into the earth, while its point rose several feet above the building. Experience, thus far, shows the best construction of conductors to be this:—The conductor consists of a rod of iron, an inch thick, to the upper end of which is attached a tapering piece of copper, 8 or 9 inches in length, gilded, to prevent its rusting. This rod is fixed to the highest part of a building, in such a way as to rise at least 5 or 6 feet above it: to this are fastened strips of copper, 3 or 4 inches broad, and riveted together, which must reach to the earth, and be carried into it about a foot deep. The strips are to be

carefully nailed upon the roof and against the wall of the building. The first conductors in Europe were erected at Paynes-hill, in England, by doctor Watson, in 1762, and upon the steeple of St. James' church, at Hamburg, in Germany, in 1769. In modern times, conductors have been proposed to supersede those formerly in use. Among them is the cheap one of Nicolai, made of strips of tin, which has already been used; for instance, at Lohmen, near Pirna.

Conduit (*French*), in architecture; a long, narrow passage between two walls, or under ground, for secret communication between various apartments, of which many are to be found in old buildings; also a canal of pipes, for the conveyance of water; a sort of subterraneous or concealed aqueduct. The construction of conduits requires science and care. The ancient Romans excelled in them, and formed the lower parts, whereon the water ran, with cement of such an excellent quality, that it has become as hard as the stone itself, which it was employed to join. There are conduits of Roman aqueducts still remaining, of from five to six feet in height, and three feet in width. Conduits, in modern times, are generally pipes of wood, lead, iron, or pottery, for conveying the water from the main spring or reservoirs to the different houses and places where it is required.

Cone, in geometry; a solid figure having a circle for its base, and its top terminated in a point, or *vertex*. This definition, which is commonly given, is not, in mathematical strictness, correct; because no circle, however small, can become a mathematical point. But these deficiencies of mathematical strictness connected with constructive geometry, which is based on figures and diagrams, are avoided by analytical geometry, which operates without figures.—The word *cone* is derived from the Latin *conus*. The figure might be called the *round pyramid*, according to the definition of a pyramid. Cones are either *perpendicular*, if the axis, that is, the line from the vertex to the centre of the base, stands perpendicularly on the base; or *oblique*, or *scalenous*, if the axis does not form a right angle with the base. If a cone is cut parallel with its base, the section, of course, is a *circle*: if, however, the section is made obliquely, that is, nearer to the base at one end than at the other, a curve is obtained, which is called an *ellipse*. If the section be made parallel with the axis, perpendicularly from the vertex, or so as to make a greater angle with the base than is made by the side of the cone, the curve obtained is called a *hyperbola*. Thirdly, the section may be made parallel with one side of the cone, in which case the curve is called a *parabola*. These three lines, figures and planes are called *conic sections*, and form one of the most important parts of mathematics, which is distinguished for elegance, demonstrating, with surprising simplicity and beauty, and in the most harmonious connexion, the different laws, according to which the Creator has made worlds to revolve, and the light to be received and reflected, as well as the ball thrown into the air by the playful boy, to describe its line, until it falls again to the earth. Few branches of mathematics delight a youthful mind so much as conic sections; and the emotion which the pupil manifests, when they unfold to him the great laws of the universe, might be called natural piety. Considering conic sections as opening the mind to the true grandeur and beauty of the mathematical world, whilst all the preceding study only teaches the alphabet of the science, we are of opinion that the study of them might be advantageously extended beyond the walls of colleges, into the higher seminaries for the education of females. The Greeks investigated the properties of the conic sections with admirable acuteness. A work on them is still extant, written by Apollonius of Perge. The English have done a great deal towards perfecting the theory of them. In teaching conic sections to young people, the descriptive method (resting on diagrams) ought always to be connected with the analytic method.

Confederation, German. (See *Germany*.)

Confederation of the Princes (of Germany; in German, *Fürstenbund*). The occasion of the confederation of the German princes was the extinction of the male line of the family of the elector of Bavaria, by the death of the elector Maximilian Joseph, Dec. 30, 1777. After his death, his territories fell to the nearest collateral relation, Charles Theodore, elector of the Palatinate. This prince, being without children, had yielded to the propositions of the house of Austria, and obliged himself, by the convention of Vienna, Jan. 3, 1778, to renounce all claim to the inheritance. This convention was opposed by the presumptive heir of the Palatinate, the duke of Deux-Ponts, and also by the elector of Saxony, nephew to the deceased elector of Bavaria. Both princes sought the intercession of Frederic the Great of Prus-

sia, who, after fruitless negotiations on the subject with Austria, took up arms. At the peace of Teschen, May 13, 1779, which ended this short war for the Bavarian succession, the convention of Vienna was annulled. Austria obtained of Bavaria merely the Innviertel, with Braunau, and Charles Theodore received possession of the rest of the territories. France and Russia, the allies of Prussia, guarantied the peace. Some years after, the emperor Joseph II again thought of enlarging and strengthening the Austrian monarchy by the addition of the state of Bavaria, and the empress of Russia proposed an exchange of the Austrian Netherlands for Bavaria. The elector Charles Theodore was to have the Austrian Netherlands, with the exception of Luxemburg and Namur, with the title of *king of Burgundy*. The elector was induced to agree to this by the Austrian ambassador, Von Lehrbach; the duke of Deux-Ponts, the presumptive heir, by count Romanzoff, the Russian ambassador; and both were promised, in addition to what they received by exchange, the sum of 3000 florins from the Austrian coffers. At the same time, the duke was told that the consent of the elector had been secured, and that the exchange would take place, even without his concurrence. But the duke afterwards refused his consent to the exchange of the land of his forefathers, and again had recourse to Frederic. This monarch supported with zeal the remonstrance sent by the duke to the empress Catharine of Russia, and received a communication from the empress, that she thought the exchange advantageous to both parties, but that it ought not to take place without their mutual consent. Although Louis XVI, who had guarantied the peace of Teschen, and would not consent to the exchange, now caused the king of Prussia to be assured that Joseph II, his ally, had given up the plan, on account of the opposition of the duke of Deux-Ponts, the court of Vienna still refused to make satisfactory arrangements. Frederic II therefore, in March, 1785, induced the electors of Saxony and Hanover to form a league, and, in spite of the opposition of Austria, the terms of union were signed in Berlin, July 23, 1785, by Brandenburg, Saxony and Hanover, for the support and defence of the German constitution, agreeably to the terms of the peace of Westphalia and the treaties which followed, of the electoral capitulations, and of the other laws of the empire. The measures to be taken against the exchange of Bavaria were provided for by a secret article. In a few months, this league was joined by the elector of Mentz and his coadjutor, Dalberg the elector of Treves, the landgrave of Hesse-Cassel, the margraves of Anspach and Baden, and the dukes of Deux-Ponts, of Brunswick, of Mecklenburg, of Weimar and Gotha, with the prince of Anhalt-Dessau. The views of Austria were frustrated by this open act of the king of Prussia, and both Austria and Russia entirely relinquished their project. (See Von Dohm, *Ueber den deutschen Fürstenbund*—on the Confederation of the German Princes, Berlin, 1785; John Müller's Description of the Confederation of the German Princes; and Reuss's *Deutsche Staatskanzlei*, vol 13). This confederation is to be considered as one of the many proofs of the utter insufficiency of the German empire for the purposes of a general government.

Confederation of the Rhine. In the war of 1805, which turned out so unfortunately for Austria, several of the princes of the south of Germany were obliged to ally themselves to France, or did it voluntarily. The peace of Presburg (Dec. 26, 1805) gave the first impulse to the entire dissolution of the German empire, by conferring crowns on the electors of Bavaria and Würtemberg, and on both, as well as on Baden, complete sovereignty, such as had been already exercised by the other great German states. Soon after (May 28, 1806), the first German elector, arch-chancellor of the empire, announced to the diet that he had appointed cardinal Fesch, uncle of Napoleon, his coadjutor and successor,—an act inconsistent with the constitution of the empire. Ultimately, 16 German princes made a formal declaration of their separation from the emperor and the empire, in the act of confederation signed at Paris, July 12, 1806, by the kings of Bavaria and Würtemberg, the elector arch-chancellor of the empire, the elector of Baden, the new duke of Cleves and Berg (Joachim Murat), the landgrave of Hesse-Darmstadt, the princes of Nassau-Usingen and Nassau-Weilburg, Hohenzollern-Hechingen, and Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen, of Salm-Salm and Salm-Kyrburg, the duke of Ahremberg, the princes of Isenburg-Birstein and of Liechtenstein, and the count Von der Leyen. This was communicated to the diet Aug. 1, 1806. They assigned, as the reason for this separation, the deficiencies of the constitution of the German empire, and invited the other members of the empire to join their confederation. The French ambassador, Bacher, announced, on the same day, that his sovereign would no

longer acknowledge a German empire. (See *Germany.*) The emperor Francis II resigned his dignity as head of the German empire Aug. 6, being induced to take this step, according to his declaration, by the demands contained in several articles of the peace of Presburg, and the new confederation of the German states, which he considered inconsistent with his rank as head of the empire. After the signing of the act of confederation, to which the name of the prince of Liechtenstein was attached without his knowledge, the elector arch-chancellor received the title of *prince primate;* the elector of Baden, the landgrave of Hesse-Darmstadt, and the duke of Berg, received each the title of *grand-duke,* with royal privileges and rights; Nassau-Usingen was raised to a duchy, and Von der Leyen to a principality. The emperor of France adopted the title of *protector of the confederation of the Rhine.* By the establishment of this confederation, the following states lost their political independence:—the imperial free city of Nuremberg, which was ceded to Bavaria; Frankfort, to the prince-primate; the principality of Heitersheim, belonging to the order of the knights of St. John, which became subject to Baden; and the burggravate of Friedberg, to Hesse-Darmstadt. Furthermore, by *mediatisation,* the princes of Nassau and Orange-Fulda, of Hohenlohe, Schwarzenberg, and many others; the landgrave of Hesse-Homburg, the dukes of Corswarem-Looz and of Croy, many counts of the empire, and all the former knights of the empire, were subjected to the princes of the confederation of the Rhine. These mediatised members of the empire only kept possession of their patrimonial estates and private property, the jurisdiction in the first and second instances, the feudal rights, and mining privileges, &c.; but the power of legislation, essential to sovereignty, the supreme jurisdiction, the right of declaring war and peace, of forming alliances, of regulating the police, and taxation, &c., devolved on the princes of the confederation, to whom these mediatised princes became subject. The object of this confederation was to secure external and internal peace. France and the members of the confederation were to be closely allied, and, if one of them was threatened with war, or attacked, all the other confederates were to take up arms at the call of the protector, without further consultation, to assist the party threatened or attacked. Although, by the act of confederation, Napoleon was called *protector of the confederation of the Rhine,* he was not recognised as a chief to whom the rulers of the several states were to be subject. To deliberate on the mutual affairs of the confederates, a confederate diet was to be established at Frankfort on the Maine, with two divisions—the royal, in which the grand-dukes were likewise to have seats, and that of the princes. The prince-primate was to be general president of the diet, and particularly of the royal chamber; in that of the princes, the duke of Nassau was to preside. At the death of every prince-primate, his successor was to be appointed by the protector of the confederation of the Rhine. No member of the latter was to be allowed to enter the service of any state not included in the confederacy, or allied with the same, nor was any member to be allowed to cede his sovereignty in favor of any but a confederate. The disputes of the confederate princes were to be decided at the diets, and, for the sake of adjusting complaints against the members of the confederacy, two courts of justice were to be established. But neither these, nor the meeting of the confederacy, ever took place. Finally, Catholics and Protestants were to enjoy equal rights in all the confederated states. Thus, in the place of the German empire, which had existed nearly 1000 years, at least in name, a confederation was formed, which, transitory as it may seem in many respects, nevertheless brought about a total and lasting revolution in the political relations of the former German states of the empire and their subjects, and is erroneously judged, if it is considered as merely the offspring of foreign ambition, and not as the inevitable consequence of the internal dissolution of the ancient constitution of the empire. Sept. 25, 1806, the elector of Würtzburg joined the confederacy as a grand-duke. Prussia, on the other hand, to limit the increase of the power of France, by the further extension of this confederacy, had formed the project of a similar union, under her protection, to be composed of the northern German princes. But an end was put to this project by the war of 1806—7; and, during this war, the elector of Saxony, after having separated from Prussia, and assumed the title of *king,* at the peace concluded between Saxony and France, at Posen (Dec. 11, 1806) entered the confederacy. His example was followed (Dec. 15, 1806) by the five Saxon dukes; and, by the treaty signed at Warsaw, April 13, 1807, the two princes of Schwarzburg, the three dukes of the house of Anhalt, and many other smaller

princes, were admitted into the confederacy. The kingdom of Westphalia, formed out of the provinces conquered from Prussia and other states, and assigned to Jerome Bonaparte, was likewise added to the confederation of the Rhine, by the constitution, confirmed by the emperor of France, Nov. 15, 1807. Finally, the duke of Mecklenburg-Strelitz (Feb. 18, 1808), the duke of Mecklenburg-Schwerin (March 22, 1808), the duke of Oldenburg and prince of Lübeck (Oct. 14, 1808), were admitted as members; so that the confederacy extended over a space of 125,160 square miles, with 14,608,877 inhabitants; and the confederate forces were increased from the originally stipulated number of 63,000 to 119,180. But the protector of the confederacy of the Rhine, who had established the league, for the maintenance of internal and external peace, thought himself authorized to make inroads on the security and independence of his confederates, and, by a decree of Dec. 10, 1810, by which the rivers Scheldt, Meuse, Rhine, Ems, Weser and Elbe were added to France, deprived the following princes of the confederacy of their political existence, and of the independence secured to them by the act of confederacy:—1. the duke of Oldenburg, on whose dukedom he seized, leaving him only the principality of Lübeck; 2. the duke of Ahremberg, of whose possessions a part were added to France, and the remainder to the grand-duchy of Berg; 3. the possessions of the prince of Salm-Salm and Salm-Kyrburg were likewise added to France. Of the grand-duchy of Berg, and the kingdom of Westphalia, considerable portions were likewise joined to France. The territories thus appropriated amounted to 11,278 square miles, with 1,133,057 inhabitants; so that 114,140 square miles, and 13,475,826 inhabitants, remained to the confederacy. The year 1813 put an end to its existence. The present grand-dukes of Mecklenburg-Schwerin and Mecklenburg-Strelitz, the last, who, compelled by their situation, had joined the confederacy of the Rhine, were the first that renounced it, immediately on the alliance of Prussia with Russia against Napoleon. They were soon followed by the kings of Bavaria and Würtemberg, besides several less powerful princes. Others hesitated longer, prevented partly by the situation of their countries, partly by other considerations, from making a free declaration. Among these were the king of Saxony, as also the grand-duke of Frankfort, the president of the confederacy. The former lost half of his country, the latter, all. The king of Westphalia and the grand-duke of Berg (son of the ex-king of Holland) shared the same fate. For the same reason, by the resolutions arbitrarily passed at the congress of Vienna, the dominions of the prince of Isenburg and of the prince Von der Leyen, who, as princes of the confederacy of the Rhine, were sovereigns, were mediatised. The other members of the confederacy of the Rhine, with the exception of the duke of Ahremburg and the prince of Salm, have joined the German confederacy as sovereigns.

Confession. This term is sometimes applied to a profession of faith; for instance, the confession of Augsburg. (See *Augsburg*, and *Reformation*.) It sometimes also signifies a religious sect; as the three Christian confessions—the Roman Catholic, the Lutheran and the Calvinistic. *Confiteor* (I acknowledge) is the confession which the Catholic priests make before the altar, when beginning mass or public worship.

Confession, in law, is when a prisoner, after being arraigned, and hearing the indictment against him read, confesses the offence of which he is charged. Such confession is the most satisfactory ground of conviction.—In the German states, the confession of the prisoner, to be conclusive, must not only be made in open court, but must be accompanied by a disclosure, on his part, of the circumstances under which the crime was committed.—By the revised laws of New York, a prisoner, instead of being asked whether he is guilty or not guilty, is asked whether he will be tried by the jury.

Confession, Auricular, in the Roman church; the disclosure of sins to the priest at the confessional, with a view to obtain absolution from them. The father confessor inquires of the person confessing concerning the circumstances of the sins confessed, and proportions his admonition, and the severity of the penance, which he enjoins, to the degree of the transgression. The person confessing is allowed to conceal no sin of consequence which he remembers to have committed, and the father confessor is bound to perpetual secrecy. The absolution granted thereupon has, according to the doctrines of the Catholic and Greek churches, sacramental efficacy. But the holy Scripture does not contain an express decision on this point, and the custom of confession before taking the Lord's supper was not established in the oldest Christian congre-

gations. Whoever was guilty of great sins, made a public acknowledgment of them, and a profession of repentance before the assembled congregation. This was usually committed to writing, and read by the penitents. Pope Leo the Great, in 450, altered this public confession into a secret one before the priest. The fourth Lateran council (can. 21) ordains, "that every one of the faithful, of both sexes, on coming to years of discretion, shall, in private, faithfully confess all their sins, at least once a year, to their own pastor, and fulfil, to the best of their power, the penance enjoined them, receiving, reverently, at least at Easter, the sacrament of the eucharist, unless, by the advice of their pastor, for some reasonable cause, they judge it proper to abstain from it for a time; otherwise, they are to be excluded from the church while living, and, when they die, to be deprived of Christian burial." While the Catholic church thus requires from the penitent the avowal of his single crimes, the Lutheran church requires only a general acknowledgment, leaving it, however, at the option of its members, to reveal their particular sins to the confessor, and to relieve the guilty conscience by such an avowal; for which reason, the Protestant priests are bound, as well as the Catholic, to keep under the seal of secrecy whatever has been intrusted to them in the confessional. (q. v.) The confession, in the Lutheran church, is sometimes special, when the penitents separately acknowledge their sins; sometimes general, when it is done by many, who are assembled for the purpose, and confess according to a certain formula. Where the priest is well acquainted with the different members of his congregation, the special confession seems to be most suitable, because it gives the confessor an opportunity of adapting his reproofs, exhortations and consolations to the wants of each individual, and thus of producing a stronger impression. The opportunity which the confession gives the priest of directing self-examination, of rousing, warning, exhorting and consoling the penitent, becomes a means of adding to the effect of the public religious services. But, at the same time, it affords a dangerous opportunity to the priest of abusing the confidence reposed in him, of which the history both of nations and individuals exhibits fearful examples. The practice of confession is grounded on the imperfection of human virtue. The Lutherans therefore retained this custom, although they knew that it was not ordained by Christ, but was only a part of the ancient church discipline: they did not, however, maintain its absolute necessity. (See *Penitence.*) The title of *confessors* was anciently given to those who had endured torments in defence of the Christian religion. It was often used for *martyrs,* but was subsequently confined to those who, having been tortured, were set free. Saints are also called *confessors.* So are the priests, in the Roman Catholic church, who absolve sinners. (For an account of the intrigues of confessors in political affairs, see Grégoire, *Histoire des Confesseurs des Empereurs, des Rois,* &c.; Paris, 1824.)

Confession of Augsburg. (See *Augsburg Confession.*)

Confessional (from *confessionis,* Lat.), in architecture; a cell in a Catholic church, wherein the confessor sits to hear confessions. The confessional, of which there are many in every Roman Catholic church and chapel, is a species of cell, built of joinery, with a boarded back next the wall, or against a pillar or a pier, divided into three niches or small cells. The centre, which is for the reception of the priest, is closed half way up by a dwarf-door, and has a seat within it. There is a small grated aperture in each of the partitions between him and the side-cells, which are for those who come to confess, and have no doors. The sight of the numerous confessionals in St. Peter's church at Rome, each with an inscription, setting forth in what language penitents can confess within, is very impressive.

Confessions. (See *Augustine, St.,* and *Rousseau.*)

Confirmation; a ceremony intended for the completion of baptism, and considered by some churches as a sacrament. The council of Trent settled several points concerning it (sess. vii, *De Sacram.*). It is administered by bishops. The ceremony consists in the imposition of hands on the head of the person to be confirmed, accompanied with the holy unction. No other priest can confirm. The meaning of this sacrament may be best learned from the Acts of the Apostles, (viii, 14—21; xix, 1—6). Paul (in Heb. vi, 1—5) speaks of the imposition of hands as a custom to be perpetually observed among Christians. Confirmation, however, is considered by the Catholics a useful but not a necessary sacrament. Baptism can be administered even by a heretic, but not confirmation. In the Greek church, and other Oriental sects, the sacrament of confirmation follows immediately after baptism, and is administered as in the Roman church.

The Protestant Episcopal church, the Lutherans and Calvinists of Europe, have retained the practice of confirmation. It is, with individuals of these sects, an assumption of the obligations which others undertook for them at their baptism. In Germany, confirmation among Protestants is one of the most solemn acts, and takes place only after a certain course of instruction in the Christian faith. The Lord's supper is not taken by these three sects, until after confirmation.

Confucius (also Kon-Fu-Tse, and Kung-Fu-Dsu), a teacher of religion and morals, who, like Moses and Zoroaster, exercised an extensive influence on his own and succeeding times, and now, after thousands of years, is still venerated by his countrymen, and respected by other nations, lived about 550 years B. C. He was of royal descent, and held the rank of a mandarin at court, in his native land, in the kingdom of Lu (at present *Shang-Tong*, a province of the Chinese empire, which was not till a later period formed into a single monarchy); but, as the king would not follow his advice, he resigned his dignity, went to the kingdom of Sum, and became a teacher of morals. He led a quiet and temperate life, and was distinguished for his wisdom. He neither attempted to overthrow existing establishments, nor to gain dominion by deceit over the minds of men; but only to disseminate precepts of virtue and wisdom. He taught in the cities and at royal courts. Many hearers assembled about him, and he became the founder of a numerous sect, which still exists in China, and has extended to Cochin-China. His religious opinions are very uncertain: it does not appear that he changed or purified the prevailing faith. It may be inferred, however, with great probability, that he taught the immortality of the soul, and favored and propagated the existing belief in fate and soothsaying, and in the worship of certain good spirits, who watch over the elements and the various parts of the earth. It is certain that he inculcated it as a duty on his disciples to revere their ancestors. We are better acquainted with that part of his doctrines which relates to common life, and contains general precepts of practical utility. In the most impressive manner, he enjoined universal benevolence, justice, virtue and honesty, and the observance of all usages and customs which had been once introduced; it being proper that they who live together should live in the same manner, and sympathize in each other's pains and pleasures. Sometimes he inculcates reverence of old age; sometimes he shows how the tendencies of children should be guided, and their rising passions corrected. Sometimes he speaks of the peaceful virtues of domestic life, and sometimes he exhorts monarchs to exercise justice and humanity. He praises the delights of friendship, and teaches the forgiveness of offences. As a lawgiver, he deserves less honor. It cannot be denied that he extended the limits of paternal authority too far; for he allowed parents even the right to sell their children. It was a sophism unworthy of his wisdom, to say, as children can sell themselves, no one should hesitate to give this right to the authors of their existence. Confucius erred especially in viewing legislation as nothing but a branch of morals, and was satisfied, therefore, with giving general precepts on this subject. Moreover, esteem for the early lawgivers of his people hindered him from making careful investigations for himself: he acquiesced rather in the decisions of those celebrated men of whom he called himself the disciple. His conduct is worthy of praise, inasmuch as he encouraged marriage, and recommended agriculture: trade he did not positively denounce, but he was less favorable to it. Of the works ascribed to him, the *Shu-King*, or *Shan-Shu*, is the most important; but it is doubtful whether all parts of it were written by him. In comparing Confucius, Mohammed and Zoroaster, Mohammed bears away the palm as the founder of a religion, Zoroaster as a lawgiver, and Confucius as a moralist. (See the *Works of Confucius*, original text, with an English translation, by J. Marshman, Serampore, 1809, 4to.) The first volume contains the Life of Confucius. Doctor Wilh. Schott has likewise translated the Works of the Chinese Sage and his Disciples, for the first time, from the original into German, with notes (1st vol., Halle, 1826).—Of the successors of Confucius, Meng-Tseu (Mencius) is to be chiefly noticed, who lived about 10 years after Socrates, and died B. C. 314, aged 84. He arranged the books of the *She-King* and *Shu-King*, and wrote a collection of conversations on moral philosophy. He resembled Socrates, in founding and building up a pure system of moral philosophy. In 1824, Stanislaus Julien published in Paris, in the Latin language, the system of Meng-Tseu, with a commentary, translated from the Chinese.

Congestion (from the Latin *congestio*, the act of heaping; carrying together),

The different parts of the human body do not always receive the same quantity of blood, but sometimes more, sometimes less. Thus, for instance, during digestion, it flows towards the stomach and the liver; during violent or long-continued speaking, singing or running, it collects in the lungs and the heart; during close thinking, in the brain. In general, the blood flows in greater quantities into any part in proportion to the action of that part; but, in a state of health, it flows off with as much rapidity as it collects. Sometimes, however, too much blood accumulates in an organ, and remains too long in it; and this injures the structure and the function of such an organ. This accumulation of blood arises from a diseased state of the system, and is called *congestion*. Congestion may be caused by whatever, in general, accelerates the circulation of the blood, and causes it to tend to a particular part; thus, for instance, among the causes of congestion are the different periods of developement of the human body, each of which renders some particular organ unusually active; the crisis of disease; and, lastly, the accidental exertions of certain organs. Under such circumstances, congestion is caused by an excited state of the arteries in general, and of some particular ones especially. Secondly, if the current of blood to one organ is checked, it accumulates in another. Hence colds caught through exposure of the feet, also the suppression of the secretions, &c., so often cause congestion. Thirdly, the vessels which bring back the blood—the veins—are sometimes in a condition unfit to answer their destination; as, for instance, if they are already too full, if their power to receive the blood and to propel it is lost or diminished, or if they are prevented from performing their function by external pressure, or by tumors. Hence congestions are divided into active and passive; those of the arteries, and those of the veins. Where the blood accumulates, the part becomes red and hot, the pulse beats more violently, and the veins expand; the part swells, and a feeling of sickness, pain, pressure, &c., comes on. The functions of the part change; if the congestion is slight, they become more active. In higher degrees of congestion, and if it is continued for a long time, the functions are checked, weakened, and sometimes entirely destroyed. Now, as every organ has its peculiar function, it follows, that the symptoms of congestion, resting on these grounds, must be very different, according to the different organs in which it takes place. During the congestion of blood in one organ, the other organs exhibit symptoms of want of blood, viz., coldness, paleness, diminution of size, and weakness. Congestion generally lasts but a short time; but, if not early cured, and its return, which would otherwise be frequent, prevented, it is only the beginning of other diseases. Sometimes it terminates in bleeding, which is a remedy for it; sometimes it increases into inflammation; sometimes it becomes a chronic disease; that is, the blood accumulates for a long time, and expands the veins; the expansion becomes permanent, and the original excitement is succeeded by a state of torpidity and weakness, which is called *stagnatio*, or *infarctus*.

Conglomerate. (See *Sandstone*.)

Congo; a kingdom in Lower Guinea, under the sovereignty of the Portuguese; between lat. 2° 40′ and 8° 25′ S., and between lon. 12° 30′ and 19° 30′ E.; bounded on the N. by Anziko, W. by the Atlantic, S. by Angola, and E. by a country very little known, and inhabited by savages. The river Zaire (q. v.) forms the boundary of Congo in some parts, and empties into the Atlantic. From the mountains east of Congo a large number of rivers descend, which do not dry up in the hot season. In those mountains (lat. 7° 30′ S.) lies the lake Achelunda. The coast is unhealthy, on account of its low grounds and forests: the interior, however, has a temperate climate, and, according to the missionaries, is populous, well cultivated, and considered by the inhabitants as a terrestrial paradise. There are two seasons, the dry and the rainy; the latter, beginning in October and ending in April, is accompanied by rains, thunder and tempests. All travellers agree in describing the soil as covered with an exuberant vegetation. Several kinds of grain, unknown to Europe, are cultivated near the rivers; among them is the *luco* or *luno*, which furnishes a fine white bread. The soil produces three crops of maize annually. Among the trees, the *baobab* is mentioned: it is of enormous size, and its fruit is eaten by the natives. The soil produces an immense variety of plants. Iron and copper, porphyry, jasper, marble, salt, crystal, gold and silver are found in the mountains. Congo, like the rest of Guinea, abounds in wild animals: the elephant, leopard, lion, boar, porcupine, jackal, zebra, different kinds of antelopes, and a great variety of apes, are the principal. The rivers contain crocodiles, hippopotami and turtles. The coast swarms with fish.

The reptiles are numerous, and many of them venomous: among them are the gigantic boa, the chameleon and the flying lizard or palm rat, which is worshipped by the natives. Ostriches, peacocks, parrots, &c., inhabit the deserts and forests. A great number of noxious insects live likewise in this rich country, e. g., mosquitoes, the banzo (of which the sting is said to be mortal), formidable ants, the insoudi (which enter the trunks of elephants, and cause them to die with madness), &c. Bees are numerous. Almost all domestic animals, introduced by the Portuguese, thrive pretty well. Though this country abounds in all the productions of the tropics, there appears to be no commerce carried on, except that in slaves, of whom, vast numbers are annually carried to Brazil. The population is uncertain, because the missionaries seem to have exaggerated it, and other travellers have only visited a small part of the country. The natives of Congo are of a middle size; their color and features are less strongly marked than those of the other Negroes. They kill a number of slaves over the grave of their sovereigns, who are intended to serve him in heaven, and to give testimony of his life. They seem less intelligent than the other Negro tribes. This circumstance, together with their great indolence, is a great obstacle to their civilization. Polygamy exists among them, and, though adultery is rigorously punished, they will often sell their wives for a glass of brandy to a European. They worship fetiches, with which they cover themselves, and adore images, in which a similarity with the Egyptian physiognomy is said to have been discovered. Murder is punished by death; almost all other crimes by slavery. The kingdom is divided into several provinces, of which there seem to be six principal ones—Bamba, Batta, Pango, S. Salvador, Sandi and Sonho. Chiefs, who have the titles of *dukes*, *counts* and *marquises*, rule under the Portuguese. In each province is a capital or *banza*. Banza Congo, which, by the Portuguese, is called *S. Salvador*, is the capital of the whole kingdom. Congo was discovered by the Portuguese, in 1487, under the command of Diego Cam, who ascended the river Zaire. Soon after, the Portuguese sent troops there, and obtained possession of the country, partly by force, and partly by cunning. Their missionaries met with much success, and there are still many Catholics in the country, but many have returned to idolatry, which is more conformable to their savage state. The government is despotic. This kingdom has been important to the Portuguese, on account of the slaves which it afforded. Among slave-dealers, the Congo men are generally not considered so strong and powerful as slaves from some other parts of Africa.

Congo-Batta; a city of Congo (q. v.), 30 leagues N. E. of S. Salvador. It is celebrated for its slave-market.

Congregations, in the papal government; meetings or committees, consisting of cardinals, and officers of the pope, to administer the various departments, secular and spiritual, of the papal dominion. To these belong the inquisition (congregation of the holy office), the congregation for the explanation and execution of the decrees of the council of Trent (*del concilio*), the congregation *de propaganda fide*. (See *Propaganda*.) Thus there is also a military congregation, the president of which is likewise a prelate.—*Congregation* also signifies a society of several convents of the same rule, which, together, form an organized corporation, hold chapters, and elect superiors. The province of an ecclesiastical order is also called a *congregation*.—*Congregation* is likewise used to signify an assembly met for the worship of God, and for religious instruction.

Congregational Churches; such as maintain the independence of each congregation or society of Christians, as to the right of electing a pastor, and of governing the church.

Congregationalist; a member of a Congregational church. (*See the preceding article.*)

Congress, in international politics; a meeting of the rulers or representatives of several states, with a view of adjusting disputes between different governments. The history of Europe may, in a certain respect, be divided into three periods. In the first, it was split up into a great number of small divisions, which were in a state of perpetual contest. In the second, these were consolidated into larger masses, which continued the former conflicts on a larger scale. The third period is the present, in which nations have begun to understand their interest more clearly, and seem to hold the difference of language and the natural divisions of mountains and rivers trifles, in comparison with the great interests of liberty and humanity. Europe is now divided into two great parties, who carry on a war of principles: the one may be called the party of legitimacy, feudalism, despotism, &c.; the other that of liberty and equal laws. Thus the

opposing masses in Europe have become continually fewer and more comprehensive, and the nature of the contest more intellectual. Mr. Canning's remarks on this point, in his speech on the occasion of sending troops to Lisbon to assist the liberal party, do him honor. Congresses began in the second period, and they bear the character of the times in which they have been held. Of late years, they have become much increased in dignity and importance, having been employed, since the commencement of the third period, which we may date from the congress at Vienna or the congress at Aix-la-Chapelle (q. v.), to adjust political interests on a much larger scale than they were originally. (*See the last paragraph of this article.*)

A congress is a simple means of determining, in a diplomatic way, the conflicting claims of belligerent powers, or of states whose interests interfere with each other, and thus of preparing or concluding peace, or preventing a rupture, and of mediating between the different interests of different nations. At the same time, it is very common for a congress to assume illegal power in respect to particular governments or nations, because a congress affords governments of the same way of thinking so much opportunity of concentrating their forces. The plenipotentiaries of the dissentient, or of the mediating powers, assemble at an appointed place, commonly on neutral ground, and, partly by notes, partly by verbal communication, carry on their negotiations. It is necessary to distinguish the preliminary congress, in which the preliminaries are settled (such as the consent and the representation of the different powers, the place and time of the meeting, the extent of the neutral ground, the security of ambassadors and public messengers, the ceremonial, and the method of transacting business), from the principal congress, which is to bring the affair in question to a decision. These preliminaries are commonly settled in the diplomatic way, by the mediating powers, and then the principal congress assembles. The plenipotentiaries, when they meet, after mutual greetings, appoint, in a preliminary conference, the day on which the congress is to be opened, and determine the manner in which business is to be transacted, the forms of negotiation, the order of precedence among the different powers (in Europe, the alphabetical order has been followed since 1815; see *Ceremonial*), and the time of session. The congress opens by the exchange and perusal of credentials among the plenipotentiaries, which, in case the negotiating parties have referred to the arbitration of a mediator, are given to him. The envoys of the contending powers then carry on their negotiations directly with each other, or by the intervention of a mediator, either in a common hall, or in their own residences by turns, or, if there is a mediator, in his residence. These negotiations are continued either by writing or by verbal communication, until the commissioners can agree upon a treaty, or until one of the powers dissolves the congress by recalling its minister.—The history of the congresses is a history of European politics. It appears that Henry IV and Sully, having conceived the project of forming a union of the European states, the members of which, being equal in power, were to decide their quarrels by appeal to a senate, first thought this manner of negotiating advisable. Before the thirty years' war, no formal congresses had been held in Europe. Those at Roschild in 1568, at Stettin in 1570, and that convoked at the request of the czar John IV, by the pope, at Kiwerova-Horka, in 1581, and succeeding years; that at Stolbova in 1617, at Viasma in 1634, at Stumdorf in 1635, and at Brömsebro in 1645, which were terminated by the treaties of peace, named from the places at which they were held, regarded merely the political relations of the northern states. The history of the European congresses for peace begins, therefore, with those at Münster and Osnabrück. The history of congresses may be conveniently divided into three periods: 1. from the foundation of the new European system by the double congress, which was followed by the peace of Westphalia, until the peace of Utrecht (from 1648 to 1713); 2. from the establishment of the influence of the naval and colonial power of the British by the peace of Utrecht, to the congress of Vienna (from 1713 to 1815); 3. from the (so called) restoration of the *balance of power* in Europe, and the establishing of the principles of legitimacy, and stability of the existing governments, by the congress of Vienna and the holy alliance, to the present day. In every congress since 1648, some of the most powerful governments have taken the lead of the rest, and have determined, in a certain measure, the course of negotiation, by laying down general principles. Bignon has weighed against each other the interests of the people and of the cabinets, in his work *Les Cabinets et les Peuples depuis* 1815, *jusqu' à la Fin de* 1822. We

will now speak of the more important congresses, according to the order of the three epochs which we have laid down.

A. From 1648 to 1713. 1. The congress at Münster and Osnabrück. It is remarkable that the pope (during the thirty years' war the only sovereign, among the princes of Europe, except the king of Spain, who refused to acknowledge the peace of Westphalia) made the first propositions of peace, in 1636, at Cologne, by his nuncio Ginetti. The emperor and Spain did indeed send ambassadors to Cologne, who were prepared to negotiate with France and Sweden, under the mediation of the pope; but, on account of this very mediation, France refused to send commissioners to this congress, but, on the contrary, joined with Sweden in a common negotiation for peace, at Hamburg. The emperor, finally, in a preliminary treaty at Hamburg, in 1641, resolved to negotiate with both powers at Münster and Osnabrück. On account of the dispute between France and Sweden on the subject of rank, and to avoid collision between the Protestant envoys and the nuncio, those two cities were chosen, which France had offered, being only six leagues distant from each other, and it was decided that the two meetings should form but one congress. This great European council of peace was first opened in December, 1644. At Münster, every thing was carried on by the mediators, the nuncio of the pope, and the envoy of the republic of Venice; at Osnabrück, the negotiations were direct, and the Latin language was used. (See *Westphalia, Peace of.*) 2. The congress of the Pyrenees. France and Spain continued, until 1659, the war which the peace of Westphalia had ended in Germany. After a preliminary treaty concluded at Paris, May 7, the isle of Pheasants, in the Bidassoa, on the frontiers of the two states, was chosen for a place of meeting; and cardinal Mazarin and the Spanish minister, don Luis de Haro, from Aug. 13 to Nov. 25, 1659, had 25 conferences under a tent, in which the former used the Italian and the latter the Spanish language. The peace of the Pyrenees, concluded Nov. 7, secured to France her political superiority; Spain ratified the peace of Münster, and yielded Roussillon, Conflans, and some places in the Netherlands, to France, which restored the banished prince of Condé to his honors and estates. Lorraine was also restored to her duke. 3. The congress at Breda, by the mediation of Sweden, ended the war between Great Britain on the one side, and the Netherlands, France and Denmark on the other, by the peace of Breda, July 31, 1667, which principally related to their colonies in the West Indies, and the toll upon the Sound. 4. The congress at Aix-la-Chapelle, under the mediation of the pope, ended the war between France and Spain (occasioned by the claim of Louis XIV to a part of the Spanish Netherlands), by the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, May 2, 1668, according to the terms of which France retained the places which it had conquered in the Spanish Netherlands, but restored Franche-Comté to Spain. 5. In the war between Louis XIV and the Netherlands, from 1672 to 1678, a congress was first opened at Cologne, in 1673, but was dissolved in the following year, because the imperial ambassador had arbitrarily seized the elector of Cologne, and sent him from that city to Vienna. The British ambassadors (among whom was the famous sir William Temple) and the papal envoy then carried on, as mediators, the negotiations for peace between France, Spain, the Netherlands, the German emperor, Sweden, Denmark, Brandenburg, and some small states, at the congress of Nimeguen, from 1676 to the conclusion of the peace of Nimeguen, in 1678, which consisted of several separate treaties of peace; between France and the Netherlands; between France and Spain; between France, Sweden and the German empire, in 1679, of which the peace with Brandenburg, at St. Germain-en-Laye, and that with Denmark at Fontainebleau and Lund, together with that at Nimeguen, between Sweden and Holland, were the immediate consequences. Thus French diplomacy, by dividing the allies, obtained the victory at this congress, and secured, for a long time, the political superiority of Louis XIV. 6. The taking of Strasburg, which happened during the peace in 1681, and the re-union system of Louis, caused the great alliance of the Hague (of which William III was the soul) against the pretensions and usurpations of France. Sweden and Holland first united; then the emperor, Spain, and some German circles joined the league, to support the peace of Westphalia and of Nimeguen; and as the emperor was already engaged in a war against the Turks, recourse was had to negotiation rather than to arms. This was the object of the famous congress of Frankfort, in 1681, which was broken off by the French, in December, 1682, but was afterwards continued at Ratisbon, and ended by a truce of 20 years with France, in 1684. But in

vain did the European powers seek, by alliances with each other, and particularly by the great league of Augsburg (association), in 1686, effected by the stadtholder of Holland, William III, to put limits to the ambition of Louis, for, in September, 1688, the French armies invaded the countries on the Rhine. This, and the expulsion of the house of Stuart from the throne of England by William III, in November, 1688, was the cause of a war of nine years. 7. Designs on the Spanish succession induced Louis, though victorious, to attempt to divide the allies by separate treaties, and, not succeeding in this, he sought the mediation of Sweden; by means of which a congress was convened at Ryswick, a castle near the Hague, in May, 1697. The negotiations were carried on (round a circular table, in the hall of conference, which prevented all disputes about precedency) on the principles of the peace of Westphalia and that of Nimeguen. But the French, by separate treaties with the allies, obtained the direction of the negotiation, and their skilful diplomacy obliged the German empire to accept the conditions determined upon by France with Spain, Great Britain, and the Netherlands. The peace of Ryswick was signed by the naval powers Sept. 20, and by the emperor Oct. 30, 1697. To this period belong certain other congresses, in which the political relations of the northern powers towards Poland and the Porte were settled. 8. The most famous is that which took place at Oliva, a monastery near Dantzic, in May, 1660, where France mediated a peace between Sweden and Poland, and to which the German emperor, the elector of Brandenburg, the duke of Courland, and other inferior princes, sent ministers. The plenipotentiaries of the Dutch republic, of Denmark and of Spain were not admitted. The peace of Oliva, May 3, 1660, confirmed the political superiority of Sweden in the North, secured to it the possession of Livonia, and established the sovereignty of Prussia. At the same time, England, Holland and France mediated the peace of Copenhagen, concluded May 27, 1660, between Sweden and Denmark. The negotiations at Oliva were finally completed by the peace between Sweden and Russia, at Cardis, July 1, 1661. 9. Particular congresses were convened to settle certain disputes between Poland and Russia; at Radzyn in 1670, at Moscow in 1678, at Radzyn and Andrussov in 1684, which resulted in the definitive peace at Moscow, in 1686, by which the power of Poland, which the treaty of Oliva had already shaken, received a second blow. The boundaries between Russia and Poland remained, until 1772, such as they had been fixed by this peace. 10. The congress at Altona, in 1687, where the German emperor and the electors of Saxony and Brandenburg mediated in the disputes between Denmark and the house of Holstein-Gottorp, terminated, after Great Britain and the states-general had also been called in as mediators, in the peace of Altona, in 1689, by which the duke of Holstein regained his territories with full sovereignty. 11. To this period belong, also, the conferences at Carlowitz in 1698, where a Turkish sultan first learnt to employ the forms of European diplomacy, accepting the mediation of Great Britain and Holland. In this congress, his first dragoman, Mavrocordato, exhibited a specimen of the diplomatic talents of the Greek nation, settling all questions of rank by a round table. In 1699, he concluded with the German emperor, Poland, Venice and Russia, at Carlowitz, the treaties of peace, or truces, by which bounds were first set to the power of the Porte. Venice was obliged to give up Candia and the islands of the Archipelago. It retained, however, the Morea, the Ionian islands, and some places in Albania.

B. From 1713 to 1814. 1. The war of the Spanish succession was ended by the congress at Utrecht, to which France, England, the states-general, Savoy, the emperor, Portugal, Prussia, the pope, Venice, Genoa, the electorates of Mentz, Cologne, Treves, the Palatinate, Saxony, and Bavaria, together with Hanover and Lorraine, sent their plenipotentiaries in January, 1712, after France and Great Britain, in the preliminaries settled Oct. 8, 1711, had drawn the outlines of the peace, and had thus already decided, to a certain degree, the new relations which were to exist between the states. At Utrecht, also, French diplomacy succeeded in breaking the union of the powers interested, by a regulation that each of the allies should give in his demands separately. The dissensions between them increased when they saw that the negotiations of Great Britain were, for the most part, carried on in secret, and immediately with the court of Versailles. The result was eight separate treaties of peace, which France, Spain, England, Holland, Savoy and Portugal made with each other, between 1713 and 1715, leaving Austria and the empire to themselves. (See *Utrecht, Peace of.*) Since that time, the British, from their naval and commer-

cial power, have taken the lead among the principal states, and the interest of England has determined the fate of the European system of a *balance of power*, as it is called. 2. The congress at Baden, in June, 1714, was a mere act of form to change the peace concluded at Rastadt by Eugene and Villars, in the name of the emperor and of France, and which rested upon the peace of Utrecht, into a peace of the empire (drawn up in Latin). 3. The congress at Antwerp was also a consequence of the peace of Utrecht. England there mediated between the emperor of Germany and the states-general, and concluded the barrier treaty of Nov. 15, 1715. 4. The congress at Cambray, in 1722, was held to settle the disputes between the emperor, Spain, Savoy and Parma, with regard to the execution of the peace of Utrecht and the conditions of the quadruple alliance, England and France being mediators. But Philip V of Spain, offended by the rejection of his daughter, who had been betrothed to Louis XV (in April, 1725), recalled his minister from Cambray, and concluded a peace with Austria at Vienna, April 20, 1725, in which he became guarantee for the pragmatic sanction. The defensive alliance, soon after concluded between Austria and Spain, was followed by a counter-alliance between England, France, the United Provinces, Denmark, Sweden, Hesse-Cassel and Wolfenbüttel, formed at Herrnhausen. On the other hand, Russia, Prussia, and some German states, joined the alliance of Vienna. A general war appeared to be approaching, when Austria, by the temporary suspension of the company of Ostend, and Spain, by the treaty with England at the Pardo, opened the way for a reconciliation. 5. The congress at Soissons, in June, 1728, was convened to effect a similar settlement between Austria, France, England and Spain; but the French minister, cardinal Fleury, succeeded in dividing Spain and Austria, and France, Spain and England formed a treaty of amity and mutual defence, at Seville, in 1729 (to which Holland acceded), in order to give law to Austria. The congress at Soissons was thus dissolved, and injured Austria took up arms. But the guarantee of the pragmatic sanction, which England and Holland undertook, induced the emperor Charles VI, in 1731, to accept the conditions of the treaty of Seville. 6. The congress at Aix-la-Chapelle, in April, 1748, in which France, Austria, England, Spain, Sardinia, Holland, Modena and Genoa took part, terminated the war of the Austrian succession by the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, Oct. 18, 1748. 7. The seven years' war between England and France was ended without a congress; but Austria, Saxony and Prussia concluded a peace at the congress of Hubertsburg, Feb. 15, 1763, the session having lasted from Dec. 1762. 8. The congress at Teschen, in March, 1779, decided the dispute with regard to the Bavarian succession, by the mediation of France and Russia between the contending powers, Austria and Prussia. The elector palatine, the elector of Saxony, and the duke of Deux-Ponts, sent their ministers, but not the elector of Bavaria, whose hereditary succession was the subject of negotiation. (See *Teschen, Peace of.*) 9. Russia and Austria offered their mediation to France and England in the war of the American revolution. Vienna was proposed for the place of meeting; but France refused the mediation; and when the Russian and Austrian ministers wished to take part, as mediators, in the congress opened at Paris, in October, 1782, by the ministers of France, Spain, England, Holland and the U. States, the preliminaries of peace were settled without their knowledge, Nov. 30, 1782, and Jan. 20, 1783, also the definitive treaty of Versailles and of Paris, Sept. 3, 1783, and that with Holland, May 20, 1784. 10. The disputes of Joseph II with the republic of Holland, relating to the opening of the Scheldt, and other subjects, in 1784, induced France to offer its mediation; and a congress was opened at Versailles, Dec. 8 of the same year, by the French minister count Vergennes, and the imperial and Dutch ministers. It ended with the treaty of Fontainebleau, Nov. 8, 1785, by which the barrier treaty of 1715, and the treaty of Vienna, in 1731, were annulled, the boundaries of Flanders restored as they were in 1664, several strips of land yielded up to the emperor, and, as a compensation for his claims, a sum of 10,000,000 florins, of which France contributed 4,500,000, to prevent the congress from being dissolved. On the other hand, the Scheldt remained closed, and the emperor gave up the rest of his claims. 11. When Leopold II was on the point of suppressing, by force of arms, the insurrection of the Netherlands, in consequence of the convention of Reichenbach, a congress was opened, in September, 1790, at the Hague, by the ambassadors of Austria, Prussia, Holland and England, to which the deputies of the Belgian provinces were also admitted. These powers concluded, Dec. 1 of this

year, the convention of the Hague, by which, however, the emperor was willing only to confirm to the Belgic provinces the old constitution, as it was at the time of the death of Maria Theresa. New disputes and commotions thence arose. Finally, Francis II, in March, 1793, restored the old constitution, as it had been under Charles VI, and swore, at Brussels, in April, 1794, to the *joyeuse entrée;* but it was too late, for Belgia was soon after conquered by the French. 12. In the history of the wars of the French revolution, the fruitless congress at Rastadt deserves mention. It was opened by the deputation of the empire, under the presidency of the directorial subdelegates of Mentz, baron Von Albini, in presence of the imperial plenipotentiary count Metternich, Dec. 9, 1797, and dissolved by him, April 7, 1799, by an imperial decree. The ancient dignity of the German empire was manifested on this occasion merely by a vain formality, with which the insulting haughtiness of the French ministers formed a striking contrast. The deputation gave their notes in German, the French ambassadors in French. With regard to the object of the meeting, the deputation resembled a person blindfolded, and crippled, hand and foot; for the secret articles of the peace of Campo-Formio, and the conditions of the secret convention of Rastadt, Dec. 1, 1797, remained unknown to it. Thence arose disputes and mistrust, especially between Austria and Prussia; and while the deputation was groping in the dark, it stumbled over every obstacle, and laid itself open continually to its adversaries, so that the subdelegate of Baden, among other reasons by which he attempted to exculpate himself for having given up the whole left bank of the Rhine, mentioned the anger of the French ministers when they heard that only a part of it was to be given to them. The French diplomatists at Rastadt neglected the ancient forms of courtesy; the German frequently acted with pusillanimity and timidity. The whole terminated by a bloody crime, April 28, 1799, probably occasioned by the arbitrary measures of a man of a violent character, who wished for personal vengeance, and the blind rage of the subordinate officer whom he had charged to execute it. (See *Rastadt.*) The conditions of the cession of the left bank of the Rhine, and the compensation made to the princes who were thus injured, by secularizing the ecclesiastical possessions, having been already accepted by the deputation at Rastadt, were, without a convocation of the empire, afterwards presented as articles of peace, in the peace of Luneville in 1801. 13. The congress at Amiens, where Joseph Bonaparte and the marquis of Cornwallis negotiated for a definitive peace between France and England, from December, 1801, to March 27, 1802, Malta being the most difficult matter of dispute, and the Spanish and Dutch ministers taking part in the negotiations only where the interests of their respective powers came in question, was terminated by the treaty of Amiens, concluded by the four plenipotentiaries, March 27, 1802, to which the Porte acceded, May 13, 1802, but which was dissolved by a declaration of war, on the part of England, March 18, 1803. 14. Napoleon commonly negotiated his treaties with arms in his hands; he therefore needed no mediator. But when he was preparing to conquer Spain, and wished to secure his rear towards Germany and Poland, and therefore to form a closer alliance with Russia, and make again an attempt to induce England to join in the general peace, the first European congress of monarchs was called together at Erfurt, in October, 1808. Napoleon arrived there September 27, and, a few hours afterwards, the emperor Alexander. They found there, already assembled, the kings of Saxony, Bavaria and Würtemberg, Jerome, then king of Westphalia, the grand-duke Constantine, prince William of Prussia, the dukes of Saxe-Weimar, Saxe-Gotha and Holstein-Oldenburg, with several other princes, together with the ministers of state of these courts, and the ministers from Prussia, Denmark, Würtzburg, the prince primate, Baden, and several others. The baron Von Vincent appeared in the name of the emperor of Austria, with a letter, in which he declared his friendly dispositions towards France. The negotiations related to a diminution of the contributions imposed by France on Prussia, and the admission of the duke of Oldenburg into the confederation of the Rhine; but the principal subject of discussion was the peace with England, the relations between France and Austria, and the affairs of Turkey. The British government, by a circular letter of Oct. 12, declared its readiness to take into consideration the offers of peace made by the emperors of France and Austria, if Sweden and Spain were represented in the congress by their plenipotentiaries; but, as Napoleon would not grant this right to the Spanish nation, the negotiations were broken off in December.

The assembly at Erfurt immediately separated, Oct. 14, after Napoleon thought he had secured peace with Austria, and had had several private interviews with the emperor Alexander, the purport of which is not precisely known. (See Schöll's *Traités de Paix*, vol. 9, p. 194. Bignon's *History of French Diplomacy*, recently published, and which has not as yet reached us, probably contains much information on this, as well as many other points.) To this period belong, also, 15thly, the two fruitless congresses at Brunswick, in the course of the northern war. The first was dissolved in February, 1713, and the second in March, 1714. 16. The congress opened by the Holstein minister Görtz, baron Von Schlitz, in the name of Charles XII, with the plenipotentiaries of the czar, upon the island of Aland, in 1718. But the peace there negotiated, upon conditions tolerably favorable to Sweden, was rendered invalid by the death of Charles XII, and the party spirit of the Swedish nobility, to which Görtz fell a victim. The Swedish government broke off the negotiations with Russia upon the island of Aland, and, by the mediation of France, concluded, at the congress of Stockholm, separate treaties of peace with Hanover, Nov. 20, 1719, and, in 1720, with Prussia, Denmark, and, provisionally, with Poland. Finally, Sweden, by the mediation of France, was obliged to conclude peace, Sept. 10, 1721, at Nystadt (where the congress had assembled in May, 1721), upon terms, dictated by the czar, which established the preponderance of Russia in the North. This was followed by the conclusion of the definitive treaty of peace with Saxony and Poland, in 1729 and 1732. 17. The war which broke out in 1741, between Sweden and Russia, was ended by the definitive treaty of peace concluded at Abo, Aug. 17, 1743, at the congress held there by Russian and Swedish ministers, after Sweden had chosen, as the successor to the throne, the bishop of Lübeck, Adolphus Frederic, duke of Holstein-Gottorp, instead of the crown-prince of Denmark. This was followed by the treaty of St. Petersburg, between Russia and Sweden, in 1745. While the mediation of foreign powers was refused by Russia, especially under the reign of Catharine II, in its treaties with Sweden, Poland and the Porte, it was employed in the disputes between Austria and the Porte. 18. The congress of Passarowitz, by the mediation of Great Britain and Holland, put an end to the war which had broken out in 1714 and 1716, between the Porte and Austria and Venice, by the peace of Passarowitz, July 21, 1718, by which the Morea was left in possession of the Porte, as a conquered province, without any mention of it being made in the treaty. 19. The Porte, in a war with Russia, in 1736, desired the mediation of Austria, Holland and Great Britain; but Russia refused the mediation of the naval powers, so that the congress at Niemiroff, in Poland, in June, 1737, consisted only of ministers from the Porte, Russia and Austria. But when Austria declared war against the Porte, France acted as mediator. The negotiations were broken off in October, but they were renewed and carried on, partly in Constantinople, partly in the camp of the grand vizier, by the French ambassador, M. De Villeneuve, who had received secret instructions, on this subject, from the emperor Charles VI, and the empress Anna, of which, however, their ministers, count Von Sinzendorf and count Ostermann, who, on their side, were negotiating for a private peace with the Porte, knew nothing. Finally the Austrian general count Neipperg concluded a preliminary treaty, Sept. 1, 1739, in a very hasty manner, with the guarantee of France, by which Belgrade, though in a good state of defence, was surrendered to the Turks. Villeneuve now concluded with Austria and with Russia, Sept. 18, 1739, the definitive treaty of Belgrade, which was extremely advantageous for the Porte, and signed it as plenipotentiary of the Russian empress, without the knowledge of field-marshal Münich, who had likewise received full power to make peace with the Porte. 20. In the war of Russia with the Porte, from 1768 to 1774, a congress was held by the Russian and Turkish ministers, in August, 1772, at Focsani, in Moldavia, where appeared, also, an Austrian and a Prussian minister; but Catharine would not recognise them as mediators, and they only learnt in secret, from the Turkish ambassador, the course of the negotiations. This congress, however, soon after separated. A second congress, also, assembled in October, 1772, at Bucharest, to which these two ministers were likewise refused admittance, was dissolved, without having effected any thing, in March, 1773, probably through the influence of the French in the divan. Finally, the grand vizier, cut off from Adrianople, saw himself obliged, without further negotiation, to accept peace upon the conditions of the Russian general, count Rumanzoff; and he signed it in the tent of the latter, at Kutschuk Kainardgi,

July 21, 1774. 21. In the war between Russia and Austria and the Porte, in 1787 and the following years, Catharine likewise refused all mediation; but Austria was obliged to accept it, and a congress met in June, 1790, at Reichenbach, where count Herzberg, in the name of Prussia, negotiated with Austria, and in which Poland, Great Britain and the states-general took part. To avoid a war with Prussia, Austria resolved to accept the *ultimatum* of the Prussian cabinet. Thus the convention of Reichenbach was made, July 27, according to which Austria concluded the peace of Sistova with the Porte, August 4, 1791, in which place a congress had assembled in January of the same year, consisting of Austrian and Turkish ministers, together with those of the mediating powers—Great Britain, Prussia and Holland. Negotiations were afterwards carried on at St. Petersburg, by the mediating powers, for a peace between Russia and the Porte. The preliminaries, however, were settled immediately by the grand vizier and prince Repnin, at Galacz, Aug. 11, 1791, and the peace of Jassy was concluded Jan. 9, 1792. 22. In the war of Russia with the Porte, from 1806 to 1812, after Alexander's return from Erfurt, a congress was held at Jassy, in August, 1809, by Russian and Turkish ministers; but the demands of Russia induced the Porte to break off all negotiations. The Porte, at last, however, determined to ask for peace; and a congress assembled at Bucharest, in December, 1811, where, by the mediation of Great Britain and Sweden, although the French emperor, in his treaties with Austria and Prussia, in March, 1812, had stipulated for the integrity of the possessions of the Porte, peace was made, May 28, 1812, at the very moment when the armies of Napoleon were preparing to invade Russia. We ought also to mention in this period the only congress held by a European and an American power—the congress at Ghent. After the war between England and the U. States, commencing in 1812, both powers sent ministers to Ghent. The English commissioners arrived in that city, in August, 1814; the American commissioners were already assembled there. This congress lasted until December, 1814, on the 24th of which month peace was concluded (see *Ghent, Peace of*), after the mediation, proposed by Russia, early in 1813, and accepted by the U. States, who had sent ministers to St. Petersburg for the purpose of treating with Great Britain, had been declined by the cabinet of St. James. (See Lyman's *Diplomacy of the U. States*, 2d ed. vol. ii. p. 50 et seq.)

C. Congresses from the year 1814. Since this year, as we have stated at the beginning of this article, congresses have been held by governments to take measures in opposition to the wishes of the nations, and the demands of the spirit of the age. Never, therefore, have monarchs agreed so well, and acted so much in concert, as in this period, because they have felt it necessary to make common cause against liberty; and never were so many congresses held in the same space of time, because constant instances of insubordination have required continual consultation, and the uneasy state of the monarchs at home has made them fond of assembling in congresses. In this period, a most pernicious and unprecedented principle has been established, that every monarch has a right to interfere in the internal affairs of foreign nations; so that Alexander of Russia treated the concerns of Spain as if they were his own, feeling that every despot was interested in preventing the progress of liberal principles. This principle naturally gave rise to the *droit d'intervention armée.* (See *Intervention, armed.*) This obnoxious principle was promulgated at the congress of Laybach.* During the war of the allies against Napoleon, congresses were held at Prague, in 1813, and at Chatillon (q. v.), in February and March, 1814. In the subsequent peace, it was agreed that a general congress at Vienna should complete the different stipulations then entered into. 1. Congress at Vienna (see *Vienna, Congress at*). 2. Congress at Paris. The principles and stipulations of the congress at Vienna were confirmed in the conferences of the Austrian, British, Prussian and Russian ministers with the French minister, the duke De Richelieu, at Paris, the consequence of which was the conclusion of the treaty of Nov. 20, 1815, after the protocol of Nov. 3,

* The frequency and abuse of congresses have been satirized by the keen and spirited Béranger, in his poem *La Mort du Roi Christophe, ou Note présentée par la Noblesse d'Haïti aux Trois Grands Alliés, Décembre*, 1820, of which we cannot refrain from quoting the first verse:

Christophe est mort, et du royaume
La noblesse a recours à vous.
François, Alexandre, Guillaume,
Prenez aussi pitié de nous.
Ce n'est point pays limitrophe,
Mais le mal fait tant de progrès!
Vite, un congrès!
Deux, trois congrès!
Quatre congrès!
Cinq congrès! dix congrès!
Princes, vengez ce bon Christophe,
Roi digne de tous vos regrets.

issued by the same plenipotentiaries, had settled the territories of several German princes, with reference to the cessions made by France, and to the system of defence of the German confederation, and after the way in which the resolutions of the congress of Vienna were to be ratified, and the accession of other powers to it was to take place, had been agreed upon. Besides this chief treaty, several other measures were determined upon at this congress; for instance, the convention of Aug. 2, 1815, relating to the guard to be kept over Napoleon; the definitive treaty of Nov. 5, 1815, which placed the Ionian islands, as a confederacy, under the exclusive protection of Great Britain; the treaty of neutrality of Switzerland, Nov. 20, 1815, which was also signed by France; the treaty of alliance between the four powers of the same date, by which they pledged themselves to assist each other in maintaining the new political system, for which reason they were to occupy France, for some years, with an army of 150,000 men. After the conclusion of the congress at Paris, 12 more particular treaties between different powers were concluded in 1816, 1817 and 1818, concerning partly the new settlement of the territorial relations, partly the payments which France was obliged to make, the restoration of Parma to the Spanish infanta, duchess of Lucca, and the abolition of the slave-trade. 3. For the completion of the work of the monarchs, it was still necessary to provide for a full reconciliation with France, by the withdrawal of the army, composed of English, Austrian, Russian, Prussian, and other German troops. It was determined upon at the congress of Aix-la-Chapelle (q. v.), in October and November, 1818, chiefly by the mediation of Wellington, after France had completed the payment of certain sums, to which she had obliged herself. The most important consequence of this congress was the accession of the French sovereign to the alliance of the four great powers. The five powers then published, at Aix-la-Chapelle, the famous declaration of Nov. 15, 1820, which, in the spirit of the holy alliance (q. v.), pronounced the principles that were to regulate, in future, the politics of Europe, the aim of which was to be a lasting peace. The work of Stourdza (a Russian civil officer; see *Stourdza*), *Mémoire sur l'État actuel de l'Allemagne*, published during the congress of Aix-la-Chapelle, excited the suspicions of the monarchs against the liberal spirit in Germany, which they had themselves inflamed by different kinds of promises and excitements of the national feeling, when they wished to avail themselves of its aid for the purpose of subduing Napoleon, but which they now dreaded in the same degree, as they were unwilling to fulfil their promises, and the just demands of the nations and the age. Unfortunately, the rash acts of two German youths (one of them, the celebrated Sand, killed Kotzebue; the other, Löhning, attempted to kill a president of the government of Nassau) afforded the German governments the occasion which they desired for the enforcement of illiberal measures. These were determined upon at the congress of Carlsbad (q. v.), which was assembled, partly for this purpose, partly for supplying some deficiences in the acts of the congress of Vienna, relative to the internal organization of Germany. 5. Soon after this congress, another, composed of ministers, assembled at Vienna, Nov. 25, 1819, where Metternich presided. The doings of this congress had reference entirely to the organization of the German confederation, and the suppression of the liberal spirit in Germany. Their final act was signed May 15, 1820. The three following congresses, at Troppau, Laybach and Verona, concerned the affairs of Europe in general. 6. The congress at Troppau (q. v.) lasted from October to December, 1820. The congress was held on account of the revolutions in Spain and Portugal, and was transferred to Laybach, when the revolution of Naples broke out. 7. The right of interfering in the internal affairs of other nations, agreed upon at Troppau, was, in 1821, diplomatically admitted into the international code of the European continental powers at the congress of Laybach. The consequences of the congress at Laybach, from whence the allied powers issued a proclamation against Naples, were the occupation of Naples, Sicily and Piedmont, by Austrian armies; the abolition of the Spanish constitution in these countries, and the restoration of the old order of things. (See *Naples, Sicily* and *Piedmont, Revolutions of.*) If Austria had not succeeded, a Russian army of 80,000 men, which had already begun to march towards Hungary, would have entered Italy. After the Austrians had acquired their object in Naples and Piedmont, the two emperors concluded the congress of Laybach by a proclamation, signed by the ministers of Austria, Prussia and Russia, May 12, 1821, in which they declared that the justice and disinterestedness, which had guided the councils of the monarchs, would always

be the rule of their politics. This congress is also famous for a speech of the emperor of Austria to the professors of a public seminary at Laybach, in which he directed them to be careful not to teach their pupils too much; he did not want learned or scientific men, but obedient subjects. 8. The two emperors had determined, at Laybach, to hold a new congress, in 1822, at Florence. Verona was afterwards substituted for Florence, and a congress held there from Oct. to Dec., 1822, on account of Spain and Portugal, and the political state of Italy and Greece. The war of France against Spain, in 1823, was a consequence of this congress, which was remarkable for the spirit displayed by the duke of Wellington—the same which prevailed in the English ministry from the appointment of Canning to the secretariship of foreign affairs (Sept. 16, 1822). The duke, the English minister at Verona, opposed the undertaking any measure against the Spaniards, as long as they left their king unmolested, and did not labor to extend their constitution beyond their borders. As respected Turkey and Greece also, England wished for no interference of the other powers, but to leave them to themselves.—In America, only one international congress has been held, and that of little importance. It was called the *congress of Panama.* The project of a general union of the new Spanish American republics was early conceived by different leaders of the revolution. The first attempt to carry this plan into execution was made by Bolivar, in 1823. As president of the republic of Colombia, he invited the governments of Mexico, Peru, Chile and Buenos Ayres, to send delegates to the isthmus of Panama, or wherever they should think proper, to constitute a congress with full powers to treat of matters of general interest to the republics. Mexico and Peru immediately acceded to the proposal, but Buenos Ayres and Chile showed no inclination to take part in the congress. In Dec., 1824, Bolivar sent a circular to each of the governments, recapitulating what had already been done, and proposing that the meeting should take place. Accordingly, in June, 1826, the delegates from Colombia, Mexico, Peru and Guatemala assembled at Panama; Chile and Buenos Ayres still holding back, it is said, in consequence of suspicions of an ambitious scheme of Bolivar to incorporate the four S. American republics into an empire, of which he was to occupy the throne. The declaration of the U. States of N. America, in 1825, that they would permit no ulterior colonization in any part of the continent by European powers; that they should consider any attempt on the part of those powers to extend the system of national interference to any portion of this hemisphere dangerous to their peace and safety; and that any interposition, by any European power, for the purpose of controlling, in any manner, the governments of America which had established their independence, would be considered as the manifestation of an unfriendly disposition towards the U. States, led the South American states to invite this republic to join in the general confederation. Ministers to the congress were, in fact, appointed; but, before their arrival, the congress had adjourned (after concluding a treaty of friendship and perpetual confederation) to the succeeding February. The place appointed for the new session, which has never taken place, was the village of Tacubaya, near Mexico. The three great points held out by the originators of this plan were, the independence, peace and security of the Spanish American republics. The congress was intended to form a permanent council, to serve as a bond of union against common dangers, to interpret the treaties between the states, and mediate in all disputes; it was further an object, particularly with the U. States, to settle, through this body, disputed principles of international law, to abolish usages of war inconsistent with the spirit of the age, and to imbody the principles of American republicanism in an imposing form, in opposition to the doctrines of the European alliance of kings.

Congress of the United States of America. The national legislature of the U. States of America is designated, in the constitution of the general government, by this title. It consists of a senate and a house of representatives, each constituting a distinct and independent branch. The house of representatives is composed of members chosen every second year, by the people of the several states; and the voters or electors are required to have the same qualifications as are requisite for choosing the members of the most numerous branch of the state legislature of the state in which they vote. The representatives are apportioned among the several states according to their respective population; and, in estimating the population, three-fifths of the slaves are added to the whole number of free persons. A census of the population is taken once in every ten years, and an apportionment is then made of the representatives for each state. The representa-

tives are then elected in each state, either in districts, or by a general ticket, as the state legislature directs. There cannot be more than 1 representative for every 30,000 persons. The present apportionment is 1 representative for every 40,000 persons. Each state, however small may be its population, is entitled to at least 1 representative. No person can be a representative who shall not have attained the age of 25 years, and have been 7 years a citizen of the U. States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that state in which he shall be chosen. No other qualifications are required. When vacancies happen in the representation of any state, by death, resignation, or otherwise, new writs of election are issued by the executive thereof to fill the vacancy. The house of representatives chooses its own speaker and other officers, and possesses the sole power of impeachment. Each representative has a single vote.—The senate of the United States is composed of 2 senators from each state; and, there being 24 states, the senate now consists of 48 members. The senators of each state are chosen by the legislature of the state for six years, and each senator has one vote. They are divided into three classes, so that one third thereof is, or may be, changed by a new election every second year. When vacancies happen, they are supplied by the state legislature, if in session; if not, the state executive makes a temporary appointment until the legislature meets. No person can be a senator who is not 30 years of age, and has not been 9 years a citizen of the U. States, and is not, when elected, an inhabitant of the state for which he is chosen. The vice-president is, *ex officio*, president of the senate; but he has no vote unless they be equally divided. The senate chooses all its other officers, and a president, *pro tempore*, in the absence of the vice-president, or when he exercises the office of president of the U. States. The senate has the sole power of trying all impeachments; and, when sitting for this purpose, the senators take an oath or affirmation. If the president of the U. States should be impeached, the chief-justice is to preside. A conviction on impeachment cannot be without the concurrence of two thirds of the members present. The judgment extends only to a removal from office and future disqualification for office. But the party is, nevertheless, liable to punishment on indictment, by the common trial and course of law.—The times, places and manner of holding elections for senators and representatives, are appointed by the state legislatures; but the congress may, by law, fix and alter the time and manner of holding such elections. Each of the two houses, viz., the senate and representatives, is the judge of the elections, returns and qualifications of its own members. Each house determines the rules of its own proceedings, and has power to punish its members for disorderly conduct, and, with the concurrence of two thirds, to expel a member. A majority of each house constitutes a quorum to do business; but a smaller number may adjourn from day to day, and has power to compel the attendance of absent members, in such manner as it may provide. Each house is required to keep a journal of its proceedings, and, from time to time, to publish the same, excepting such parts as, in its judgment, may require secrecy. In point of fact, they are published every day or two, during the session, and collected in volumes at the end thereof. The yeas and nays of the members of each house, on any question, are required, at the desire of one fifth of those present, to be entered on the journal. The congress is required to assemble at least once every year; and such meeting is on the first Monday of December annually, unless a different day is provided by law. The president of the U. States has authority to convene extra sessions. Neither house, during the session of congress, can, without the consent of the other, adjourn more than 3 days, nor to any other place than that in which the two houses shall be sitting. In case of disagreement between the two houses, as to the time of adjournment, the president of the U. States may adjourn them to such time as he shall think proper. The senators and representatives are entitled to receive a compensation, provided by law, for their services, from the treasury of the U. States. They are also privileged from arrests, except in cases of treason, felony, or breaches of the peace, during their attendance at the session of their respective houses, and in going to and returning from the same. This does not mean merely their daily attendance; but, also, in going from or returning to their respective homes, in the several states. They have liberty of speech, and are not liable to be questioned, in any other place, for any speech or debate in either house. No senator or representative can be appointed to any civil office under the authority of the U. States, which is created, or its emoluments increased, during the

time for which he is elected; and no person, holding an office under the U. States, can be a member of either house during his continuance in office. It has been already stated, that each house determines the rules of its own proceedings; and, in point of fact, each house now has a large collection of rules, which are printed for the use of the members, and for the public at large. In a general sense, the rules and practice of the British house of commons form the basis of their proceedings, modified from time to time, as each house deems fit. The rules are too numerous to admit of any useful summary in this place. There are, however, certain constitutional provisions, as to the proceedings of the two houses, which deserve to be mentioned. All bills for raising revenue must originate in the house of representatives; but the senate may propose or concur with amendments, as on other bills. Every bill which has passed the senate and house of representatives, before it can become a law, must be presented to the president of the U. States. If he approve, he signs it; if not, he returns it to the house in which it originated, with his objections, and these objections are entered at large on their journals, and they then proceed to reconsider. If, upon reconsideration, two thirds of such house agree to pass the bill, it is sent, with the objections, to the other house, by which it is also to be reconsidered; and, if approved by two thirds of that house also, it becomes a law. But in all such cases, the votes of both houses are determined by yeas and nays, and the names entered on the journals. No instance has, as yet, occurred, in which any bill, returned by the president with objections, has ever become a law by a vote of two thirds of each house. If any bill is not returned by the president within 10 days (Sundays excepted) after it is presented to him, it becomes a law, in the same way as if he had signed it, unless congress, by their adjournment, prevent its return. Every order, resolution or vote, to which the concurrence of both houses is necessary, must, in like manner, be presented to the president, and similar proceedings are to be had thereon. The legislative powers belonging to congress will now be stated, in the words of the constitution itself, since different modes of interpretation of the same language have, at different times, been insisted on by different parties in the U. States. Congress, then, by the constitution, has power to lay and collect taxes, duties, imposts and excises, to pay the debts, and provide for the common defence and general welfare of the U. States; but all duties, imposts and excises shall be uniform throughout the U. States:—to borrow money on the credit of the U. States:—to regulate commerce with foreign nations and among the several states, and with the Indian tribes:—to establish a uniform rule of naturalization, and uniform laws on the subject of bankruptcy throughout the U. States:—to coin money, regulate the value thereof, and of foreign coins, and to fix the standard of weights and measures:—to provide for the punishment of counterfeiting the securities and current coin of the U. States:—to establish post-offices and post-roads:—to promote the progress of science and useful arts, by securing, for limited times, to authors and inventors, the exclusive right to their respective writings and discoveries:—to constitute tribunals inferior to the supreme court:—:o define and punish piracies and felonies committed on the high seas, and offences against the law of nations:—to declare war, grant letters of marque and reprisal, and make rules concerning captures on land or water:—to raise and support armies; but no appropriation of money to that use shall be for a longer term than two years:—to provide and maintain a navy:—to make rules for the government and regulation of the land and naval forces:—to provide for calling forth the militia to execute the laws of the union, suppress insurrections and repel invasions:—to provide for organizing, arming, and disciplining the militia, and for governing such part of them as may be employed in the service of the U. States, reserving to the states, respectively, the appointment of the officers, and the authority of training the militia according to the discipline prescribed by congress:—to exercise exclusive legislation in all cases whatsoever over such district, not exceeding 10 miles square, as may by cession of particular states, and the acceptance of congress, become the seat of the government of the U. States; and to exercise like authority over all places purchased by the consent of the legislature of the state in which the same shall be, for the erection of forts, magazines, arsenals, dock-yards, and other needful buildings;—and "to make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into effect the foregoing powers, and all other powers vested by this constitution in the government of the U. States, or in any department or office thereof."—Congress has also power to organize the supreme court, and to ordain

and establish, from time to time, inferior courts. In some cases, the original jurisdiction of the supreme court is expressly given in the constitution; but its appellate jurisdiction is under the regulation of congress. Congress has, in other cases, an unlimited authority, as to the jurisdiction which shall be vested in other inferior courts, to which the judicial power given by the constitution extends. Congress has also power to declare the punishment of treason; but no attainder works any corruption of blood, or forfeiture, except for the life of the person attainted. The crime of treason is expressly defined, by the constitution, to consist in levying war against the U. States, or in adhering to their enemies, giving them aid and comfort. Congress has also power to prescribe, by general laws, the manner in which the public acts, records and judicial proceedings of the states shall be proved, and the effect thereof, the constitution declaring that full faith and credit shall be given in each state to them. Congress has also power to dispose of, and make all needful rules and regulations respecting the territory or other property belonging to the U. States; and also to admit new states into the union; and also to propose, by a majority of two thirds of both houses, amendments to the constitution; or, on the application of the legislatures of two thirds of the several states, to call a convention for proposing amendments. But such amendments, to be binding, must be ratified by the legislatures of three fourths of the states, or by conventions in three fourths thereof, as the one or the other mode may be proposed by congress. But no state, without its consent, can be deprived of its equal suffrage in the senate. There are also certain restrictions upon the powers of congress; the most material of which are, that the privilege of the writ of *habeas corpus* shall not be suspended, unless, in cases of rebellion or invasion, the public safety require it. No bill of attainder, or *ex post facto* law, shall be passed. No capitation or other direct tax shall be laid, unless in proportion to the census or enumeration before taken. No tax or duty shall be laid on articles exported from any state. No preference shall be given, by any regulation of commerce or revenue, to the ports of one state over those of another; nor shall vessels bound to or from one state be obliged to enter, clear, or pay duties in another. No money shall be drawn from the treasury but in consequence of appropriations made by law; and a regular statement and account of all receipts and expenditures of all public money shall be published from time to time. No title of nobility shall be granted by the U. States; and no person holding any office of profit or trust under them shall, without the consent of congress, accept of any present, emolument, office or title of any kind whatever from any king, prince, or foreign state. These restrictions are found in the original constitution. Certain other restrictions and rights are secured by amendments made soon after the constitution was adopted. Among the most material are these:—Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof, or abridging the freedom of speech or of the press, or the right of the people peaceably to assemble and petition the government for a redress of grievances. The right also is secured to the people to bear arms, to be free from having soldiers quartered upon them in time of peace, or in war in any other manner than prescribed by law:—to be secure in their persons, houses, papers and effects against unreasonable searches and seizures, and to be liable to search and seizure only upon warrants upon probable cause supported by oath or affirmation; to answer for capital or otherwise infamous crimes only upon a presentment or indictment of a grand jury:—to be exempted from being twice put in jeopardy of life or limb for the same offence; not to be compelled, in any criminal case, to be witness against themselves; nor to be deprived of life, liberty or property, without due process of law; nor to have private property taken for public use, without just compensation. In criminal prosecutions, too, the accused enjoys the right to a speedy and public trial by an impartial jury of the state or district wherein the crime shall have been committed, which district shall have been previously ascertained by law; and to be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation; to be confronted with the witnesses against him; to have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favor; and to have the assistance of counsel for his defence. In suits at common law, where the value in controversy exceeds $20, the right of a trial by jury is preserved. And no fact tried by a jury is to be otherwise reëxamined in any court of the U. States, than according to the rules of the common law. Excessive bail is not to be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel or unusual punishments inflicted. The enumeration in the constitution of certain rights is not to

be construed to deny or disparage others retained by the people. And the powers not delegated to the U. States by the constitution, nor prohibited by it to the states, are reserved to the states respectively, or to the people. (For other provisions of the constitution, see the titles *Constitution of the United States, Courts of the United States, President of the United States*, &c. &c.*)

Congress Spring; a medicinal spring at Saratoga, in the state of New-York. Its water is purgative; its specific gravity, compared with pure water, is as 1012 to 1000; the taste very saline, brisk and pungent. Several chemists have given analyses of the water of this fountain; but in their results exist some discrepancies. (See *Manual of Materia Medica*, by Edwards and Vavasseur, Paris; translated 1829, Philad.) Doctor Steel classes the Saratoga spring among the *acidulous saline chalybeate*. According to him, one gallon, just taken from the spring, contains the following ingredients, viz.:—

Muriate of soda,	227.3	grs.
Hydriodate of soda,	3	"
Carbonate of soda,	19.21	"
Carbonate of lime,	92.4	"
Carbonate of magnesia,	23.1	"
Oxide of iron,	5.39	"
Silica and alumine (probably),	0.6	"
Carbonic acid gas,	316	cubic inches.
Atmospheric air,	4	" "

Doctor Steel observes, that iodine may exist in a mineral water, in the state of iodic or hydriodic acid, combined with either of the alkalies, potassa or soda, forming the iodate or hydriodate of the alkali with which they are united. The following table contains the ingredients of the water of Congress spring, the public well at Ballston, and the Albany water, given by Mr. Meade:—

Congress Spring.

Muriate of soda,	51½	grs.
Carbonate of lime,	13¾	"
Magnesia,	8½	"
Muriate of lime,	1¾	"
Muriate of magnesia,	2½	"
Oxide of iron,	¼	"
Total,	78¼	
Carbonic acid gas,	33	cubic inches.

Public Well, Ballston.

Muriate of soda,	21	grs.
Carbonate of lime,	4⅝	"
Carbonate of magnesia,	5⅝	"
Muriate of lime,	1¾	"
Muriate of magnesia,	¾	"
Oxide of iron,	½	"
Total,	34½	"
Carbonic acid gas,	30½	cubic inches.

Albany Water.

Muriate of soda,	59	grs.
Carbonate of soda,	5	"
Carbonate of lime,	4	"
Carbonate of magnesia,	1½	"
Carbonate of iron,	1	"
Muriate of lime,	½	"
Total,	71	
Carbonic acid gas,	26	cubic inches.

Congreve, William; a celebrated English dramatist, descended from an ancient English family, in the county of Stafford; born in 1670. His father held a command in the army. Young Congreve was educated in Ireland, at the free school of Kilkenny, to the neighborhood of which his father had been led in the course of service. From Kilkenny he removed to Trinity college, Dublin, and thence to the Middle Temple, London, to prepare himself for the legal profession. Like many men who are placed in a similar situation, he soon deserted the law, and abandoned himself to the pursuits of polite literature. At a very early age, he wrote a novel, entitled the *Incognita*, which is sprightly, intricate, and not natural. This was followed, at the age of 21, by his comedy of the Old Bachelor, pronounced by Dryden the greatest *first* play that he had ever beheld. Its success acquired for the author the patronage of lord Halifax, who immediately made him a commissioner for licensing hackney-coaches; soon after gave him a place in the pipe office; and finally conferred on him a very lucrative place in the customs. His next play, the Double Dealer, was not very successful in representation; but his third, the comedy of Love for Love, proved extremely popular. Not content with his fame in comedy, he now essayed tragedy; and, in 1697, produced his Mourning Bride, the reception of which was extremely favorable. The composition of four such plays,

* It will not be uninteresting to our readers if we add here a statement of the expenses of congress for the session of 1829—30. The expense of this session is set down, in the estimate of the treasury department, at $665,050. The session is estimated to last 175 days, or nearly 6 months; so that the pay of each member will amount to $1400, or $375,800 for the whole number of members and delegates, besides the round sum of $120,000 for travelling expenses. The stationary, fuel, printing, &c., for the senate, are estimated at $35,000, and for the house of representatives, $100,000. It is worth while to compare these expenses with those of the chambers of France and the two houses in England.

before he had attained the age of 28, is a remarkable proof of early genius in a line of composition demanding great observation and experience. He soon after closed his dramatic career, with the Way of the World, considered, by many critics, as the most perfect of his comedies; but which was, notwithstanding, received so coldly, that he resentfully determined to relinquish a species of writing in which, upon the whole, he had been eminently successful. A masque, entitled the *Judgment of Paris*, and *Semele*, an opera, the latter of which was never represented, close the list of his labors for the stage. He, however, continued to write occasional verses on public subjects; and, in 1710, published a collection of his plays and poems, which he dedicated to his early patron, lord Halifax, to whose person and party he remained attached in all fortunes. The remainder of the life of Congreve was spent in polished intercourse and literary leisure; and amidst the fierce party contention which divided almost all the other wits of the day, he pursued a dignified neutrality, and was praised and complimented on both sides. Steele dedicated to him his Miscellanies, and Pope his translation of the Iliad. On the return of his friends to power, he received the additional sinecure of secretary to the island of Jamaica; and, thus rendered affluent, seemed desirous of dropping the character of a man of letters altogether. When Voltaire, in a visit, alluded to his writings, he affected to regard them as trifles beneath him, and hinted that he only expected to be visited as a gentleman. Voltaire replied, that, had he been merely a gentleman, he should never have been desirous of seeing him. His latter years were clouded with sickness and infirmity, and he died in January, 1728—9, in his 60th year, in London. Congreve stands high on the list of English writers of comedy, for which distinction he is indebted less to a lively and humorous delineation of natural character, than to a perpetual reciprocation of wit in his dialogue, united to originality of plot, and to new combinations of factitious manners. He drew little from common life; and if his portraits of sharpers and coquettes—men without principle, and women without delicacy—are just portraitures of the fine gentlemen and ladies of the day, the reign of Charles II must have operated most dreadfully on the national character. His Love for Love still occasionally appears; but none of the other pieces can be sufficiently pruned of their licentiousness for modern representation. The Mourning Bride is well constructed; but the florid elevation of the language is in the highest degree unnatural. It has, however, some fine poetic passages. The poetry of Congreve is below mediocrity, with the exception of a few songs and short effusions of gaiety or satire.

Congreve, sir William, bart.; inventor of the rockets called by his name; born in the county of Middlesex, England, in 1772; coöperated actively in the improvements introduced into the British army by the duke of York; was a member of parliament, general of artillery, inspector of the royal laboratory, &c. In 1816—17, he accompanied the grand prince Nicholas, now emperor of Russia, on his tour through England. In 1824, a company was formed for lighting the principal cities of Europe with gas, of which Congreve was at the head. He wrote an Elementary Treatise on the Mounting of Naval Ordnance (London, 1812), and a Description of the Hydro-Pneumatic Lock (London, 1815). He died at Toulouse, in France, May 16, 1828. The Congreve rockets, first used in the attack of Boulogne, 1806, are of various dimensions, and are differently armed as they are intended for the field or for bombardment. Those of the first sort carry shells or case-shot; the others are armed with a very combustible material, and are called *carcass rockets*. Their form is cylindrical, and they are composed of strong metallic cases. The sticks employed for regulating their flight are of different lengths, according to the size of the rocket. The carcass rockets are armed with strong, iron, conical heads, pierced with holes, and containing a substance as hard and solid as iron itself, which, when once inflamed, is inextinguishable, and scatters its burning particles in every direction. When this substance is consumed, the ball explodes like a grenade. The rocket is projected horizontally, and whizzes loudly as it flies through the air. The ammunition is divided into three classes—heavy, medium and light; the heavy including all above 42 pounds, the medium, those from 42 to 24 pounds, and the light from 18 to 6 pounds inclusive. The English have used them in the field at Leipsic, at the passage of the Adour, &c., and for bombardment at the siege of Copenhagen, &c. They were at first considered a very important invention, but experience has shown that they are made to deviate from their direction by the wind and other causes, and that they sometimes recoil upon their employers. In the field, they are much less effi-

cient than the common artillery, and, in sieges, do less injury than red-hot shot and bombs. Their composition is not so entirely a secret as is commonly supposed, since they have been imitated by the Austrian, Saxon and other artillerists, and have even received some improvements from the first named.

Conic Sections. (See *Cone.*)

Conjugation. (See *Verb, Grammar, Language.*)

Conjunction, in astronomy. (See *Aspect.*)

Connanicut, or Canonicut; an island belonging to the state of Rhode Island, in Narraganset bay, on the west side of the island of Rhode island; eight miles long, about one in average breadth. It is a beautiful island, of a fertile soil, producing good crops of grass and grain. It contains the town of Jamestown. On the south end, at a place called *Beaver Tail*, there is a light-house.

Connaught; one of the four provinces of Ireland; bounded N. by the Atlantic ocean; E. by the counties of Fermanagh, Cavan, Longford, Westmeath and King's county; S. by the county of Clare and the sea; and W. by the sea. It contains 5 counties, viz., Galway, Leitrim, Mayo, Roscommon and Sligo, which include 296 parishes, 4108 square miles, 95,821 houses, 1 archbishopric and 5 bishoprics.

Connecticut; one of the U. States; bounded N. by Massachusetts, E. by Rhode Island, S. by Long Island sound, and W. by New York; lon. 71° 20′ to 73° 15′ W.; lat. 41° to 42° 2′ N.; 88 miles long, and about 53 in average breadth; square miles, 4828: population, in 1756, 130,611; in 1774, 197,365; in 1782, 209,150; in 1790, 237,946; in 1800, 251,002; in 1810, 261,942; in 1820, 275,248; white males, 130,807; white females, 136,374; free colored persons, 7870; slaves, 97; persons engaged in agriculture, 50,518; in manufactures, 17,541; in commerce, 3581: militia, in 1821, 22,100.*—Hartford and New Haven are the seats of the state government. The legislature holds its sessions alternately in the two places. There are five incorporated cities in Connecticut—Hartford, New Haven, Middletown, New London and Norwich; and three boroughs—Bridgeport, Stonington and Guilford. There are colleges at New Haven and Hartford; and at the latter place, also, an asylum for the education of the deaf and dumb. The state has a fund, which, in 1821, amounted to $1,858,094, the interest of which is appropriated to the support of schools. In no part of the world are the common and useful branches of education more generally understood. The inhabitants are distinguished for their habits of industry and sobriety. The present constitution was framed in 1818. The legislature, styled the *general assembly*, is composed of a senate of 12 members, and a house of representatives, 80 towns sending each 2 representatives: the other towns, founded since the charter of Charles II, in 1662, send 1 each. The governor, lieutenant-governor, senators, and representatives, are all chosen annually in April. The general assembly has one stated session in each year, on the first Wednesday in May, and such others as they judge necessary. Judges of the supreme and superior courts hold their offices during good behavior, but become disqualified at the age of 70.—No person is compelled to join, or support, or to be classed with or associated to, any congregation, church or religious association; but every person may be compelled to pay his proportion of the expenses of the society to which he may belong; but he may separate himself from the society by leaving a written notice of his wish with the clerk of such society.—The principal rivers are the Connecticut, Housatonic, Thames, Farmington and Naugatuck. The principal harbors are those of New London and New Haven. The face of the country is greatly diversified by mountains, hills and valleys. There are but few level tracts, and no considerable mountains. The greatest elevation is a range of small mountains on the west side of Connecticut river, being a continuation of the Green mountains. The hills are generally of moderate size, and occur in quick succession, presenting to the traveller an ever-varying prospect. The soil is generally fertile, though intermixed with portions that are comparatively thin and barren, and the whole is well watered. It is generally in a state of good cultivation, resembling, in many parts, a well-cultivated garden. The principal productions are Indian corn, rye, wheat in many parts, oats, barley, buckwheat, flax in large quantities, some hemp, potatoes, pumpkins, turnips, peas, beans, &c. Orchards are very numerous, and cider is made for exportation. The state is, however, generally better adapted to

* According to a recent account, Connecticut contains 41,416 houses, 2,607,869 acres of land, 1597 mills, 1827 stores and shops, 402 distilleries, 1211 manufactories, 46 fisheries, 33,358 horses, asses, &c., 219,783 neat cattle, 331,054 sheep, 5048 carriages, &c., 21,369 clocks.

grazing than to tillage; and its fine meadows and pastures enable the farmers to feed great numbers of neat cattle, horses and sheep. The quantity of butter and cheese made annually is great, and of well-known excellence. Beef and pork of superior quality are also abundant. The state is generally laid out in small farms, from 50 to 300 and 400 acres. It is intersected by numerous roads, which are generally kept in good repair. Though exposed to the extremes of heat and cold, and to sudden changes of temperature, the country is very healthful. The northwest winds, which prevail during the winter, are keen, but the serenity of the sky, during the same season, makes amends, in some degree, for the severity of the weather. In the maritime towns, the weather is particularly variable, changing as the wind blows from sea or land: in the inland country, it is less so. The foreign trade of this state is principally with the West Indies; but its coasting trade is the most considerable. Its exports consist of beef, pork, cattle, horses, mules, butter, cheese, maize, rye, flax-seed, fish, candles and soap. Almost all the produce of the western part of the state is carried to New York. The manufacturing industry of Connecticut is greater, in proportion to the population, than that of any other state in the union, except Rhode Island. The manufactures consist of cotton and woollen goods, tin-ware, iron, gin, glass, paper, snuff, powder, leather, shoes, clocks, buttons, fire-arms, carriages, &c. Mines of different kinds have been found in this state, but, in general, they have not been wrought to any considerable extent, with the exception of iron ore, which abounds in Salisbury and Kent, of an excellent quality, and is also found in other places. There is a lead mine on the Connecticut, two miles from Middletown, which was wrought during the revolutionary war. Copper mines have been discovered and opened in several places, but, having proved unprofitable, they have been neglected. Marble is found in Washington, Milford, Brookfield and New Milford; porcelain clay in New Milford and Cornwall; black lead in New Milford and Marlborough; cobalt in Chatham; and excellent freestone in Chatham, Haddam and East Hartford. There are several mineral springs, but none of much note, except those of Stafford and Suffield. The one at Stafford is the most celebrated in New England.

The constitutions of the colony on the banks of the Connecticut, of the years 1638 and 1650, and the most ancient record of the colony of New Haven (q. v.), are of no little historical interest, as indications of the deep feeling of the necessity of laws in the mind of man, and of the stern and sombre religious spirit of the first settlers of those colonies. The chapter of *capitall laws*, in the code of 1650, is almost verbally copied from the Mosaic law. It inflicts death, among other offences, for the worshipping of any other god but the Lord God; being a witch, that is, consulting with a familiar spirit; blaspheming the name of God the Father, Son or Holy Ghost; adultery, rape, sodomy, stealing; bearing false witness, in order to take away another man's life; cursing of parents by a child above 16; or on a son who manifests a stubborn and rebellious spirit after having been chastised by his parents, &c. The *plantation covenant*, recorded in the oldest record of the colony of New Haven, is one of the purest specimens of the *contrat social* of Rousseau. (See *New Haven*.) A small work, published in 1825 (Hartford, by Silas Andrus), affords a curious illustration of the character of the early settlers of Connecticut. The title is thus:—The Code of 1650, being a Compilation of the earliest Laws and Orders of the General Court of Connecticut; also the Constitution, or Civil Compact entered into and adopted by the Towns of Windsor, Hartford and Wethersfield, in 1638—9: to which are added some Extracts from the Laws and Judicial Proceedings of New Haven Colony, commonly called *Blue Laws*. (For the blue laws, see *New Haven*.)

Connecticut; the great river of New England. It has its source on the north border of New Hampshire, and separates New Hampshire from Vermont, passes through Massachusetts and Connecticut, and flows into Long Island sound, between Saybrook and Lime. Its general course is S. by W. till it reaches Middletown (Connecticut), after which it has a S. S. E. course to its mouth. Its whole length is 410 miles. It is navigable for vessels drawing 10 feet of water to Middletown, 36 miles; for those drawing 8 feet, to Hartford, 50 miles; and, by means of locks and canals, it has been rendered navigable to the Fifteen Mile falls, Bath (New Hampshire), 250 miles above Hartford. The boats which navigate the river carry from 12 to 20 tons in descending, and about two thirds as much in returning. The falls which have been rendered passable by artificial means are those at Enfield (Connecticut), the Willemantic falls, those at South Hadley, Montague, Walpole,

Plainfield and Lebanon. Of these, Bellows falls, at Walpole, are the most remarkable. According to a survey made in 1824, the falls in the Connecticut, between Hanover (New Hampshire) and Enfield (Connecticut), measure 371 feet. On these falls were locks measuring 218 feet, viz., at South Hadley, 50 feet; Nutter's falls, 71 feet; Bellows falls, 48½; Waterqueechy, 12½; and White river, 36 feet. The Connecticut flows through a fine country. The land bordering upon it is generally of an excellent quality; and there are upon its banks many beautiful and flourishing towns; among which are Haverhill, Hanover, Charlestown and Walpole (New Hampshire); Newbury, Windsor and Brattleborough (Vermont); Greenfield, Hadley, Northampton and Springfield (Massachusetts); Hartford and Middletown, &c. (Connecticut).

Conon, an Athenian commander, was one of the generals who succeeded Alcibiades in the command of the fleet in the Peloponnesian war, and, engaging Callicratidas, was defeated; but afterwards gained a victory, in which the Spartan commander lost his life. On the subjugation of Athens, B. C. 405, he remained at Cyprus, forming plans for the restoration of the prosperity of his country. By persuading Artaxerxes, king of Persia, that the superiority of the Lacedæmonians was injurious to the safety of his dominions, and that they could only be checked by rendering the Athenians able to oppose them, he procured the command of a Persian fleet, B. C. 398, attacked the Spartan admiral Pisander near Cnidos, and, killing him with his own hand, defeated the Spartans, who lost the greatest part of their fleet. The empire of the sea was immediately transferred, and the power of the Lacedæmonians in Asia Minor immediately ceased. Conon then returned to Attica, and employed his sailors and workmen in restoring the fortifications of Athens. He fell a prey to the hatred and envy of the Lacedæmonians, who, in a treaty of peace with the Persians, accused him of plotting the delivery of Æolia and Ionia to his countrymen, and of the misappropriation of the king's money and forces. He was accordingly apprehended, and, as some writers relate, was put to death at Susa; others say that he made his escape; but the event is doubtful.

Conquest. By *conquest* is now generally understood the right over property acquired in war, or by superior force. In the feudal law, it had a somewhat different sense, meaning any means of acquiring an estate out of the common course of inheritance. (2 *Bl. Comm.* 243.) The right of conquest has been deduced as an inference of natural law, from the right to weaken our enemy, to compel him to make compensation for injuries, to force him to an equitable peace, and to deter or prevent him from future injuries. It presupposes a just war, and a right of appropriation growing out of it. It is now generally admitted as a part of the law of nations. If a war be unjust, it is plain that it can receive no sanction from the law of nature or the law of nations; and, therefore, no just acquisitions can arise from it. But who is to decide whether the war be just or unjust? If neutral nations attempt to decide the question without consent, they draw themselves into the quarrel, and may be involved in the war. The parties who wage war never avow that they are acting unjustly, and will not admit any superior, who has a right to decide such questions for them. Nations claim a perfect equality and independence, and therefore will not submit to the decision of any other sovereign. The only answer, in a practical view, that can be given to the question is, that every free and sovereign state must decide for itself, whether it is carrying on a just war, and what are the duties required of it in such a war. With a view to public safety and repose, neutral nations are understood to be bound to act upon certain rules, which may be called the *voluntary law of nations*. Among these rules the following are universally admitted:—1. that every regular war, as to its effects, is to be deemed, by neutral nations, just on both sides; 2. that whatever is permitted to the one to do, in virtue of the state of war, is also permitted to the other; 3. that the acquisitions made by each belligerent in the war are to be held lawful, and to be respected; 4. that neutral nations are bound to impartiality in their conduct to each of the belligerents. Many questions are discussed by jurists, in respect to the rights of conquest, some of which are of great nicety and subtilty. To enumerate them, without adverting to the various shades of opinion, would itself occupy a large discourse. We shall content ourselves, therefore, by enumerating a few only of the principles, which, by the benignity of religion and the enlarged influence of knowledge and public opinion, are now generally received among civilized nations. Conquest may respect either persons or things. It may respect movable or immovable property. It may apply to a whole nation, or only to a sin-

gle town or province. It may be temporary or permanent.—1. Conquest over persons. Persons captured in war are called *prisoners of war*, especially if they are taken in arms. If they are included in a mere surrender of territory, without being in arms, they are commonly deemed *subjects*, for the time being, upon their submission. But the conqueror may, if he chooses, consider all his enemies who surrender as prisoners of war, though it would be deemed a harsh and vindictive course.—The conqueror has no right to inflict upon prisoners of war any unnecessary injury or violence. He has no right to take away their lives, or subject them to cruel punishments. Formerly, they were sometimes removed into other countries, or reduced to a state of slavery for life. But these would now be thought such extreme exercises of power, as no Christian sovereign ought to authorize. Christian sovereigns now usually keep prisoners of war under guard, in suitable depots, until they are ransomed, or exchanged by cartel, or restored upon the return of peace. Upon their return to their own country, all such prisoners are, by the law of *postliminy*, as it is called, considered as redintegrated to all their original rights and privileges. Officers in the public service are often released upon their parole of honor, by which they promise not to serve again in the war, until they are regularly exchanged; and, if they remain in the country of the conqueror, they are required to keep within certain limits, and report themselves at stated seasons to some proper officers. If they break their parole, they are universally esteemed infamous, and, if again taken in war, may be treated with great severity for their conduct.—Where persons are not found in arms, but are included as inhabitants of a town or province which has surrendered, they are treated generally as subjects. The original allegiance to their own government is suspended, and they come under the implied obligation to the conqueror, to violate none of his rights, to submit to his orders, and to demean themselves, for the time, as faithful subjects. Under such circumstances, the conqueror generally leaves them in possession of their property, and exercises his power with moderation, usually quartering his troops upon them, levying taxes, and punishing them only for rebellious or traitorous conduct.—Where the conquest is of a whole state (as, indeed, is true also of a town or small territory), the conqueror has authority either to rule the inhabitants by their former laws, or to create a new form of government; or perhaps, in an extreme case, to dissolve their society. Where the conquest is temporary, while war rages, it is rare for the conqueror to change the laws. But, where the conquest is permanent, or is recognised by a treaty of peace, the conqueror usually exercises his sovereign power to annul or vary the laws, or form of government, according to his own pleasure. It is not usual, in modern times, to change the fundamental laws of a country, in cases of conquest, unless under very pressing circumstances. But the sovereign power of the conqueror so to do is conceded by the law of nations.—2. Conquest of property. This may be of movable or immovable property. In the former case, it is commonly called *plunder*, or *booty*, or *prize of war*, according to the circumstances under which it is taken. In the latter case, it merely follows from the right of occupation and superior force; and, therefore, the right of property continues no longer than such occupation by superior force. The original proprietor is reinstated in his rights the moment the conquest is abandoned.—As the law of nations allows the conqueror, in its utmost strictness, to appropriate to himself all the property of his enemies, as soon as it is within his reach by conquest, the extent to which he shall exercise this harsh power must depend upon his own moderation and sense of justice. Neutral nations always respect the title conferred by conquest when it is already established; and enemies respect it only so far as it suits their own convenience and policy, when in the hands of enemies. But, when acquired by a neutral, they also respect the title; for that which, by the law of nations, is lawfully acquired by an enemy, may be lawfully transferred to a neutral, and thus the latter may acquire a valid title. There is a distinction, in this respect, between movable and immovable property. No conquest of the latter is esteemed absolute, so as to divest the original proprietor, unless confirmed by a treaty of peace, or an entire submission and extinction of the state to which it belongs, or by an acquiescence so long, that it amounts to an abandonment of all prior right and title. But movable property, which is capable of being conveyed from one country to another, becomes the absolute right of the conquerors from the moment of conquest and complete possession. Movable property, captured in the heat of battle, or as an immediate result of victory, by an army

on land, is often called *booty* or *plunder*. It belongs to the conquering sovereign, and portions of it are usually distributed among the officers and soldiers. It seldom happens now, that any place which is captured is given up to indiscriminate plunder. Private property is, for the most part, respected; but public property is appropriated by the sovereign to such purposes as he pleases. All property captured in war may be justly denominated *prize*. But, in a more limited sense, that is called *prize property*, which is acquired by capture and surrender upon land or upon the ocean, and is disposed of by some formal proceedings, under the sovereign authority. Thus, in England and America, all property captured on the ocean, by public or private armed ships, is required to be brought into port, and condemned as prize by the lawful prize tribunals, before the captors acquire any rights under the capture; and, in cases of joint captures, by land and naval forces, a similar proceeding is usually had.—A question is often discussed, at what time movable property captured is so completely in the power of the captors, as to give them a perfect title to it. Writers on the law of nations differ on the point; and the practice of nations also differs. Some writers hold that it should be carried to a place of safety; as, for instance, if captured at sea, that it should be carried into port (*infra præsidia*) before the title of the original proprietor is divested. Others contend that it is sufficient that the property has remained in possession of the captors 24 hours. But, at present, in England and America at least, a sentence of condemnation is considered indispensable to divest the right of the original proprietor in movable property. Nevertheless, if a treaty of peace takes place between the belligerents, and no contrary provision is made, the actual state of things, in relation to captures, is deemed rightful; and neither can reclaim any thing of the other on account of such captures, whether there has been a condemnation or not.—This question, with regard to the title to movable property, chiefly arises in cases of recapture, or other cases where the *jus postliminii*, or right upon repossession or return of the property to the country of the original proprietor, occurs.—3. Conquest of immovable property. It has been already observed that, of such property, the title by conquest is not deemed perfect or complete, unless recognised by a treaty of peace, or cession, by an extinction of the state, or by a long acquiescence, amounting to an admission of right. The conqueror usually appropriates the public domains to himself, and generally leaves private property in possession of the original proprietors.—Whenever there is a reconquest or reöccupation by the original proprietors, their original right returns by the *jus postliminii;* and no intervening title, unless confirmed by treaty, or by some other mode, as above stated, is recognised, although it may have passed into the hands of a neutral. Where a conquest is temporary, it gives validity to titles to immovable property only while it lasts. It merely suspends the rights of the former proprietors at the conqueror's choice; but these rights revive as soon as the conquest is abandoned. The same thing is true as to the laws of the conquered territory, whether it be a town, province or state. The conqueror may, if he chooses, suspend all the common laws which regulate persons or property, during his occupation, and impose new ones; but the old laws revive as soon as the conquest is surrendered or abandoned. Acts, however, done during the possession by the conqueror, according to his laws, are considered as rightful for many purposes. Thus, if goods are imported into a conquered territory, with the consent of the conqueror, they are not liable to forfeiture afterwards, although prohibited by the laws of the country antecedent to the conquest. But the prohibitory laws revive, as soon as the territory is regained, by their own force, *proprio vigore*.—In general, the laws of a conquered territory remain in full force until they are altered by the conqueror. As soon as the conqueror receives the parties under his protection by capitulation or otherwise, they become his subjects; and they are entitled to have their persons and property secure from violation.—The question is often asked, To whom do things taken in war belong? to the captors, or to their sovereign? The true answer is, To the sovereign. Whatever is acquired in war is acquired by the state; and the manner in which the property so acquired shall be disposed of or distributed depends upon the orders of the state. In cases of prizes upon the ocean, it is usual for the state to distribute the property captured, after condemnation, as a bounty among the captors.

Conradin of Suabia; the last of the imperial house of the Hohenstaufen (q. v.); son of Conrad IV, and grandson of the emperor Frederic II, from whom he inherited Naples and Sicily in 1254. Pope Clement IV would not acknowledge him,

because he was the son of a prince who died in excommunication, and therefore conferred Sicily on Charles of Anjou, brother to Louis IX (St. Louis), king of France. As the administration of Charles occasioned great dissatisfaction, the people called in *Conradino*, as he was termed by the Italians. He came, accompanied by his friend, Frederic prince of Baden, with about 10,000 men, in 1267. At first, fortune seemed to favor him; in 1268, he entered Rome at the head of his army; but, at Tagliacozzo, he was defeated, and, on his flight, betrayed by Frangipani, and taken prisoner with his friend. Charles of Anjou, with the consent of the pope, ordered them to be beheaded, Oct. 25, 1268, in the market-place of Naples. Conradin was but 16 years old. He died with admirable firmness, after having declared his relation, Peter of Arragon, the heir of his realm. Peter gained possession of Sicily in 1282, when the Sicilian vespers put an end to the French power in that country. It is supposed that a German poem, a *Minnelied*, or love song, the second in the Manessian collection, and bearing the name of king Conrad, was composed by him. He had inherited a love for the German language and poetry from his grandfather Frederic II. (See Frederic von Raumer's *Geschichte der Hohenstaufen und ihrer Zeit*, 6 vols., Leipsic, 1825.)

Conring, Hermann, one of the greatest scholars of his time, was born at Norden, in East Friesland, in 1606; survived an attack of the plague, and afterwards studied at Helmstädt and Leyden, devoting himself chiefly to theology and medicine; was appointed, in 1632, professor of philosophy at Helmstädt, in 1636 professor of medicine, and remained in this city until his death in 1681. He was distinguished in almost every department of knowledge, and was invited, in 1649, by the princess of East Friesland, to be her physician. In 1650, he received a similar invitation from Christina queen of Sweden, and, in 1664, a pension from Louis XIV. At a later period, the title of a counsellor was conferred on him by the kings of Denmark and Sweden and the elector of the Palatinate. He was then made professor of law. The German emperor likewise distinguished him. From far and near his advice was sought in political and legal cases. He did a great deal for the history of the German empire, and for the improvement of German public law, in which he opened a new path. He wrote, it is true, no new system or compendium, but many treatises on particular subjects, highly serviceable for others, and educated many celebrated scholars. Such were his acquirements, and his confidence in his ability to apply them, that he is said, on offering his hand to a lady, to have asked her whether she would like to have him a theologian, jurist, diplomatist or physician. His complete works, with his biography, were published in 1730, in Brunswick, 6 vols. fol., by Göbel. They contain political, historical, medical, philosophical, juridical, &c. treatises, besides letters and poems.

Consalvi, Ercole, cardinal and prime minister of pope Pius VII, was born, in 1757, at Toscanella; studied theology, politics, music and literature. His views on the French revolution, publicly expressed, gained him the favor of the aunts of Louis XVI, and, through the influence of these ladies, he became auditor of the *rota* at Rome. In this capacity, he was charged to have an eye upon the friends of the French, which he did with great strictness, and, on this account, was banished when the French entered Rome, in 1798. He afterwards became secretary of cardinal Chiaramonti, and, when his patron was elected pope (Pius VII), became one of the first cardinals, and afterwards secretary of state. Consalvi was the person who concluded the famous concordate with Napoleon. In 1806, cardinal Casoni de Sarzana took his place, and Consalvi lived, like his master, in a kind of retirement. In 1814, he became papal minister at the congress of Vienna, where he effected the restoration of the marks and legations to the pope. In 1815, he conducted the negotiations with France; at the same time, he drew up the celebrated edict *motu proprio*. Until the death of Pius VII, he remained at the head of all the political and ecclesiastical affairs of the Roman government, and possessed the fullest confidence of the pope. He gave a large sum to erect a monument to his master, and died in Rome, Jan. 24, 1824.

Conscription; the enlisting (*enrôlement*, in French) of the inhabitants of a country capable of bearing arms, by a compulsory levy, at the pleasure of the government. It is distinguished from *recruiting*, or voluntary enlistment. The name is derived from the military constitution of ancient Rome. Every Roman citizen was obliged to serve as a soldier from his 17th to his 45th year; hence no *recruiting*, in the modern sense of the word, took place, but only levying (*delectus*). According to law, four legions of

infantry (6666 men composing one legion), two for each consul, were annually levied. The consuls who, in the time of the republic, were always commanders of the army, announced every year, after the legionary tribunes were elected, by a herald or a written order, that a levy was to be made (*milites cogere, colligere, scribere, conscribere*). This was the proper conscription. All citizens capable of bearing arms were obliged, under penalty of losing their fortune and liberty, to assemble in the Campus Martius, or near the capitol, where the consuls, seated in their curule chairs, made the levy by the assistance of the legionary tribunes. The consuls ordered such as they pleased to be cited out of each tribe, and every one was obliged to answer to his name, after which as many were chosen as were wanted. This lasted until the time of the emperors, when large armies were constantly required: these were generally recruited in the provinces. France, in the beginning of the revolution, declared it the duty and honor of every citizen to serve in the army of his country. Every French citizen was born a soldier, and obliged to serve in the army from 16 to 40 years of age. From 40 to 60 years, he belonged to the national guard. Every year, the young men of the military age were assembled, and distributed in the different military divisions. It was decided by lot who, among the able-bodied men of suitable age, should take arms. In several states belonging to the confederation of the Rhine, this measure was imitated. But the constant wars under the imperial government, and the anticipation, in some cases, of the year of conscription, made this usage, though just and patriotic in its principle, so unpopular in France, that it was deemed necessary to abolish it in the charter (*Charte constitutionnelle*, art. 12). In the kingdom of Westphalia, and some other states of the confederation of the Rhine, a great part of the soldiers raised by conscription served so reluctantly, that the governments made parents, and even neighbors, answerable for their conduct. In a greater or less degree, however, conscription exists, at present, throughout the continent of Europe. In Prussia, every person, except the mediatised princes, and the sons of a widow who support her, &c. (the latter exceptions also existed in France), is obliged to serve three years in the standing army, from 17 years of age to 21; after this, he belongs to the militia (q. v.) until 50. Those, however, who enter the army voluntarily, and pay for their equipment, serve but one year in the standing army; but only such persons as, on examination, appear to have a certain degree of education, are admitted. Theological students are not exempted. In Austria, a person once enlisted must serve as long as the government pleases. Denmark is the only continental state in which the old principle, common in Europe before the French revolution, is kept up, that all persons born in cities, the sons of officers and noblemen, are exempted from service. In England and the U. States, no citizen is obliged to serve in the standing army. The character, therefore, of the armies of these two countries is very different from that of those on the continent of Europe, the latter being of a decidedly superior quality. The advantage of obtaining superior soldiers, however, would never reconcile the people of these two countries to the system of compelling citizens to serve in the standing army. (See *Militia.*)

Consecration; the action by which a thing, animal or person is destined for the service of God or of the deities of paganism. It is opposed to *profanation* and *sacrilege*. With the Romans, *consecratio* at first signified only *dedication*; but under the emperors, it denoted *deification* (ἀποθέωσις). (See *Apotheosis.*) The Greek and Roman Catholic churches practise the consecration of things and persons, and ground the usage on numerous passages in the Old Testament and several in the New. That God commanded consecration in the Old Testament is undeniable. (For the consecration of priests, see *Priest.*) In a narrower sense, the word *consecration* is particularly used for the act of the priest who celebrates the mass, by which he is considered as changing the bread and wine into the real body and blood of Christ. There was formerly a warm contest between the Greek and Roman Catholic churches on this subject; the former maintaining that, in the consecration of the elements, it was necessary not only to use the words of Christ, but to invoke the Holy Spirit; while the latter denied that any such invocation was required. At present, the Greeks themselves are divided on this point. The Protestants do not consider consecration so important as the two Catholic sects do. (See the articles *Sacrament* and *Transubstantiation.*) The consecration of the pope is a ceremony which takes place immediately after his election.

Conservatorio. (*See the following article.*)

CONSERVATORY (*conservatorio*, in Italian); a musical school intended for the scientific cultivation of musical talents. They are sometimes public benevolent establishments, including hospitals, supported by rich private persons. The pupils have board, lodging, clothing and instruction gratis. Besides these pupils, others are received, who pay for their instruction; as, in Italy, the instruction in conservatories is preferred to private teaching. In Naples, there were formerly three conservatories for boys; in Venice, four for girls. The most famous among the former was that of Santa Maria Loretto, established in 1537. Leo, Durante, Scarlatti and Porpora were teachers at this school; and, among the great musicians educated there, it counted the distinguished names of Traetta, Piccini, Sacchini, Guglielmi, Anfossi, Paesiello, and others. There were generally more than 200 pupils from 8 to 10 years of age in the conservatory of Loretto; in the others, about half this number. Pupils were received from 8 to 20 years of age. The period during which they obliged themselves to stay in the establishment was generally 8 years. If, however, it was discovered that a pupil had no talents for music, he was sent away. The conservatories in Venice were established in the same way. They were called *ospedale della pietà, delle mendicanti, delle incurabili*, and *ospedaletto di San Giovanni e Paolo*. Sacchini was for a long time the first instructer in the latter. The girls were obliged to conform to a very strict monastic kind of life, and used to remain in the establishment till they were married. All instruments used in the public concerts were played here by girls and women. From these conservatories issued the great number of composers and male and female singers, who were met in every part of Europe. In Naples, the conservatories are reduced to a single establishment, which, in 1818, was removed to the former nunnery of St. Sebastiano, and received the name *real collegio di musica*. In Milan, the viceroy Eugene established a conservatory in 1808, the direction of which was given to Asioli. It has 14 professors and 60 pupils. In France, music was very little cultivated until Italian and German music was introduced by Piccini, Sacchini, Gluck and others. The want of singers was now felt. The opera therefore established a musical school, and, in 1784, it was elevated into an *école royale de chant et de déclamation*. But it was not until the revolution that this institution acquired a high degree of importance. The want of musicians for 14 armies was then felt, and in November, 1793, the convention decreed an *institut national de musique*. In 1795, it received its final organization, and the name of *conservatoire*. It was intended for both sexes. 600 pupils, from all the departments, were to be instructed there by 115 teachers. The expenses were fixed at 240,000 francs annually, but, in 1802, were limited to 100,000 francs, and, in consequence, the number of pupils and teachers was reduced. The instruction was divided between music and theatrical declamation. The most distinguished musicians have been instructers in this institution; of whom we need only mention Gossec, Méhul, Garat, Choron, Cherubini, Grétry, Boïeldieu, Kreutzer, &c. Since its foundation, 2000 musicians and singers of both sexes have been educated there. At the same time, the *conservatoire* is the central point of all amateurs of music. The public performances of the pupils are the most splendid concerts in Paris. The execution of symphonies, in particular, is unparalleled. For almost all branches of music, the *conservatoire* has published elementary works, or *methods*, as they are called, which are circulated and adopted throughout Europe. The institutions of the same name, in Vienna and Prague, are less important. The

Conservatoire royal des Arts et Métiers at Paris, is an establishment, which deserves the greatest praise, containing a collection of models of machines, of manufactures, &c., and having professors, who deliver lectures on mechanics, chemistry, and the processes used in manufacturing, to persons who wish to prepare themselves for pursuing mechanical arts and the business of manufacturing in a scientific way. The king selects the pupils. The foundation of this praiseworthy establishment was laid on the 19th Vendémiaire, year III (Oct. 10, 1794), by the convention. After many important changes, it was finally organized by an ordinance, Nov. 25, 1819. The institution is in the *rue* St. Martin.

CONSERVATORY, in gardening, is a term generally applied, by gardeners, to plant-houses, in which the plants are raised in a bed or border without the use of pots. They are sometimes placed in the pleasure ground, along with the other hot-houses, but more frequently attached to the mansion. The principles of their construction are, in all respects, the same as for the green-house, with the single difference

of a pit or bed of earth being substituted for the stage, and a narrow border instead of surrounding flues. The power of admitting abundance of air, both by the sides and roof, is highly requisite both for the green-house and conservatory; but for the latter, it is desirable, in almost every case, that the roof, and even the glazed sides, should be removable in summer. When the construction of the conservatory does not admit of this, the plants in a few years become etiolated, and naked below, and are no longer objects of beauty; but when the whole superstructure, excepting the north side, is removed during summer, the influence of the rains, winds, dews, and the direct rays of the sun, produces a bushiness of form, closeness of foliage, and a vividness of color, not attainable by any other means. Therefore a conservatory of any of the common forms, unless it be one devoted entirely to palms, ferns, *scitamineæ*, or other similarly growing plants, should always be so constructed as to admit of taking off the sashes of the roof and the front; and if it be a detached structure in the flower-garden, a plan that would admit of the removal of every thing excepting the flues and the plants, would be the most suitable.

Consilium abeundi (Latin; *advice to depart*). There are two ways in Germany of dismissing a student from a university—the *consilium abeundi*, and the *relegatio*. The former is without any imputation on the morals of the student, and inflicted for youthful imprudences; the latter is the punishment of crimes. Since the late police regulations respecting the universities, the *relegatio* is an extremely severe punishment, as the German diet at Frankfort made a rule that no *relegated* student should be admitted into another university, or be capable of any appointment by any German government. The pardon of the ruler, however, can generally be obtained by a change of conduct.

Consistory (from the Latin *consistorium*). This word has been handed down from the time of the Roman emperors, particularly from the time of the emperor Adrian, who died A. D. 138. The emperors had a college of counsellors (*consistoriani*) about them, who were obliged to be always together (*consistere*), in order to determine the cases which were brought before the emperor. The council was called *consistorium sacrum*, or *consistorium principum*. When the Roman hierarchy had become firmly established, and the bishops had acquired jurisdiction in many cases, they imitated the institutions and names appertaining to the secular power. Thus, down to the present time, the highest council of state, in the papal government, has been called *consistory*. The ordinary consistory of the pope assembles every week in the papal palace; the extraordinary consistories are called together, by the pope, according as occasions arise for regulating anew the affairs of the church. These are called *secret consistories*. All political affairs of importance, the election of cardinals, archbishops and bishops, &c., are transacted in the consistory. Also in Protestant countries, on the European continent, consistories exist, which manage the affairs of the church as far as the monarch, the highest bishop, allows them. In Russia, they are little more than the executive officers of the minister, through whom he manages the concerns of schools and churches. In Vienna, and in Paris, likewise, Protestant consistories exist, which are the highest Protestant ecclesiastical bodies in those countries.

Consolato del Mare. (See *Commercial Law*.)

Consols; the abbreviation of *consolidated*, i. e., funds; the largest of the English funds, formed by the consolidation of different annuities, which had been severally formed into a capital. (See *Funds*.)

Consonance, if we deduce the definition of this word from its etymology, is the effect of two or more sounds heard at the same time; but its signification is generally confined to concording intervals. When the interval of a consonance is invariable, it is called *perfect*; and when it may be either major or minor, it is termed *imperfect*.

Consonants (from the Latin *con-sonans*, sounding at the same time); those letters which cannot be pronounced by themselves, but want the aid of vowels, as, *b*, *k*. This circumstance shows that the division of syllables into letters is artificial; the natural division of languages being syllables, which, in fact, are the elementary sounds of which languages are composed. It deserves, however, the praise of great ingenuity; nay, we consider it as one of those grand and simple ideas, which, like the invention of the mode of writing numbers, in the way in which it is performed with the *Arabic ciphers*, as they are called, evince the most philosophical spirit in their conceivers. There does not, in most instances, exist, in reality, so clear a division between the consonants and vowels of a syllable, as we express by writing, but both form one inseparable sound. Consonants are to be considered

the more permanent part of language. The vowels are comparatively little regarded in etymology. Some nations, as, for instance, the Hebrews, did not even write the greater number of the vowels. We do not know of any language, in which all the five simple vowels—*a* (bar), *e* (where), *i* (bill), *o* (rode), *u* (push)—or the five vowel sounds, such as they exist in the continental languages of Europe—are not found; but in respect to the consonants, languages differ very much: thus the German has no sound like the English *th*; the English no German *ch*; both no Polish guttural *l*, &c. Some nations have an antipathy towards certain classes of consonants, and use them, either not at all, or seldom, as is the case, for instance, with several Indian tribes. The various interesting relations of consonants to vowels, and of the sounds and letters in the different idioms, have not yet received any satisfactory investigation, which is so much the more desirable, as general philology has attracted, in this age, the attention of several distinguished literati, both in Europe and this hemisphere. Mr. P. Duponceau has led the way, in these investigations, by his English Phonology, or an Essay towards an Analysis and Description of the component Sounds of the English Language, published in the Transactions of the Amer. Philosophical Society, in Philadelphia, vol. i. new ser. 1818—a treatise which ranks with the other productions of the same acute, comprehensive and learned mind. We have no doubt that the more the science of languages is developed, the more obvious will be the necessity of the study of *phonology*, by which Mr. Duponceau denotes, in general, the knowledge of the sounds produced by the human voice. The various relations of consonants and vowels will then be investigated. In the Essay on Phonology, the learned inquirer says, "I have not been able to discover, in the English language, more than 29 pure elementary sounds, of which 7 are vocal, 21 organic or consonant, and 2 are aspirations or spirits." In a spelling-book of the Sandwich island language, printed at the Sandwich islands, there are but 12 consonants enumerated; *c*, *f*, *g*, *q*, *s*, *x*, *z*, *y*, not occurring in the language. In different languages, the consonants are classified in different ways: thus, in Greek, 1, according to the organs, into

Labials, β, π, ϕ, μ;
Linguals, $\delta, \tau, \theta, \nu, \lambda, \rho, \sigma$;
Palatics, γ, κ, χ:

or, 2, according to their qualities, into

Semi-vowels, λ, μ, ν, ρ, called, also, *liquids*, and the sibilant σ: and
Mutes, which are
Aspirates, ϕ, χ, θ;
Medials, β, γ, δ;
Soft, π, κ, τ.

It is a matter of the greatest interest to investigate the different relations of consonants, and to observe how they run into each other, both in words of the same language, and in words transferred from one language to another. This is of particular use in learning languages derived from Latin; for instance, the Latin *f* was pronounced, by the Spaniards, so soft, that it became an *h*, and at last vanished, in pronunciation, entirely, so that *facere* became *hacer*. The circumstance that consonants cannot be pronounced by themselves, and that there is an almost infinite variety of shades between the different consonants, and even in the pronunciation of the same consonant, is the reason that there is much more difference between different languages in regard to the pronunciation of consonants than that of vowels, and that hardly an alphabet exists which provides for every organic sound or consonant by a proper letter; almost all contrive, in a conventional way, to designate certain consonants peculiar to them. It ought, however, not to be forgotten, that one reason of this circumstance is, that most nations did not invent the alphabet which they use, but received that of a more cultivated nation, adapted to a more improved language. The Greek alphabet is one of the purest; we mean one which needs the fewest artificial contrivances, in order to designate its various sounds, though it has to denote many. The alphabet now used for the Sandwich island language may, indeed, be called purer; but it has to designate only a few elementary sounds, compared with the alphabets of other languages. We must direct our reader's attention to Mr. John Pickering's Essay on a Uniform Orthography for the Indian Languages of North America, in the Transactions of the American Academy, and published by itself, Cambridge, Mass., 1820, according to which the missionaries have already printed several works in those languages. (See *Orthography*.) The melodious sound or music of a language depends, in part, upon the proportion of the vowels to the consonants, a language becoming too hard if there are too many consonants. We do not say that the euphony of a language depends entirely on this proportion, and that it becomes the more melodious ac-

cording as the proportion of vowels is greater. In this, as in every thing else, much of the effect depends on the distribution of the elements. The proper disposition of the vowels and consonants, the happy mingling of the long and short, of the accented and unaccented vowels, produces the sweet harmony of a tongue. Many savage idioms, which sound little better than the inarticulate cries of animals, are full of vowels; indeed, the cry of animals itself is mostly composed of vocal sounds. The euphony of a phrase is not unfrequently produced by a consonant, as in the way in which a hiatus is avoided in Greek. So, too, the French, for the sake of euphony, sound the *s* in such connexions as *les ans;* while they omit sounding that letter in cases where it immediately precedes a consonant, as in *les chevaux*. There are several other things required to give harmony to the sound of a language; for instance, the clear pronunciation of the vowels, if they are in abundance. It occurred to the writer, while preparing this article, that it would lead to interesting results, if the proportion of the vowels and consonants, in the different languages, could be ascertained; but the conclusions, to which he has been led by such investigation as he has bestowed on the subject, are rather to be regarded as indications of what might be learned from more thorough inquiries, than as facts from which general deductions can be safely drawn. In making the comparison, passages have been taken from the popular poets of different countries. The different passages were in the same measure, or in measures very similar, so that the number of syllables in each would be very nearly the same. For English, Italian, German, Portuguese and Spanish, three stanzas have been taken from each of the following poems respectively—the beginning of *Childe Harold*, *Jerusalem Delivered*, the Dedication of Göthe, prefixed to his *Faust*, the *Luisiada* of Camoens, and the *Araucana;* for French, 24 lines of the beginning of the *Thébaide* of Racine; for Greek (Ionic), 24 hexameters of the beginning of the *Odyssey*, and for the Attic dialect, the beginning of the *Anabasis;* and for Latin, the 24 first hexameters of Ovid. To give any thing like accuracy to such investigations, it is obvious that the results ought to be taken both from prose and poetry, also from many different writers, and the language of conversation. In the beginning of the Odyssey, the proportion of consonants to vowels was found to be as 3 : 4—a very melodious proportion, as will soon be seen. It ought, however, not to be forgotten, that the Greek language is full of diphthongs, which, in counting, were reckoned always as two letters, because, with regard to many, it is not easy to say whether they were pronounced altogether as one sound, or, in some measure, as two, as the Italians pronounce *paura*. In the Attic dialect, the proportion of consonants to vowels was as 1 : 1.006. The difference, then, between the Ionic and Attic dialect, would be,

$$\begin{array}{lll} \text{Ionic,} & = 3:4 & = 1:1.333\ldots \\ \text{Attic,} & & = 1:1.006 \\ \hline & & \quad 0.327 \end{array}$$

there would, therefore, be 0.327 more vowels in the Ionic dialect—a very great difference. In Latin, the proportion of consonants to vowels was a little less than 6 : 5; and in Italian, as 11 : 10;

$$\begin{array}{lcl} \text{Latin,} & = & 1.2:1 \\ \text{Italian,} & = & 1.1:1 \\ \hline & & \quad 0.1 \end{array}$$

which would show, if euphony depended altogether upon this proportion, that the Italian language had added one tenth to the euphony of the Latin. The harmony of the Tuscan dialect was forcibly recalled to the mind of the writer, while counting the letters, by the great similarity in the number of letters in each verse: a very uniform distribution of vowels and consonants, therefore, exists in the beautiful and musical tongue of Ariosto and Dante. In Spanish (not counting the *h*, and counting *qu* before *e* and *i* as one letter, *ch* before *e* and *i* in Italian having also been counted as one), the proportion of consonants to vowels was found to be a little less than 1.24 : 1, or a little more than 6 consonants to 5 vowels. It must be observed here, that the Italian language has very many double consonants, as *opponer*, *volli*, *bellezza*, &c., which, in respect to euphony, ought to be counted only as one, because they are hardly heard as two, and only give a peculiar sound to the preceding vowel. But this would increase the proportion of vowels in the language very much, particularly in comparison with Spanish, which has thrown out almost all the double consonants except *ll*. In Portuguese, the consonants were to the vowels as 1.02 : 1. This shows a greater quantity of vowels in the Portuguese than in Spanish; but the very frequent repetition of nasal sounds in the former deprives it of much of its musical character. Thus far the amount of vowels and consonants was pretty easily as-

certained, because the three languages of Latin descent, whose proportions have been given, have so far simplified their orthography, that little more is written than the pronunciation requires: but how different is the case in French and English! What a difference, for instance, between the sounds and number of letters in the third verse of the *Thébaïde*,

Mes yeux depuis six mois étoient ouverts aux larmes,

and in the first verse of Childe Harold,

Oh thou, in Hellas deemed of heavenly birth!

In the specimens of these two languages, therefore, the writer first counted all the written consonants and vowels, and secondly the consonantal and vocal sounds, reckoning all the simple sounds, as *th*, *sh*, in English, or *eu*, *ou*, in French, as one, and leaving out the letters not pronounced at all, as *gh* in *though*, or *ent* in *étoient*. The proportion ascertained by the first enumeration may be termed the *orthographic proportion;* that ascertained by the second, the *phonic proportion*. The same way of counting was employed on German, not because, in this idiom, so many letters are written, without being pronounced at all, as in the two preceding languages, but because, in German, many simple sounds, as *eu*, *äu*, *sch*, *ch*, &c. are written with two characters. Every body sees, that such a distinction between the orthographic and phonic proportion was necessary, with a view to a comparison between these languages and those before mentioned. A Greek would have written *though* in this way, θω. In French, the orthographic proportion of the consonants to the vowels was found to be 1.27 : 1, and the phonic proportion, 1.34 : 1; so that, in French, more vowels are written and not separately pronounced, or not at all, than consonants. In English, the orthographic proportion of the consonants to the vowels was 1.52 : 1, and the phonic proportion, 1.51 : 1. In German, the orthographic proportion of consonants to vowels was 1.64 : 1, and the phonic proportion, 1.67 : 1. In Swedish, the proportion was 1.64 : 1; in Dutch, the proportion was 1.5 : 1, or 3 : 2. Of the two latter languages, the orthographic proportion only is given, as the writer is not sufficiently acquainted with them to decide, in regard to some letters, whether they should be taken phonically as one or two. The language of the Sandwich islands exhibited the uncommon proportion of consonants to vowels 1 : 1.8, or five consonants to nine vowels. The great proportion of vowels to consonants, in this idiom, may be seen in the following line, in which it ought to be remembered that every letter is to be pronounced:

—nei au ia oukou; ai no i ka olelo mai, i ka olelo a ke Akua.

This line is taken from the missionary spelling-book above mentioned. In the Seneca Indian language, into which the Gospel of St. Luke was translated by T. S. Harris, and published in New York, 1829, the proportion of the consonants to the vowels was as 1.18 : 1; in Chahta Indian, or the language of the Choctaws, the proportion was 1.2 : 1. The phonic proportion of consonants to vowels in Sanscrit was 1.12 : 1; in Malay, 1.33 : 1; in Persian, 1.33 : 1; in Hebrew, 1.2 : 1, and in common Arabic, 1.08 : 1. If we then arrange all these proportions in a tabular form, we shall have the following series:

	Cons.	Vowels.	
Sandwich islands . .	1	: 1.8	
Greek { Ionic dial.	1	: 1.333	
Greek { Attic dial.	1	: 1.006	
Portuguese	1.02	: 1	
Common Arabic . .	1.08	: 1*	
Italian	1.1	: 1	
Seneca Indians . . .	1.18	: 1	
Chahta Indians . . .	1.2	: 1	
Sanscrit	1.2	: 1*	†
Latin	1.2	: 1	†
Hebrew	1.2	: 1*	†
Spanish	1.24	: 1	
Persian	1.33	: 1*	
Malay	1.33	: 1* ‡	
French, phonic prop.	1.34	: 1	orthographic 1.27 : 1
Dutch	1.5	: 1 §	
English, phonic prop.	1.51	: 1	orthographic 1.52 : 1
Swedish	1.64	: 1	
German, phonic prop.	1.7	: 1	orthographic 1.64 : 1

It is easily seen, that, in the languages of Latin origin, the proportion of consonants to vowels is much smaller than in the Teutonic idioms. To compare the proportions of consonants to vowels, in such different families of languages; to show the proportions of the gutturals, labials, &c., of the different idioms; and, again, the proportion of these letters in the various families of languages, or according to the different parts of the earth to which they

* Those marked with * are counted phonically.

† It will be observed that Sanscrit, Latin and Hebrew appear to have the same proportion of consonants to vowels; and yet what a total difference between the sounds of these languages!

‡ The Malay is always considered as one of the sweetest and most Italian-like languages, though the proportion of letters would make it rank far behind Italian.

§ The many gutturals in Dutch render the language hard; though, according to the proportion only, it would be softer than English.

belong, as Asiatic, European, &c. languages, and many other calculations—might lead to very interesting conclusions. This branch of philology might be compared to the new department of *stœchiometry* in chemistry, which treats the proportions of the quantities of the elements in a state of neutralization or solution—a branch of science which every day becomes more important, and which has been illustrated by the labors, past and present, of a Berzelius, Klaproth, Döbereiner and others.

Constable (French *connétable*, from the Latin *comes stabuli*, count of the stable). This office existed as early as under the Roman emperors, and passed into the constitution of the Franks. After the *major domus*, or mayor of the palace, had become king, the *comes stabuli* became the first dignitary of the crown, the commander in chief of the armies, and the highest judge in military affairs. Under the last kings of the house of Valois, the *connétable* was of so much political influence, that Louis XIII., after the death of the *connétable* de Lesdiguieres, thought it best not to appoint a new one; and, in 1627, he abolished the office entirely. Napoleon reëstablished it as one of the high offices of the empire, but it vanished with his downfall. In England, there was formerly a lord high constable of England, an officer of the crown of the highest dignity. The office of constable appears to have been first granted by William the Conqueror to Walter, earl of Gloucester; or, according to some, to William Fitzosborne, or Roger de Mortimer, and became hereditary in two different families, as annexed to the earldom of Hereford. After two centuries, Edward Stafford, duke of Buckingham, then constable, being attainted of high treason, the office was forfeited to the crown (13 Henry VIII); since which time, lord high constables have been appointed only to officiate at coronations, and on other solemn occasions. There is also the constable of the hundred, or high, chief or head constable, probably sprung from this office, and the constable of the village, or petty constable. The first statute which appears to notice the constable is 13 Edward I, ch. 6, wherein "it is ordained that in every hundred, or franchise, there shall be chosen two constables, to make view of armor," &c.; since which period, the office has been familiarly known in law, and various duties have been imposed upon it by different statutes. Both the high and petty constables are chosen at the leet or term of the hundred, or by justices of the peace, and, in some places, by the parishioners of towns and parishes, according to ancient and particular usage. The duties of constables are multifarious, but may be summed up under two heads—repressing felonies, and keeping the peace, of which they are the conservators by the common law; they are also bound to execute the precepts of sheriffs, justices of the peace and coroners. In the U. States, constables are town or city officers of the peace, with powers similar to those possessed by the constables of Great Britain. They are invested also with powers to execute civil as well as criminal process, and to levy executions.

Constance, Lake of (or *Boden See*; properly *Bodman See*, from the old castle of Bodman), lies between Germany and Switzerland; is 10 leagues in its greatest length, and 3 in its greatest breadth, and 1½ in its least. It is 368 fathoms in its greatest depth, and 1089 feet above the level of the sea. It is divided into the Zell, or lower, and the Bregentz, or upper lake. Several rivers flow into it; e. g. the Rhine, which enters it at Rheineck, and issues from it at Stein; also the Bregentz, the Argen, the Schüssen, and four streams which bear the name of *Aach*. It contains the islands of Lindau, Reichenau, and Meinau. It has 73 kinds of marsh birds and water fowl, 20 kinds of shell fish, and 26 kinds of other fish, among which is the salmon-trout. The trade and commerce of the lake are inconsiderable, on account of the falls of the Rhine at Schaffhausen, and are confined to grain, salt, and *lake wine*, as the wine there made is called. The lake has not been frozen over since 1695. In 1824, steam-boat navigation was commenced on this lake.

Constance; capital of the Seekreis (Circle of the Lake), in the grand-duchy of Baden, on the lake of Constance, or Boden, where the Rhine unites the upper part of the lake with the lower; lat. 47° 36′ 10″ N., and lon. 9° 8′ E. The city and its two suburbs, connected by a bridge over the Rhine, are partially fortified, and very extensive, considering the small number of inhabitants (4500). The ancient episcopal residence and the cathedral contain beautiful monuments of Gothic architecture. Constance is memorable for the council of 1414—18. The German emperor, the pope, 26 princes, 140 counts, more than 20 cardinals, 7 patriarchs, 20 archbishops, 91 bishops, 600 other clerical dignitaries and doctors, and about 4000 priests, were present at this ecclesiastical

assembly, which was occasioned by the divisions and contests about the affairs of the church. From 1305—77, the popes had resided at Avignon; but, in 1378, Gregory XI removed the papal seat back to Rome. After his death, the French and Italian cardinals could not agree upon a successor, and so each party chose its own candidate. This led to a schism which lasted 40 years. Indeed, when the emperor Sigismund ascended the throne, in 1411, there were three popes, each of whom had anathematized the two others. (See *Antipope*). To put an end to these disorders, and to stop the diffusion of the doctrines of Huss, Sigismund went in person to Italy, France, Spain and England, and (as the emperor Maximilian I used to say in jest, performing the part of the beadle of the Roman empire) summoned a general council. The pretended heresies of Wickliffe and Huss were here condemned, and the latter, notwithstanding the assurances of safety given him by the emperor, was burnt, July 6, 1415; and his friend and companion, Jerome of Prague, met with the same fate, May 30, 1416. After the ecclesiastical dignitaries supposed they had sufficiently checked the progress of heresy by these executions, they proceeded to depose the three popes—John XXII (also called *XXIII*), Gregory XII and Benedict XIII. John, who was present at the council, was forced to consent to his own removal. He escaped, indeed, with the aid of Frederic, duke of Austria, who was excommunicated and put under the ban of the empire for rendering him assistance, and also lost a large part of his territory. But Frederic at last yielded, delivered John up to the council, and allowed him to be imprisoned. The former pope now gladly received the humbler office of a cardinal. Gregory XII experienced a similar loss of dignity. Benedict XIII, in Spain, retained, for some time, the name of pope, but was little noticed. Martin V, on the contrary, was legally chosen to the chair of St. Peter. Sigismund now thought a complete reformation might be effected in the affairs of the church; but, the new pope having retired to Italy against the emperor's will, the assembly was dissolved, and his object was not attained. It was first accomplished at the council of Basil. (q. v.) Travellers are still shown the hall where the council assembled (now occupied as a market-house); the chairs on which sat the emperor and the pope; the house where Huss was apprehended, and where his bust is still to be seen; his dungeon, in the Dominican monastery; his statue, which serves as a support to the cathedral; and, in the nave of the church, a brazen plate on the spot where the venerable martyr listened to his sentence of death; also the place, in a garden, where he was burnt. After the council had been convinced of the heresy of Huss, the bishop of Concordia read, in the cathedral, the sentence, that his books should first be burnt, and that he, as a public and scandalous heretic, and an evil and obstinate man, should be disgracefully deprived of his priestly dignity, degraded and excommunicated. The sentence was immediately executed, and began with the degradation. The bishop of Milan and six other bishops led Huss to a table where lay the garments used in the mass, and the other raiment of the priests: they clothed him with them, and, when he was in full dress, with the cup in his hand, the bishops once more called upon him to save his life and honor, and to abjure his opinions. Huss refused, and spoke to the people from the scaffold. After he had spoken, the bishops cried out to him, "Descend from the scaffold." The bishop of Milan and another bishop now took the cup, saying, "O Huss, we take from thee the cup in which was offered the blood of Christ; thou art not worthy of him." The other bishops then came forward, and each one took off some part of the priestly apparel, with the same speech. When they had finished with the clothes, they scraped his shaven crown (to designate the removal of the oil of consecration). Finally, when the excommunication was ended, they placed upon his head a paper crown, nearly a yard high, with devils painted upon it, and the inscription, "John Huss, arch-heretic." The bishops now turned to the emperor, and said, "The holy council of Constance now surrenders to the temporal power and tribunal John Huss, who has no longer office or dignity in the church of God."* The emperor arose, and took Huss, and said to the palatine Louis, "As we, dear cousin and prince, wear the temporal sword, take this John Huss, and have him punished as becomes a heretic." Louis laid down his princely ornaments, and led Huss to the provost of Constance, to whom he said, "Upon the sentence of our gracious lord,

* The Catholic clergy have always maintained that they cannot be concerned in the shedding of blood, being prohibited from so doing by the ecclesiastical law, so that a priest cannot even be a surgeon. On this ground, the inquisition professes never to have taken away life: all that it has done is to deliver up culprits to be dealt with by the secular power.

the Roman emperor, and our special order, take this master Huss, and burn him as a heretic." The governor gave him to the executioner and his attendants, and Huss was burnt.

Constance Falcon, or Phaulkon; a political adventurer of the 17th century, whose proper name was *Constantin*. He was born in the island of Cephalonia. His mother was a Greek. At the age of 12, he embarked for England, whence he went to the East Indies. Having gained some property in the service of the company, he undertook a trading voyage to the coast of Malabar. He was shipwrecked, and lost every thing; but, meeting with an ambassador from the king of Siam to Persia, who had suffered the same misfortune, he procured a bark, and conveyed the Siamese envoy to his own country. The latter recommended Constance to the *barcalon*, or prime minister, who took him into his service. On the death of his master, the king offered him the same post, which he accordingly accepted. He undertook the project of introducing Christianity among the Siamese, and induced the king of Siam to send an embassy to Louis XIV. The ambassadors died on their route; but the French monarch, hearing of the scheme, sent two envoys, with some Jesuits, to Siam. French troops were also introduced into the country. These circumstances aroused the jealousy of the native princes and nobility, the result of which was a conspiracy, which terminated in the dethronement of the king, and the death of Constance, who was beheaded.

Constant de Rebecque, Benjamin de; born at Lausanne, 1767; one of the most distinguished authors and greatest orators of the liberals or constitutionalists, on the left side of the French chamber of deputies; son of a general in the Dutch service, who had retired into his native country, French Switzerland, and commanded the militia there. The first of the family, Augustin Constant de Rebecque, quitted France, in 1605, and went to Geneva. The father of Benjamin Constant removed to France in 1791, and died, in 1812, a renaturalized citizen. The subject of this article was educated in the Carolinum, at Brunswick, in Germany, and, at a later period, studied the law. He subsequently accepted employments at the court of Brunswick, which, however, did not confine him there, for he resided partly in Paris, and partly in the Pays de Vaux, until he finally fixed his residence entirely in France. At the beginning of the revolution, he went to Paris, conducted, before the council of the five hundred, the cause of his countrymen who had been expelled by the repeal of the edict of Nantes, and soon distinguished himself by several works upon politics and revolutionary subjects, while he studied the German language and literature. With equal courage and sternness of purpose, he opposed anarchy and despotism. As a member of the *cercle constitutionnel*, in 1797, he distinguished himself by the fire of his orations. This caused his election to the office of tribune, in which capacity he brought every power into action, to maintain the equality of citizens, the representative system, the freedom of the press, and the regular administration of justice. He was the principal cause of the election of Talleyrand to the office of minister of foreign affairs, by the directory, in 1797. His speeches and writings rendered him odious to the first consul, and he was, consequently, dismissed from his station in 1802. Similarity of sentiments connected him with madame de Staël; and with her he travelled through several countries, till Napoleon permitted him to return to Paris for a limited period. He then went to Göttingen, and employed himself principally in the study of German literature, and in preparing a work on the history of different modes of worship. He again appeared at Paris in 1814, in the retinue of the crown-prince of Sweden, and publicly showed himself zealous for the cause of the Bourbons, particularly in March, 1815, by the violent articles which he published in the *Journal des Debats*. Notwithstanding this, however, he suffered himself to be elected counsellor of state by Napoleon, and assisted in forming the constitution of the Champ de Mai, which he defended warmly in many writings. On the return of the king, he went to Brussels. In November, 1816, he was permitted to return to Paris. In 1819, he was elected a member of the chamber of deputies. As an orator, he is one of the most clear and eloquent defenders of the *Charte*, and of constitutional principles; but his voice is indistinct, and his speech hasty; nor has he that powerful expression which carries away the hearer. In general, he writes better than he speaks; but no one knows better how to take advantage of any opportunities afforded by his opponents. He unites to great power of reasoning a fine irony, elegance of expression, and a pleasing style, so that, without overstepping the bounds of courtesy, he entirely discomfits his antagonists. He has, also, the art of justly timing his enthu-

siasm. He was particularly admired in the debate in which he spoke against the laws of exception, and against the alteration of the law of election. In his famous pamphlet *Des Motifs qui ont dicté le Nouveau Projet de Loi sur les Élections* (Paris, 1820), he considers the new law in the light of a victory of the party of the old nobility, not only over the liberals, but also over the interests of the nation, the ministry, and the king personally. He likewise gives vivid portraits of the duke Decazes, and the duke de Richelieu. With this spirit, he has always been one of the leading characters of the opposition; but his resistance to the administration has become more violent and bitter since the laws of 1822, which deprived the jury of the right to decide in cases of offences against the press, and subjected periodicals to the strict *surveillance* of the police. He and his friends have refused to vote several times during the last session, and Benjamin Constant has availed himself of every opportunity to pass from the subject in question to general accusations of the whole prevailing system of government. Amongst the speeches in which he proves the danger to the state, if the aristocracy should, by means of the new laws, gain ascendency, the one, in particular, discussing the police regulations in regard to periodicals, deserves to be named; likewise his speech of March 13, 1822, on the occasion of opening the budget, in which he attacks the whole system of administration, and expresses himself decidedly against the existing law of election, the missionaries, and the ministry in general. His works are distinguished by perspicuity and liveliness of style, richness of imagination, and often by depth of knowledge and acute observation, although he cannot entirely divest himself of his propensity for declamation, witticisms and sophisms. As early as 1796, he excited attention by his work *De la Force du Gouvernement actuel de la France*, &c.; again, in 1797, by *Des Réactions Politiques*, and *Des Effets de la Terreur*. In 1800, he wrote *Suites de la Contre-Révolution de 1660 en Angleterre*. The following essays are much esteemed:—*De l'Esprit de Conquête et de l'Usurpation dans leurs Rapports avec la Civilisation Européenne* (1814); *De la Liberté des Brochures, des Pamphlets et des Journaux, sous le Rapport de l'Intérêt du Gouvernement* (1814); *Réflexions sur les Constitutions, la Distribution des Pouvoirs, et les Garanties dans une Monarchie Constitutionnelle* (1814); *Observations sur le Discours prononcé par S. E. le Ministre de l'Intérieur en Faveur du Projet de Loi sur la Liberté de la Presse* (1814); *De la Responsibilité des Ministres* (1815); *Principes de Politique applicables à tous les Gouvernemens représentatifs et particulièrement à la Constitution actuelle de la France* (1815); *Principes du Droit Public* (1815); and *De la Religion considérée dans sa Source, ses Formes et ses Développemens* (Paris, 1824, 2 vols.). Besides these works, he has translated Schiller's *Wallenstein* into French, and adapted it for the stage. At the election of the chamber, in 1824, he was again chosen deputy, and, after a long dispute, at last acknowledged as a French citizen. A brother of Benjamin, Jean Victor, baron of Constant de Rebecque, born at Geneva, Sept. 22, 1773, lieutenant-general in the service of the Netherlands, served in the French army till 1792, and, after 1793, under the hereditary prince of Orange, at present king of the Netherlands, in the army of the allies: he entered the British service in 1795, and the Prussian service in 1798. The king of Prussia made him governor to the prince of Orange in 1805, whom he accompanied in the campaign in Spain, in 1811. In 1814, he fought in the Netherlands, and distinguished himself at the siege of Bergen-op-Zoom, at Quatrebras and Waterloo.

Constantia; a village of the colony of the cape of Good Hope, between Table bay and False bay, 5 leagues from the cape. It is celebrated for its wine, made from vines brought originally from Persia and the Rhine: 200 tons of this wine are annually made.

Constantine. Caius Flavius Valerius Aurelius Claudius Constantine, surnamed the *Great*, son of the emperor Constantius Chlorus and of his wife Helena, was born A. D. 274. When Constantine's father was associated in the government by Diocletian, the son was retained at court as a hostage, but was educated with the greatest care. After Diocletian and Maximian Hercules had laid down the reins of government, Constantine fled to Britain, to his father, to escape the machinations of Galerius. After the death of his father, he was chosen emperor by the soldiery, in the year 306. Galerius was very unwilling to allow him the title of *Augustus*, and gave him that of *Cæsar* only. Constantine, however, took possession of the countries which had been subject to his father, viz., Gaul, Spain and Britain. He overcame the Franks, who had formerly overrun the territory of Gaul, made prisoners of two of their leaders, followed them over the Rhine, sur-

prised and defeated them. He then directed his arms against Maxentius, who had joined Maximian against him. In the campaign in Italy, he saw, it is said, a flaming cross in the heavens, beneath the sun, bearing the inscription, "*In hoc signo vinces*" (Under this sign thou shalt conquer). In the following night, Christ himself appeared to him, and commanded him to take for his standard an imitation of the fiery cross which he had seen. He accordingly caused a standard to be made in this form, which was called the *labarum*. Some days after this (Oct. 27, 312), he vanquished the army of Maxentius, under the walls of Rome, and drove it into the Tiber. He then entered the city in triumph, set at liberty all whom Maxentius had unjustly imprisoned, and pardoned all who had taken up arms against him. He was declared by the senate chief Augustus and *pontifex maximus*. In the year 313, together with Licinius, he published the memorable edict of toleration, in favor of the Christians. By this, every one was allowed to embrace the religion most agreeable to his own mode of thinking, and all the property was restored to the Christians, that had been taken from them during the persecutions. They were also made eligible to public offices. This edict marks the period of the triumph of the cross and the downfall of paganism. Constantine had married his daughter to Licinius; but the latter, jealous of his fame, conceived a mortal hatred against him, which he displayed by persecuting the Christians. Both emperors took up arms, and met in Pannonia, A. D. 314. Constantine, surrounded by bishops and priests, besought the assistance of the God of the Christians; while Licinius, calling upon his soothsayers and magicians, relied upon the protection of their gods. Licinius was defeated, but the conqueror granted him peace. He, however, renewed hostilities, was vanquished again, taken prisoner, and put to death at Constantine's command. Thus the latter became, in 325, the sole head of the Eastern and Western empires. His first and chief cares were the establishment of peace and order, and the propagation of his religion. Many beneficial decrees were proclaimed by him. Among these were those which abolished all the establishments of debauchery, ordered the children of the poor to be supported at his expense, gave permission to complain of his officers, and promised that the emperor would not only hear complaints, but compensate the complainants for injuries received, when they were proved to exist. He diminished the land-taxes one quarter; and, to secure a fair distribution of them, he caused a new valuation of estates to be taken. The state treasury had always been enriched by the property of criminals; but Constantine spared the property of their wives, and ameliorated the condition of their children. Death in prison, he said, was a cruel punishment for the innocent, and an insufficient penalty for the guilty; he therefore ordered all trials of prisoners to take place at once. He forbade the use of unwholesome dungeons and oppressive chains. The reason which he assigned was, that it was his duty to secure the person of the accused, but not to injure him. He gave leave to sick persons, widows and orphans, to appeal from the local magistrates, and refused this privilege to their adversaries. It had been customary for the heirs of a person deceased to divide his slaves among them; Constantine forbade the separation, in these cases, of husbands from their wives, and of parents from their children. Divorces had been very common among the Romans, but he made them much more difficult. To the Christians he gave permission, not only to erect churches, but to be remunerated, for the cost of them, from his domains. Amidst all the cares of government and the occupations of war, he found leisure to assemble the council of Arles, to put an end to the schism of the Donatists. The œcumenical council, held at Nice, in Bithynia (q. v.), A. D. 325, was attended by him in person. Nov. 26, 329, he laid the foundations of a new capital of the empire, at Byzantium, upon the Bosphorus, in Thrace. The city of Byzantium had been almost entirely destroyed by Severus; it was rebuilt by Constantine, enlarged, and adorned with open squares, fountains, a circus and palaces, and called by his own name. Highly favored by nature, it soon rivalled Rome herself. All the wealth of the empire was collected in the East; thither the nations poured their tribute and their trade; and Rome, the ancient mistress of the world, sunk from her supremacy. Constantine divided the empire into four parts, which were governed by four pretorian prefects. These four parts contained 13 dioceses, each under the direction of a vicar, and the dioceses comprised 117 provinces. Constantine contributed to bring much evil on the empire by employing mercenary troops to guard the frontiers; and the legions which had occupied the frontiers

were dispersed in the provinces. Towards the close of his life, he favored the Arians, to which he was induced by Eusebius of Nicomedia; and he even banished many Catholic bishops. In the year 337, he fell sick in the neighborhood of Nicomedia, was baptized, and died after a reign of 31 years. Constantine committed a great political error in dividing his empire among his three sons, Constantine, Constantius and Constans. The condemnation of his son Crispus, who had been falsely accused by his stepmother of an attempt to seduce her, has always been considered a stain on his memory. His zeal for Christianity appears to have been excited not less by the knowledge, that the religion which was embraced by a majority of the inhabitants of the Roman empire must prevail, and that, of course, the strength of the government must be increased by protecting it, than by a wish to apply its consoling powers to the relief of a heavy conscience. He has been accused of inordinate ambition, excessive liberality, and an Oriental fondness for parade. But he was brave at the head of his army, mild and indulgent in his intercourse with his subjects, the favorite of his people, the terror of his foes. In the year 332, he fought successfully against the Goths, who had already experienced his power. His eldest son gained many victories over them, and about 100,000 of the enemy perished by the sword or by hunger. Constantine made use of his advantages only to grant them a favorable peace, upon terms equally beneficial to himself. He took this opportunity to rid his empire of a disgraceful tribute, which his predecessors had paid to these barbarians, and to secure his frontier upon the Danube. The Sarmatians, who had been expelled their country by the slaves whom they had injudiciously armed against the Goths, and who took refuge in his dominions, he provided with lands in Thrace, Lesser Scythia, Macedonia, and in Italy itself. He even resolved, in his 56th year, and but a short time before his death, to take the field against the Persians. He was fond of the sciences, as well as of arms, and gave them his protection. He read much, and wrote nearly all his own letters. In Eusebius we find many proofs of his theological learning. Some of the martyrologists have counted him among the saints, and fix the 20th of May as his festival. The Greeks and Russians observe it upon the 21st of the same month. Among all the writers who have attempted to describe the character, influence and policy of Constantine, Gibbon, from the extent of his researches and the profoundness of his views, appears to deserve the first place.

Constantine, grand-prince of Russia. Constantine Cæsarovitch Paulovitch, grand-prince of Russia, and second son of Paul I, was born May 9, 1779. The characteristics of this prince are, activity, energy, a rudeness often bordering upon barbarity, and a degree of personal courage approaching to rashness. In 1799, he distinguished himself, under Suwarroff, both as a soldier and a commander. Paul I bestowed upon him the title *Cæsarovitch* as a reward for his services. At Austerlitz, in 1805, he distinguished himself by his bravery, at the head of the guards, after he had been betrayed, by his courage, into a too hasty advance. In 1812, 13 and 14, he attended his brother, the emperor Alexander, in all his campaigns. He appeared at the congress of Vienna, and received from the emperor Francis the command of a regiment of cuirassiers. He was afterwards employed in superintending the affairs of the new kingdom of Poland. He was then successively made military governor and generalissimo of the Polish troops, and was present, as a deputy, at the last diet. He resided at Warsaw in great splendor. By an imperial ukase of April 2, 1820, he was divorced from his wife, a princess of Coburg, who resides in Switzerland, and was married, May 24, 1820, by permission of the emperor, to a Polish countess, Johanna Grudzinska, who was afterwards honored with the title of *princess of Lowicz*, from the name of some estates in Mosovia, which were bestowed upon the grand-prince. The title was to descend to the children of the marriage. Before this marriage took place, it was decreed, by an imperial ukase, that the children of princes, who were not related, by the mother's side, to any reigning house, should have no claims to the throne of Russia, in any case whatever. The prince had, during the life-time of his brother Alexander, renounced, in a secret instrument, dated Jan. 14, 1822, all pretensions to the throne; notwithstanding which he was proclaimed emperor, at Petersburg, in his absence, upon the decease of his brother, in Dec., 1825; but, as he preferred to adhere to his renunciation, his younger brother, Nicholas, became successor to Alexander. The grand-prince was present at the coronation of his brother, at Moscow, Sept. 3, 1826. In 1829, the

grand-prince retired from Warsaw, where he resided during the time of his administration, which had little to distinguish it but the rude and savage character of the ruler. Whether this retirement is in consequence of a disagreement between him and his brother, the emperor, is not precisely known. It is said, that Constantine will live, in future, in some place on the Rhine.

CONSTANTINE COLUMN. (See *Column.*)

CONSTANTINOPLE (the city of Constantine), called, by the Oriental nations, *Constantinia*, by the Turks, *Istambol* (that is, "into the city"), by the Walachians and Bulgarians, *Zaregrad* (royal city), was built, by Constantine the Great, on the site of the city of Byzantium, consecrated in the year 330, and named from him. It was, till the year 1453, the capital and residence of the emperors of the East, and has been, since that time, the capital of the Turkish sultans. This city has been besieged 24 times, but taken only 6, viz., by Alcibiades, Severus, Constantine, Dandolo, Michael Palæologus, and Mohammed. It lies in the government of Rumelia (*Rom-Ili*), on the sea of Marmora, and at the south-western opening of the Thracian Bosphorus, which separates Europe from Asia. It has a large and safe harbor. The interior of the city but ill corresponds to its noble amphitheatrical site and the splendor of its mosques and palaces. The streets are generally narrow, dirty and steep; the houses, for the most part, low, and built of mud and wood. There is also a great want of open squares. The largest open space is the Atmeidan, which is 250 paces long, 150 broad, and ornamented with an obelisk of granite 60 feet in height. The air is healthy; but from the neglect of all precautionary measures, the plague is brought hither from Egypt almost every year. The heat of summer is moderated by the winds from the Black sea; but these winds often produce a change from heat to cold, which is very unpleasant. The city, without including the suburbs, is about 11 or 12 miles in circumference. Including the suburbs, it is about 55 miles in circuit. The number of inhabitants in the city and suburbs is estimated, by Von Hammer, at 630,000; by others, at 1,000,000, of whom over 200,000 are Greeks, more than 40,000 Armenian Christians, more than 60,000 Jews, and the remainder Turks. Before the last great fire, the city contained 80,000 houses. It has the form of a triangle, with bent sides and an obtuse angle at the vertex. This vertex borders upon the straits; the north side upon the harbor, and the south upon the sea of Marmora. The west side, or base of the triangle, toward the main land, is the longest of the three sides, and extends, in a somewhat curved direction, from the harbor to the sea of Marmora upon the south. Upon the south-west side, not far from the sea, and within the wall, is the fortress of the Seven Towers. It included, at first 7, afterwards 8 towers, of which 4 were destroyed by an earthquake in 1754, and 1 in 1766. In the quarter belonging to the arsenal, which extends around upon the outside of the fresh water canal, are reckoned some portions of the city, which extend towards Galata. They are comprehended under the name of *Kassum Paschi*. Here are the residence of the capudan pacha, the arsenal, the navy-yard, and the prison of the galleys. Not far from this is the bagnio, or prison of the royal slaves, who are cruelly kept at hard labor in this swampy place. The suburb of Galata, surrounded by a wall of its own, lies opposite the seraglio, upon the harbor or strait which comes from the Black sea, is of considerable size, contains many large houses, and is the residence of the European merchants. Still farther, upon the straits, lies Tophana, which derives its name from the cannon-foundery. Upon the heights opposite Galata and Tophana lies the suburb of Pera, in which the European ambassadors reside. Not far from this is the open burying-place, for Europeans; and upon the heights just by is the suburb of St. Demetrius, inhabited, for the most part, by Greeks. If you sail towards the Asiatic side, you find, in the middle of the strait, upon a rock, the town of Leander, which is a sort of fortress and prison, and has some cannon. Beyond it lies the suburb of Scutari, also of considerable magnitude. The fortifications of Constantinople are unimportant. A wall, provided with 548 towers, partly of stone and partly of brick, which, towards the land, is double, and bordered by a broad ditch, surrounds the whole city. Upon the side towards the land, there are 6 gates; upon the sea of Marmora, 7; and as many as 13 upon the harbor, besides numerous smaller ones. The suburbs are, for the most part, open; but some are surrounded by old walls, built by the Greeks and Genoese. The seraglio (q. v.) is a collection of dwellings, baths, mosques, kiosks, gardens and groves of cypress. To distinguish it from other palaces, the Turks call it the *Padisha Serai*, or *imperial palace*. To the south-east

of it lie the gulf of Nice, the coast of Asia, and especially Scutari; towards the north-east, it borders upon the beautiful environs of the straits of Constantinople, and the suburbs of Tophana, Pera, Galata, which rise like terraces on the side of the hills opposite to it. With its garden, it forms a little city by itself, and is surrounded by a high wall, which is guarded by cannon upon the side towards the strait. These are discharged during the walks of the sultan, and also to celebrate occasions of public rejoicing. Single discharges indicate the execution of state-criminals within the walls of the seraglio. The chief entrance, before which, upon the one side, is the ancient church of St. Sophia, and upon the other a beautiful fountain, opens into the first court, which is irregular and badly paved, having on its left the mint, and on its right the stables, together with a large hospital, and other buildings. Here is also the royal mosque. At the distance of about 1000 paces from the outer gate is the second. It is, like the first, guarded by *capidschis*, and leads to a second court, smaller, but more elegant than the first. The edifices by which it is surrounded are not of uniform height, and are, in part, ornamented with colonnades. In the centre of the court is a beautiful fountain, surrounded by cypresses and wild mulberry-trees. The most important of the edifices comprised in this court is the divan. To this succeeds the third court, into which Turks only are admitted, and none, even of these, who do not belong to the court, or are not especially commanded to enter. The ambassadors pass, by a covered way, from the divan to the audience-chamber of the sultan, which is in the real seraglio, and is a splendid apartment, although small and dark. Beyond this lie the apartments of the sultan and his wives, into which it is not allowable to enter. Externally are discoverable a number of large, irregular edifices, which are surmounted by cupolas covered with lead. Besides this chief seraglio, there is also, in the centre of the city, the *Eski Serai*, built by Mohammed II, in which are shut up the wives and slaves of the deceased sultans, who have, however, the privilege of marrying and leaving it, if they choose. The number of *dschamis* and mosques in Constantinople amounts to near 500. Among these, the oldest and most remarkable is the former church of St. Sophia, founded by Justinian, which is 270 feet in length by 240 in breadth. No one, who is not a Mussulman, can enter this without express permission from the sultan. The cupola is supported by pillars covered with marble. In this large cupola are comprehended 8 half cupolas. The floor is covered with porphyry, verd antique, and rich carpets. From without, nothing is discernible but unsightly masses of building; the various irregular parts, of which it is composed, have no symmetry; the dome alone rises majestically above it. The 4 minarets, which were added by Selim II, stand insulated, have each a different form, and resemble Gothic towers. Next to this in celebrity, are the mosques of Selim, Mahmoud, Achmet, Soliman, the sultana Valide, the mother of Mohammed VI, and of Bajazet. There are 5000 oratories (*metscheds*), besides 23 Greek, 3 Armenian, 1 Russian, and 9 Catholic churches; 130 public baths; 11 academies, in which 1600 young Turks are educated at the sultan's expense, for the future service of the church and state; 518 high establishments for education (*medrese*), in which the pupils are supported and instructed gratis; 1300 children's schools; 13 public libraries, none of which, however, contains over 2000 manuscripts, and none any printed books. There are, also, many caravansaries; a mathematical and nautical school; Turkish, Jewish and Armenian printing-offices; and a great number of coffee-houses, ornamented in the Chinese style, and singularly painted, in which people of all classes mix together, many of whom smoke, in the course of the day, 30 or 40 pipes of tobacco, and drink as many cups of coffee. To the class of public houses belong, also, the *teriak-hane*, or opium-booths, where the guests generally assemble in the evening, chew their pills of opium, drink a glass of cold water, and await the intoxicating results. The manufactories supply morocco, cotton, silk and linen cloths, carpets, harness, pocket-books, arms of various sorts (including bows and arrows), gold, silver, and embroidery. There is no want of dyers, stone-cutters, jewellers, &c. Trade is chiefly conducted in the khans and bazars. In the latter are to be found merchants from all parts of the Turkish dominions. These bazars are large buildings of stone. One of them, the *Misr chartsche*, or Egyptian market, contains goods from Cairo, especially minerals and medicines. Other parts of the bazar are occupied by jewellers and booksellers, who keep for sale Turkish, Persian and Arabian manuscripts. For the most part, particular articles are to be found in particular streets: thus the dealers in furs, the shoe-makers,

and pipe-makers, have each their own streets. The bazars will well repay the trouble of visiting them. Two *kiayas*, or deputies, appointed by the government, superintend the management of these repositories, and answer for any theft or disorder committed within the walls. The buildings are all fire-proof, and are the places where wealthy Turks deposit their most valuable property, and where sales by auction are held. The *charshis* are used for the retail trade. These are an immense assemblage of shops, where all the different trades are carried on, and almost every thing requisite for food, clothing or furniture may be purchased. These endless rows of stalls along each side of a covered street, wherein the article is often manufactured as well as sold, present a constant succession of novel objects, and the motley throng of purchasers is amusing and instructive. Sedate Turks, saturnine Armenians, swaggering Ghaliyonjis, saucy Franks, thin-bearded Arabs, Bostanjis, with their long-tailed scarlet caps, dervishes, crowned with dirty caps, that look like extinguishers, are all crowded together, each driving his own bargain, and betraying, by his physiognomy and gestures, the characteristics of his calling, nation and habits. Constantinople, besides the many splendid and spacious mosques with which it is adorned, can boast of hospitals, alms-houses, schools, colleges and public libraries, such as rival the rich institutions founded by the caliphs of Bagdad and Cairo, and surpass any now existing in other parts of the Mohammedan world. The Turkish baths contain three spacious apartments, one within the other, paved with marble, and lighted by holes in the dome above, filled with colored glass. In the first chamber, the attendants prepare the linen and other articles used by the bathers. In the second, the visitors undress, and fasten round their waists a thin covering, which hangs down to the ankles. They then enter the third room with high wooden clogs on their feet, to protect them from the floor, which is heated by vapors from a caldron immediately beneath. The bather is stretched out upon a raised platform, and the attendant scours him well with cold and warm water, rubbing him with *keffeh-kil*, a perfumed saponaceous earth. Numbers of persons of the same sex bathe together, but every thing is conducted with the strictest regard to decency. The baths are open to women in the day-time, and to men at night. A clean shirt is thrown over the bather, and a handkerchief tied round his head, as soon as his ablution is completed, and he returns into the antechamber, called *jamekan* (dressing-room), where a clean bed is ready for him, and he falls into a refreshing slumber, accompanied by a luxurious sensation of repose, hardly conceivable by those who have not enjoyed it. *Shampooing* is seldom used by the Turks, except in the case of women a short time after confinement. Among the European nations, the Italians, Russians, English and French (all called *Franks*) are those which trade here the most. In the neighborhood of Constantinople lie Eyoub, a town, or, rather, a suburb of the city, with a mosque, in which the new sultan is publicly girded with his sword, which is equivalent to the ceremony of coronation; Buyukdere (q. v.), Belgrade, formerly the residence of the ambassadors in summer, but at present deserted, on account of the unwholesomeness of the air; Fondukli, with a fortress; Dulmach Backtsche (the garden of melons); an imperial palace, in the Chinese style; Beschicktasch, a town containing an imperial summer palace, a great part of which was burnt in 1816. A panorama of the city, taken upon the spot by Prévot, was exhibited in Paris, in 1825, by Romay. (See *Dardanelles*.)

CONSTANTINOPLE, GENERAL COUNCILS OF. These include the second, fifth, sixth, the Trullan and the seventh. The second was convoked by Theodosius the Great, in 381, to put down the enemies of the Nicene creed (see *Creeds*), who had already been restrained by his decrees. 150 Oriental bishops, assembled for that purpose, condemned the Arians of all parties, together with other heretics, and, in a supplement to the creed above-mentioned, they decided that equal honor was due to the Holy Ghost as to the Father and the Son, with a view of recalling to the orthodox faith the Macedonians or Pneumatomachists, who had adopted the Arian doctrine of the inferiority of the Holy Spirit. These, however, separated from the council, and suffered themselves to be declared heretics. The ordinances of this council made the bishop of Constantinople next in rank to the bishop of Rome, and committed the disputes of their bishops to the decision of the emperor. Theodosius confirmed the decrees of the council, and even procured them authority in the West. The Greek church took advantage of the circumstance that the Holy Ghost was declared to proceed only from the Father, to set up their claims to orthodoxy against the Catholics. The fifth general coun-

cil was held, by the emperor Justinian, in 533, to decide the dispute of the three chapters. The three chapters were three doctrines of the bishops Theodore of Mopsuestia, Theodoret, and Ibas of Edessa, who were suspected of Nestorianism, and declared heretics by the council. The 165 bishops, nearly all from the East, who were assembled at this meeting, excluded from their communion the Roman bishop Virgilius, who would not unconditionally condemn the three chapters, and with him many divines, even some that were dead; for example, Origen. They were only the contemptible organs of the senseless zeal of Justinian. The sixth council, held in 680, by the order of the emperor Constantine, in the Trullan palace (so called on account of its vaulted roof), by 166 bishops, of whom the legate of the Roman bishop Agatho had the greatest influence, condemned the doctrines of the Monothelites, and declared their leaders heretics. Rejecting the Bible and reason, they proved, from the fathers, that Christ acted not merely with one will, which the Monothelites maintained, but with both a divine and a human will, in accordance with his two natures. Among the condemned Monothelites was Honorius, the predecessor of Agatho. As these two councils made no new ecclesiastical laws, the emperor Justinian II, in 692, again summoned a general council, which, from the purpose of the meeting to supply the defects of the fifth and sixth, was called the *quinisexta*, and, because it was held again in the Trullan palace, the *Trullan council;* but it is not numbered among the councils of Constantinople. It confirmed the decrees of the previous sessions, and instituted rigid laws for the clergy: among them were those fixing the rank of the patriarchs and the permission of marriage to priests, which were so offensive to the Latin church, that she rejected all the decrees of this council; but, in the Greek church, they are still valid. The seventh ecclesiastical council, which was held, in 754, in Constantinople, by 338 bishops, was not attended nor acknowledged by the Latin clergy. This council condemned, with the utmost severity, the worshippers of images, many of whom were put to death in consequence. But the decrees of this council lost all their validity in consequence of the subsequent decrees of the council of Nice in 787. (See *Iconoclasts*).

Constellations are the groups into which astronomers have divided the fixed stars, and which have received names for the convenience of description and reference. The science of the constellations is called *astrognosy*. The division of the stars into groups was begun in ancient times. It is plain that the union of several stars into a constellation, to which the name of some animal, person or inanimate object is given, must be entirely arbitrary, since the several points (the stars) may be united in a hundred different ways, just as imagination directs; for instance, the best known of all the constellations, the Great Bear, or the Wain, might just as well be made to represent a great variety of other things. It is enough that astronomers know what is meant by a certain constellation, so as to understand each other. The division of the heavens into constellations is like the division of a classic into pages and paragraphs. Ludwig Ideler's *Untersuchung über den Ursprung und die Bedeutung der Sternnamen*, Berlin, 1809 (Inquiry into the Origin and Meaning of the Names of the Stars, by Louis Ideler), is a work of great interest. The ancient divisions of the constellations have been retained by the moderns, with the addition of such as have been newly discovered. When and where the first constellations were formed is not known. It is very probable that some of the most remarkable collections of stars, such as Charles's Wain, the Pleiades, Orion, &c., were formed into constellations, and had names given them, in very early ages. Some of them, by their different appearances, serve to mark out the different seasons of the year; and, on that account, were not only considered as a kind of directory for the commencement of ploughing, sowing, and other operations of husbandry, but were also regarded as having a great influence on the temperature of the air, and the fertility of the earth. Hence, from their being signs, pointing out the times of the year when heat or cold, dryness or moisture, predominated, they were regarded as the causes of these states of the atmosphere. They were also imagined to have dominion over minerals, vegetables and animals; over the complexions, constitutions, and even the dispositions of mankind. This opinion obtained credit the more easily, as the sun, moon, planets and stars were believed to be of a divine nature, insomuch that some persons conceived that they were inhabited by an inferior kind of deities, who governed their motions, and directed their influences; while others thought that they were animals, each of which had a living soul; and others again supposed that they were animated by a part of the substance of the

Supreme Being. Each of these notions led mankind to pay them a sort of religious worship. The Egyptians divided the heavens into several regions, which they called the stations or mansions of their gods. They worshipped the heavenly bodies, and more especially the sun and moon, which they called their *great gods*, denominating the sun *Osiris*, and the moon *Isis*. They also imagined that they found in various animals some qualities corresponding to the motions, appearances or influences of the sun, moon, and some of the stars; hence they were induced not only to use those animals in their hieroglyphic representations of their deities, but also to pay them divine honors, and denominate the constellations from them. The Greeks, who learned astronomy of the Egyptians, retained several of their figures, as the ram, the bull, the dog, &c., but accommodated almost all of them to the fabulous history of their gods and heroes, whom they placed among the stars. The Romans imitated them, and the poets of both nations have given us wild and romantic fables about the origin of the constellations, probably derived from the hieroglyphics of the Egyptians, and transmitted, with some alterations, from them to the Greeks. Many of the figures that occur among our present constellations were originally Egyptian. The names which the Chinese and Japanese give to the groups of stars forming our constellations are very different from those which we have given them. Some Arabians, too, though they received their astronomy from the Greeks, changed the names of the constellations, from a superstitious notion, that it was unlawful to draw any human figure. The zeal of some Christian philosophers has induced them to endeavor to drive the heathen deities and heroes from the skies. The venerable Bede gave the names of the twelve apostles to the twelve signs of the zodiac. Judas Schillerius, in 1627, completed the reformation, and gave Scripture names to all the constellations in the heavens. Weigelius, professor of mathematics in the university of Jena, made a new order of constellations, converting the firmament into a *cœlum heraldicum*, and introducing the arms of all the princes of Europe among the constellations. The more intelligent astronomers, however, never approved of innovation, because it tended to introduce confusion into the science. The old constellations, therefore, are, for the most part, still retained. Ptolemy enumerates, in his *Almagest*, forty-eight constellations, which are still called the *Ptolemæan*. They are the following:—1. The twelve signs of the zodiac (see *Ecliptic*). 2. Twenty-one constellations found in the northern hemisphere—the Great Bear (*Ursa Major*, the Wain), the Little Bear (*Ursa Minor*), Perseus, the Dragon, Cepheus, Cassiopeia, Andromeda, Pegasus, Equulus (Horse's Head), the Triangle, the Wagoner (*Auriga*), Boötes, the Northern Crown (*Corona Borealis*), Ophiuchus, the Serpent (*Serpentarius*), Hercules, the Arrow (*Sagitta*), the Lyre, the Swan (*Cygnus*), the Dolphin, the Eagle (*Aquila*). 3. Fifteen constellations in the southern hemisphere—Orion, the Whale (*Cetus*), Eridanus, the Hare (*Lepus*), the Great Dog (*Canis Major*), the Little Dog (*Canis Minor*), Hydra, the Cup (*Crater*), the Crow (*Corvus*), the Centaur, the Wolf (*Lupus*), the Altar (*Ara*), the Southern Fish (*Piscis Australis*), the Argo, the Southern Crown (*Corona Australis*). The poets of antiquity very ingeniously connected the most popular fables of mythology with the different constellations. Some of the constellations, however, have been changed; and even the ancients sometimes added new ones, such as the Hair of Berenice (*Coma Berenices*), and the Antinoüs. Much still remained for modern astronomers to do. Hevelius introduced the twelve following new constellations:—the Shield of Sobiesky, the Squirrel, Camelopardalus, the Sextant, the Greyhounds, the Little Lion, the Lynx, the Fox and the Goose, the Lizard, the Little Triangle, Cerberus, and Mons Mænalus. When the Europeans began to navigate the southern hemisphere, many new stars of course appeared to them, which they never had seen in Europe. Thus twelve new constellations were added in the 16th century—the Indians, Crane, Phœnix, Fly, Southern Triangle, Bird of Paradise, Peacock, American Goose, Hydrus or Water-Snake, Sword-Fish, Flying-Fish, Chamæleon. Halley, in 1675, during his stay at St. Helena, added the Royal Oak (*Robur Carolinum*); and Lacaille, in 1750, during his stay at the cape of Good Hope, added the fourteen following:—Officina Sculptoria, Fornax Chemica, Horologium, Reticulus Rhomboidalis, Equuleus Pictorius, Cæla Praxitelis, Pyxis Nautica, Octans Hadleianus, Machina Pneumatica, Circinus (the Compass), Quadra Euclidis, Telescope, Microscope, and Table Mountain. To these have been added the Lapland Reindeer, the Hermit, the Brandenburg Sceptre, the Telescope of Herschel, the Shield of Poniatowsky, or Taurus Ponia-

towsky, the Honor of Frederic, and others, which cannot well be enumerated here, as their names have not been sanctioned by all nations. Thus the professors of Leipsic made of a part of Orion the constellation of Napoleon, but it did not come into use. The different stars of a constellation are marked by Greek letters. Several have also particular names. They are also divided according to their apparent magnitude; thus we speak of stars of the first, second and third, up to the sixth magnitude. The last are the smallest visible to the naked eye. One of the best works on astrognosy, in the present state of this science, is Bode's *Anleitung zur Kenntniss des gestirnten Himmels*, 9th ed. Berlin, 1823, with plates (Guide to the Knowledge of the Starry Heavens). On the subject of the constellations, and astrognosy of the ancients, the same author has written, in his *Ptolemæus, Beobachtung und Beschreibung der Gestirne*, Berlin, 1795 (Ptolemy, Observation and Description of the Stars). (For information respecting celestial globes, see *Globe*.)

Constituent Assembly; the first convention of the delegates of the French nation, (June 17, 1789), consisting of 600 deputies of the third estate, 300 of the nobility, and 300 of the clergy. The famous oath taken in the tennis court, June 20, 1789, not to dissolve until they had completed a constitution for their country, is one of the noblest displays of the spirit of a nation bent on recovering and securing its liberty. (See *France*.)

Constitution, in medicine; the general condition of the body, as evinced by the peculiarities in the performance of its functions: such are the peculiar predisposition to certain diseases, or liability of particular organs to disease, the varieties in digestion, in muscular power and motion, in sleep, in the appetite, &c. Some marked peculiarities of constitution are observed to be accompanied with certain external characters, such as a particular color and texture of the skin, and of the hair, and also with a peculiarity of form and disposition of mind; all of which have been observed from the earliest time, and divided into classes, and which received names, during the prevalence of the humoral pathology, that they still retain. (See *Temperament*.)

Constitution, in the Roman church; a decree of the pope in matters of doctrine. In France, however, this name has been applied, by way of eminence, to the famous bull *Unigenitus*. (q. v.)—*Apostolic constitutions* is the name given to a collection of ecclesiastical laws and regulations ascribed erroneously to Clement I. Their contents betray a later origin. No father of the church, before the 4th century, mentions them. Epiphanius is the first who speaks of them as a genuine work of the apostles, though he does not pretend to deny the doubts which many persons entertained respecting their genuineness. The Trullan council (692) considered only part of them genuine, and rejected the collection on account of the interpolations which it had experienced. Most probably this collection was made in the third century, and compounded of regulations already existing, and others invented by the compiler, who was an adversary of the Gnostics. (q. v.) But it is still very dubious whether the collection, which we have at present under the above name, is the same mentioned by the fathers of the church. The Catholics themselves are suspicious of them. The *Dictionnaire de Théologie* says of them, *Ces Constitutions prétendues apostoliques sentent, dans plusieurs endroits, l'Arianisme, renferment des anachronismes et des opinions singulières sur plusieurs points de la religion.*

Constitution; the fundamental law of a state, whether it be a written instrument of a certain date, as that of the U. States, or an aggregate of laws and usages which have been formed in the course of ages, like the English constitution. I. Constitutions, according to their origin or their fundamental principle, may be divided into 3 classes:—1. those established by the sovereign power; 2. those formed by contracts between nations and certain individuals, whom they accept as sovereigns, on condition of their complying with the terms of the contract; 3. those formed by a compact between different sovereign powers. 1. The first class may be again divided into, *a.* constitutions established by a free sovereign people for their own regulation—the only ones which rest on a just and philosophical basis (although such as are embraced in the other descriptions may be the best which circumstances will allow in given cases); of this sort are the constitutions of the U. States; and, *b.* such as have been, in some instances, granted by the plenary power of absolute monarchs to their subjects, and which, in theory, are the voluntary gift of the beneficence of the ruler. These are called, by the French, *constitutions octroyées*, from *octroyer*, to grant. Such an instrument is the French *Charte*, which commences with the words *Nous avons volontairement et par libre exercice de notre autorité royale*

accordé et accordons, fait concession et octroi à nos sujets, &c. 2. The second great class of constitutions mentioned above includes such as have been formed by a contract between the future ruler and the people. These are mutually binding on each party, as long as the other fulfils his duty. Such, in a great degree, is the English constitution. And a constitution *octroyée* partakes much of the nature of a compact, as soon as the people have sufficient spirit and sense of justice to prevent it from being infringed or abolished, and, asserting the natural rights of men, whose rulers exist only for their benefit, avow that they will submit to the government only as long as the government observes the constitution. In fact, a constitution *octroyée*, in any case, can hardly be regarded otherwise than as a compact, proceeding, as it does, from the wants of the times and the demands of the people, and expressing the intention of the ruler to observe certain rules, which these wants and demands prescribe. Where would be its value, how could it be regarded as a fundamental law, controlling the operations of the government, if it were liable to be abolished at any moment, at the pleasure of the sovereign? That the monarch acted from compulsion in granting the constitution, only proves that the character of the times made it indispensable. The French ultras are grievously mistaken, when they pretend that the king may abolish the *Charte* because he granted it. It is not the words with which it is prefaced, but the circumstances under which it was given, that are to determine its character. It was granted to satisfy the demands of the French people, and as a pledge for the security of their liberties; and as long as they hold to the grant, it is impossible for the ruler to recall it. Such a constitution, therefore, may be considered as resting virtually on a compact.* 3. Some constitutions are compacts between several sovereign powers. Such was the constitution of the German empire, and that of the United Provinces of Holland, and such is also the Swiss confederation. The constitution of the U. States of America, although the different states call themselves sovereign, proceeded, in point of fact, from the people of the U. States collectively, as is apparent from the very beginning of the instrument, which is in these words—"We, the people of the U. States," and not "We, the states." Moreover, it can escape no one's observation, that the congress, established by this constitution, has rights and powers far exceeding those which other confederate, but entirely distinct governments, are wont to allow each other, and that the constitution, in short, unites all the states into one nation, the government being called, by all parties, the *national government*. Governments entirely and virtually distinct from each other never would, however closely confederated, allow a government, particularly a national government, to be established over themselves. It seems, therefore, that the constitution of the U. States is more than a mere compact between independent powers, yet less than the simple constitution of an undivided nation: it ought rather to be considered as forming one whole with the different constitutions of the states, which have given up to the general government most of the rights of sovereignty, as that of making war and peace, coining, &c.* II. In regard to political principles, constitutions are, 1. democratic, when the fundamental law guaranties to every citizen equal rights, protection, and participation, direct or indirect, in the government, such as the constitutions of the U. States, and of some cantons of Switzerland. 2. Aristocratic, when the constitution establishes privileged classes, as the nobility and clergy, and intrusts the government entirely to them, or allows them a very disproportionate share in it. Such a constitution was that of Venice, and such still are those of some

* If we consider strictly the origin of the two great divisions of constitutions, we shall find that they all recognise the sovereignty of the people. They are, as we have said, established either by the people themselves, or by a contract between the people and their future ruler, or are granted by the ruler. In the first case, the constitution is a direct emanation from their sovereign power. In the second case, it is no less so; for they confer the rights of sovereignty, which they could not do unless they possessed them. In the third case, the constitution, as we have said, is virtually a compact, and, as such, recognises the independence of the contracting parties, and admits that the people, collectively, have no superior.

* For more particular information respecting the constitution of the U. States, we would refer the reader to the *Federalist*, the contemporaneous exposition of this instrument, by some of the ablest men concerned in its preparation. The *View of the Constitution of the U. States of America*, by William Rawle, Philadelphia, 1829, contains a lucid explanation of its principles, and has been, as well as the Federalist, introduced, as a textbook, into some of the American colleges. The *Elementary Catechism of the Constitution of the U. States, for the Use of Schools*, by J. A. Stansbury, Boston, 1828, exhibits the principles of the constitution in a way, to make them easily intelligible, and would prove a useful guide to a foreigner desirous of obtaining a general insight into the constitution, without the trouble of much study.

Swiss cantons, for instance, Berne. 3. Of a mixed character. To this latter division belong some monarchical constitutions, which recognise the existence of a king whose power is modified by other branches of government, of a more or less popular cast. The English constitution belongs to this division. It has often been called a mixture of democracy, aristocracy and monarchy; but, in fact, even the representation of the commons of that country is, in a great measure, under the control of the privileged orders, so that the government falls, almost entirely, into the hands of the aristocracy, and little of the democratic element is visible. III. The forms of government, established by the various constitutions, afford a ground of division important in some respects; and, lastly, IV. The principle on which a constitution establishes the representation, or the way in which the people participate in the government, furnishes an important means of classification. 1. Some allow the people to partake in the government, without representation. This is the case in several of the small Swiss cantons, in which the whole people assemble and legislate. It is obvious that such a constitution can operate only where the number of citizens is very small, and, even then, it will be, almost always, objectionable. 2. Some are of a representative character; that is, all the citizens do not take an immediate part in the government, but act by their representatives. Constitutions of this sort, *a.* either establish a general and equal representation, as those of the U. States; or, *b.* connect the right of representation with particular estates (q. v.) and corporations. The term *representative constitution* is frequently applied exclusively to the former by way of eminence. A great desideratum, in these times of political agitation, is a digest of all constitutions, existing and abolished, a *codex constitutionum*, exhibiting all the different trials, which men have made, to provide for their permanent security and welfare. The only attempt to execute such a work, as far as our knowledge extends, has been made in the German language—*Die Europäischen Constitutionen*, Leipsic, 1817. Though a great part of Europe is engaged in a controversy on the subject of constitutions,—the people desiring them, the governments resisting their wishes, and mercenary writers attacking and vilifying their advocates,—it would be ridiculous for us to enter into an argument in defence of the advantage and necessity of constitutions, since every one of our readers is convinced that governments are instituted for the welfare of the people, and that the true welfare of nations is founded on liberty and justice; that liberty and justice imply restraints on rulers, and the security of his rights to every citizen; and that constitutions, therefore, are essential, as assigning to every branch of government its powers and limits, protecting against aggression, and ascertaining the purposes for which the government exists, and the rights which are guarantied to every citizen. It would be, perhaps, interesting, if we had room enough, to give a sketch of the most celebrated arguments against constitutions; but the substance of them amounts to this, that states and nations resemble families, the monarchs being in the place of the fathers; that the father of a family has a divine right to govern his family, and provide for his children, according to his discretion, and that a family would be in a most unfortunate condition, in which, to prevent quarrels and discontent, the father should be obliged to refer to a written instrument, in which the duties of every member of the household were laid down. The comparison of a state to a family has come to our times, from ages when the principles of government were little understood, when mankind was gaining political experience at a dear rate, and when the whole subject of government was very ill defined, because the general principles of the subject, and the limitations of the different branches of the administration, were not, and, perhaps, could not be clearly understood. In regard to those times, the comparison of the head of a government to a father may be excused. But, in times like the present, after so much experience, so many examples, so much investigation into the nature of governments, nothing but narrow-minded prejudice, wilful perversion of reason, or degraded servility towards the powers that be, can lay down such a principle. No comparison, probably, has done more mischief, than the one alluded to, because it perverts the very principles and elements of the subject to be elucidated. No two things can be more different than a state and a family. The ruling principle of the latter is love, forbearance and kindness; that of the former, stern justice, strict adherence to strict law. A family is composed of parents and children, bound together by the ties of natural affection, and the claim of infancy on manhood for protection. A state is composed of men comparatively unconnected and independent. Families are united by

nature, states by law. How unfortunate would be a family in which every member should insist, obstinately, on his right! How unfortunate have been those nations, which have left every thing to the kindness and paternal care of their rulers, and have not insisted, obstinately, on their rights! In very many instances, nations have prepared the way for the loss of their liberties by the concessions into which they have been hurried by gratitude towards great national benefactors, or those whom they have regarded as such. The greatest favor that monarchs could bestow on nations, would be to give up all favor, to make justice the only rule of government. V. To return to the subject of representative constitutions. These may be divided into, 1, such as are founded on the union of the feudal estates, the clergy, nobility, citizens and peasantry; the two latter of which derive their right of representation from the charters of the ancient corporations: 2, such as establish the right of a general representation, like the American constitution, and such as partake of both characters, like the British constitution. Those of the first class either originated in the feudal times, or have been since copied from such as did. Our limits will not allow us to discuss the mode in which the estates grew up and became the basis of these constitutions. (See *Estates.*) We will only observe, that external causes exerted here their usual influence; that the feudal states were conglomerates of many heterogeneous bodies; and that it was reserved for later ages to unfold the true principles of government; to separate the essential from the unessential and injurious; to give stability, distinctness and extent to principles before unsettled, indefinite and limited in their operation. The causes, however, which produced the feudal constitutions, and established the division of estates, have almost all ceased to operate long ago. The art of printing, schools, post-offices, and an improved sense of justice, have long since overthrown the barrier which separated the different classes; and the constitutions which still remain, founded on the idea of estates, are equally unjust and inconsistent with the spirit of the age, conferring, as they do, exclusive privileges on particular classes, when almost all the causes for which they were originally granted have ceased. They are remnants of times long gone by, and are kept up either by the influence of the privileged aristocracy, or by the belief of particular nations, that circumstances are unfavorable to a general representation; or they have been re-established for the express purpose of counteracting the spirit of the age.

The democratic tendency of time must be acknowledged by every calm and unprejudiced observer, whether he thinks the effect good or bad, whether he belongs to the class which deems all virtue and nobleness of character concentrated in the middle ages, to those who believe in the final perfection of mankind, or to those who have no standard for measuring the state of a nation but statistical tables. Every thing, from the fashion of the dress to the cultivation of the intellect, tends to a democratic equality. The turning point in the history of constitutions, from whence we must date the introduction into practice of the principles of general representation, is the establishment of the constitutions of the thirteen first U. States. France then adopted the same principles; and it will remain for ever one of the most prominent facts in the history of Napoleon, that wherever he became completely master of a country, he abolished the estates, and, of course, bondage and feudal services, and established constitutions on the principle of general representation, although these, it is true, were not allowed to act freely. Europe, until the downfall of Napoleon, was continually involved in wars, into which the French emperor declared that England continually forced him. Whatever may have been the true cause of these continual conflicts, it cannot be denied, that, if the tumult of the strife had not prevented the operation of the just principles which these constitutions contained, they would have been of essential benefit: they would, at least, have formed a basis for further political developements; and, though they might have appeared deficient, to a man accustomed to the liberty of the U. States, they would, at all events, have furnished a much more reasonable prospect of a speedy attainment of the great objects of political society, than the constitutions, if they deserve the name, which the conquerors of Napoleon have established in, or rather imposed on, different countries; e. g., the provincial estates which Prussia has established in her different districts, and the political organization which the house of Austria has introduced into the Tyrol, which had sacrificed itself in a bloody struggle for that imperial family. These mock constitutions, together with the right of armed intervention, proclaimed by the holy alliance, are so entirely inconsistent with the spirit of the age, that

they afford no hopes of improvement except by their entire abolition. Napoleon, as one of the emperor's nearest connexions, who stood highest in his confidence, said to us, was essentially, by conviction and natural inclination, the enemy of feudalism, and the sincere friend of the principles of equal liberty. It must always be remembered, that he abolished every where, by one of his first acts, wherever his power reached, the feudal services, estates and constitutions, founded on the old corporations, which had become useless or obnoxious, and were, with very few exceptions, much more unpopular than the actual rulers. We shall now give a very condensed view of the existing constitutions, including a more particular survey of those of the U. States.

Europe. I. Constitutions founded on the feudal estates of the middle ages, and on the system of corporations, continue to exist, 1. in the Austrian monarchy. *a.* In the arch-duchy of Lower Austria, in Stiria and Carinthia, in Bohemia, Moravia, and, since 1817, also in Galicia and Lodomeria with Bukowine, the estates are still kept up, comprising the four orders—the clergy, nobility, gentry (*Ritterstand*) and citizens; the latter being represented by the magistrates of the royal cities. In the Tyrol, we find again, since March 24, 1816, the estates of peasants, citizens, nobility, gentry and clergy. But, notwithstanding their gallant struggle against the French and Bavarians, they have not even received from Austria the right of a voice in the imposition of their own taxes, which formerly belonged to them; but the constitution allows them the right of making representations, in the name of the country, to the emperor! In the imperial part of Silesia, the estates are composed only of the dukes and princes, with the lords (*Standesherren*) and gentry (*Ritterschaft*), who are immediately under the emperor. *b.* In the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom, the estates are founded, according to the constitution of April 24, 1815, on the system of corporations. Two central congregations exist at Milan and Venice: the different provincial congregations in the Lombardic part of the kingdom consist of deputies appointed by the king; in the Venetian part, of deputies elected by the central congregation and the *gubernium* (the Austrian designation of the government). All these deputies are from among the noble and not noble landed proprietors, and from the royal cities, under the sway of the imperial governors or delegates. The privileges of these estates consist almost solely in the right of granting the royal *postulates*, and in the distribution and collection of the taxes. Some have also the right of advising the government, and that of petitioning. *c.* In Hungary, the four orders of the estates—the high clergy, the barons and *magnates*, the gentry (*Ritterschaft*) and royal free cities—have important privileges. (See *Hungary.*) The nobility or gentry and the cities elect their deputies and give them instructions. *d.* In Transylvania, or *Siebenbürgen*, the grand-prince exercises certain rights of sovereignty, assisted by the representatives of the three nations (the Hungarians, Szeklers and Saxons) whom he convokes. These representatives consist partly of royal officers, partly of deputies appointed by the regent or elected by the corporations. 2. Sardinian monarchy. On the island of Sardinia, the clergy, nobility and deputies of the cities and boroughs exercise, together with the king, the right of legislating and taxing. 3. In the kingdom of Sweden, there exist, according to the latest constitution of June 7, 1809, the old estates, comprising four orders—the nobility, clergy, citizens and crown-peasants. The diet has the right of legislation and taxation, and the superintendence of the finances, bank and mint. The king has an unconditional *veto.* 4. In the kingdom of Saxony, the estates are composed of three orders. The first order consists of the higher clergy, or prelates, princes, counts and lords, with the deputies of the university of Leipsic. The second order embraces the gentry, to which, since 1820, twenty-nine deputies also have been joined from the possessors of noble estates.* The third order consists of deputies from the magistrates of the cities. The business of granting and fixing the taxes, and of receiving the accounts connected therewith, belongs to the diet: important laws of a general character must also be laid before them for consideration. 5. A similar constitution exists in the duchy of Saxe-Gotha, in which the legislative body consists of the estates of the counts, the gentry (*Ritterschaft*) and the citizens. Each of these estates has only one vote. The principality of Altenburg has two estates—the gentry and the citizens. 6. In the kingdom of Hanover, the estates were, according to a decree of Dec 7, 1819, divided into two chambers. The

* *Noble estate* (in German, *Rittergut*) is such an estate as formerly could, or, in some countries, still can, be held by a nobleman only. Prussia has abolished this condition of tenure, so that commoners can buy such estates.

old system of corporations was retained. (See *Hanover.*) 7. In the principality of Liechtenstein, a constitution after the Austrian fashion was introduced, Nov. 9, 1818. The estates consist of the clergy and the deputies from the communities, appointed by the magistrates. Their power is simply to make propositions. 8. In the two grand-duchies of Mecklenburg-Schwerin and M. Strelitz, the estates consist of the *Ritterschaft* and deputies of the corporations. They have very great privileges, which the former particularly maintains with great strictness. 9. In the principalities of Reuss, the old estates also exist, as, likewise, 10. in the Danish duchy of Saxe-Lauenburg. 11. The republic of the seven Ionian islands was erected March 21, 1800, and governed according to the aristocratic constitution, established, under Russian influence, Dec. 6, 1803. When the republic was placed under the protection of Great Britain, the lord-commissioner, Maitland, dissolved the senate, which had existed at Corfu since 1803, and established a new constitution Jan. 1, 1818, according to which the legislative body consists of deputies of the nobility, and the senate is chosen from among the legislative body. II. The constitution of Great Britain is founded jointly upon the old system of corporations, that of estates, and that of a general national representation. (See *Great Britain.*) III. A national representation, in the full sense of the phrase, was first established in the year 1787, by the constitution of the U. States. The reader will find, towards the end of this article, an abstract of the constitutions of the several states which compose this union. Constitutions in which the aristocratic element was excluded were soon after established in France. Several other states then shook off the fetters of the feudal system, and introduced more or less of the democratic element into the constitutions which they adopted. During the last half century, there have been 114 new, written constitutions established in Europe and America: 31 of them have been abolished, but the remainder still exist, and about 100 millions of people are ruled by them.—*A.* France has seen, since the revolution, nine different constitutions:—1. The monarchical-representative constitution of 1791. 2. The republican-democratic constitution of June 24, 1793. This never went wholly into operation, much power being given, for the time, to dictatorial bodies. 3. The constitution of Sept. 23, 1795, which established the directorial government, and divided the legislative body of the national convention into the council of the ancients and the council of the five hundred. It vested the right of electing the representatives immediately in the primary assemblies. 4. The constitution of Dec. 13, 1799, established a first consul for ten years, with the right of proposing laws, and two other consuls. The first consul (Bonaparte) was surrounded by a council of state and ministers. A triple election was, at the same time, established. The citizens of each commune chose one tenth of their number as persons qualified for public office; the aggregate of the persons thus named in all the communes of a department chose also one tenth of their number; and from the whole body of persons thus nominated by all the departments, forming the national list of persons eligible to official situations, the conservative senate chose the legislators, tribunes, consuls, the members of the court of cassation, and the commissioners of accounts. In this instrument, the principles of the liberty of the press, and others of a similar kind, which had been guarantied in the former constitution, were omitted. 5. Many essential changes were soon after made in this constitution by the various *senatus-consultes organiques*, so called. These decrees of the senate, of Aug. 2 and 4, 1802, gave the first consul, Napoleon Bonaparte, his dignity for life, and invested him with several monarchical prerogatives. 6. At last, the *senatus-consulte* of May 18, 1804, elevated the first consul to the dignity of emperor of the French, and the succession was made hereditary in his family. France had now a monarchical constitution with some democratic forms: one of these—the tribunate—was abolished by the *senatus-consulte organique* of Aug. 19, 1807. The equality of all citizens, in the eye of the law, was a principle preserved in all the French constitutions, and even the Bourbons were obliged to make it a prominent feature in the *Charte constitutionnelle.* 7. After the downfall of Napoleon, the senate drew up a new constitution, of April 6, 1814, in which an aristocracy, hereditary in the families of the senators, was established. It guarantied, however, in several respects, the liberties of the people. But Louis XVIII, as it is well known, adopted, at St. Ouen, May 2, 1814, only certain principles of this constitution, relating to the representative system in two bodies, the responsibility of the ministers, the judges' tenure of office during good behavior, the irrevo-

cability of the sale of the national property, the capacity of every Frenchman for all civil and military appointments, and, as before mentioned, the equality of all citizens in the eye of the law. 8. After this, the king promulgated, June 4, 1814, the present constitution, the *Charte constitutionnelle* (q. v.), which had been drawn up by a committee appointed by him. It established a chamber of peers, to be elected by the king, and a chamber of deputies, to be chosen by electoral colleges. These two bodies, together with the king, were to form the legislature. But this instrument left many points unsettled, which allowed full play to machinations of all kinds. 9. After the return of Napoleon from Elba, the emperor promulgated a new constitutional instrument, as an addition to the imperial constitution, April 22, 1815. This was adopted by the people, in June, on the occasion of the celebrated *Champ de Mai.* When Louis XVIII returned to Paris, the *Charte* went again into operation. By the electoral law of June 28, 1820, the democratic element of this fundamental law, as respects the representation of the people, has been essentially weakened, or rather thrown out; as, in a population of 35,000,000, there are only 70,000 electors, and only 5 or 6 thousand who can be elected. The law of June 9, 1824, established septennial elections of the chamber of deputies, though the *Charte* had limited their term of office to five years.—*B.* In the Netherlands, similar changes took place. An act of arbitrary power was necessary to overcome the opposition of the federal party to the friends of union (democrats), before the first constitution of the Batavian republic, fashioned after the French constitution, was accepted, April 23, 1798, by the national assembly. The second constitution, of Oct. 16, 1801, was fashioned after the fourth French constitution, of 1799. Under the influence of Napoleon, the Batavian republic received the third constitution, of March 15, 1805, by which a pensionary of the state was put at the head of the government. Only a few points were necessary to be changed, when the treaty with France, of May 24, 1806, connected the new kingdom of Holland most intimately with France. This was done by the constitutional law of the kingdom of Holland, of June 10, 1806, which remained in force until 1810, when Holland was made part of the French empire (July 9). In Dec., 1813, the son of the last stadtholder, the present king William I, was acknowledged as sovereign of the Netherlands. He convoked the notables in March, 1814, who accepted the constitution proposed by him. Thus the kingdom of the Netherlands, established by the congress of Vienna, received its fifth constitution, Aug. 24, 1815, which, in spite of the opposition of the Catholic notables of Belgium, went into operation, in the Belgian provinces, in 1815, and is, therefore, the fundamental law of all the 17 provinces of the kingdom. This constitution is founded on the basis of the representative system. The states-general, who represent the people of the Netherlands, exercise, in connexion with the king, the legislative power, and determine the budget, consist of two chambers. The members of the first are chosen by the king for life; those of the second, by the estates of the provinces, for three years. The provinces have three estates—the gentry, the citizens and peasants.—*C.* Poland was, until 1791, an aristocratico-monarchical republic; in fact, it might be called an *aristocratic* republic, because the king elected had very little power. The first step towards a more popular constitution was the charter given to the cities in April 14, 1791, which gained the favor of them all towards the new order of things. Soon after, the constitution of May 3, 1791, was adopted, and it is remarkable that it was finished four months before the first French constitution; but the confederation of Targowitz, formed under Catharine II, destroyed this instrument, and reëstablished the old order of things. At a later period, Napoleon, at the peace of Tilsit, created the duchy of Warsaw, and gave it a constitution, signed by him, Dresden, July 22, 1807, which, among other things, abolished bondage, and pronounced the equality of all citizens in the eye of the law. After the connexion of the kingdom of Poland with Russia, by the congress of Vienna, the emperor Alexander adopted, April 30, 1815, the title of *king of Poland*, and gave this kingdom a constitution, Nov. 27, 1815, which established a national representation, in a diet consisting of the king and two houses of legislature. The senate forms the first chamber, chosen by the king; the second chamber consists of 77 deputies of the land-holders and 51 deputies of the communities. The constitution guarantied, also, the liberty of the press, which, however, has been long since suspended. The republic of Cracow, erected by the congress of Vienna, also received, May 3, 1815, a constitution, signed by the princes Metternich and Hardenberg, and

count Rasumoffsky. The assembly of the representatives of this little republic consists of the deputies of the communities, each of which chooses one, three members of the senate sent by this body, which has the executive power, three prelates sent by the chapter, three doctors of the faculties of the university, and six justices of the peace.—*D.* Sweden and Norway have two entirely different constitutions, though both countries are under one king. We made mention of the Swedish constitution above. Norway adopted a constitution of a mixed democratic and monarchical character, May 17, 1814, after the peace of Kiel, Jan. 14, 1814, had been concluded. The present king of Sweden, after having invaded Norway, and conquered it, assented to the whole constitution, with those modifications only which necessarily grew out of the connexion of Norway with Sweden under one monarch. These particulars were settled by the *storthing* (diet) held at Christiania, Nov. 4, 1814, so that the present constitution is called the *constitution of Nov.* 4, 1814. Nobility is abolished. The *storthing*, or legislative body, consists of two houses—the *logthing* and the *oldesthing*. (See *Norway*)—*E.* The old forms of the Spanish monarchy were first called to life again by the junta (assembled at Bayonne, under the influence of Napoleon), who drew up and adopted the constitution of July 6, 1808, at the time when Joseph Bonaparte became king of Spain. But the regency, which governed in the name of Ferdinand VII, proclaimed a new constitution, March 19, 1812—the constitution of the Cortes—which, however, was abolished by Ferdinand VII, on his return to Spain, by his declaration at Valencia, May 4, 1814, but again accepted and sworn to by him, March 7, 1820, to which he was compelled by the army. This instrument not only abolished the old feudal and hierarchical forms of government, but it likewise limited considerably the powers of the king; so much that a strong party in Spain espoused his cause, and four of the first continental powers declared themselves, at the congress of Verona, in December, 1822, against the constitution, and maintained that the authority of the king ought to be strengthened. According to the 375th article of the constitution, however, such a change could take place only after the constitution had been in operation for eight years. France declared war against Spain, and abolished the constitution of the cortes in 1823. (See *Cortes.*) Portugal, likewise, received, by the revolution which began Aug. 24, 1820, a constitution similar to that of Spain. It limited the power of the king, however, still more. The cortes at Lisbon drew it up, and the king swore to it Oct. 1, 1822. But another military revolution (May 27, 1823) abolished this instrument. April 23, 1826, don Pedro, emperor of Brazil, gave a new constitution, which, however, was abolished by his brother, the usurper of his throne, don Miguel, who, in order to surround himself with some of the appearances of a legitimate sovereign, renewed some of the forms of the old estates. (See *Portugal.*) In Naples, the army proclaimed the Spanish constitution, which was sworn to by the king July 13, 1820. The parliament of the Two Sicilies was convened Oct. 1, 1820, and drew up a new constitution, on the basis of the Spanish, in January, 1821; but, in consequence of the entrance of an Austrian army into Naples, conformably to the resolutions of the congress of Laybach, this constitution was abolished in March, 1821. The same thing happened in Piedmont, where the Spanish constitution was proclaimed, March 10, 1821, but abolished by the Austrian army, which entered Turin April 10, 1821.—*F.* Italy, which, for many centuries, has been the theatre of political conflict and bloody revolutions, has also experienced more changes, in respect to the constitutional representations of her people, than any other country. *a.* Savoy, Nice and Piedmont were governed, from the years 1796 and 1798 to 1814, according to the constitutions drawn up for France. Since 1814, the king has governed without the coöperation of popular representatives. Genoa lost her ancient aristocratic constitution in 1797, and received, through the influence of general Bonaparte, in the convention at Montebello, of June 6, 1797, a democratic constitution, which lasted from Dec. 2, 1797, to 1802, when its place was supplied by a constitution modelled after that of the Cisalpine republic, and signed by Bonaparte and Talleyrand, June 26, 1802; but a new constitutional law of Dec. 1, 1802, remodelled it again. June 4, 1805, the Ligurian republic was incorporated with France; and Genoa did not receive again her old name until lord Bentinck, April 19, 1814, in the name of Great Britain, proclaimed the restoration of her old aristocratic republican constitution; but the congress at Vienna abolished this, and gave the republic of Genoa, as a duchy, to the king of Sardinia, by which an end was put to her representative government; but the new duchy received a

senate, high court and provincial counsellors, without whose consent no new taxes can be imposed. *b.* The former Cisalpine republic received its first constitution from general Bonaparte, June 29, 1797. It was fashioned after the French constitution of 1797; but, in 1798, the French ambassador Trouvé made essential changes in it; and, in 1799, the whole republic was broken up by the armies of Russia and Austria. It was reëstablished by the memorable victory of Marengo, in 1800, and governed provisorily, and received from a state-consulta at Lyons, as an Italian republic, a new constitution, Jan. 28, 1802. Its president was the first consul of France. This constitution provided three electoral colleges—those of the land owners, of the learned bodies, and of the merchants. When the Italian republic was changed into the kingdom of Italy, and Napoleon had become king of Italy, March 16, 1805, he gave this state three constitutional statutes, of March 16, March 27 and June 5, 1805, in which the monarchical form was more and more developed. After the downfall of Napoleon, the emperor Francis established here the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom, and gave it, April 24, 1815, that constitution which we have mentioned above. *c.* The aristocratic republic of Lucca received, in 1799, from a French general, a democratic constitution, fashioned after that of France of 1795; but it hardly had time to go into operation, on account of the advance of the allied troops into Italy. In consequence of the victory of Marengo, a constitution similar to that of the Cisalpine republic of 1802, was proclaimed, Dec. 26, 1801; but, in 1805, the republic begged the emperor to give them a prince out of his own family. This was general Bacciocchi (q. v.), prince of Lucca and Piombino, and Napoleon signed the new constitution, June 23, 1805. A congress of Vienna, in 1814, gave this principality (still governed, in all essential respects, according to the constitution of 1805) to the former queen of Etruria. *d.* The States of the Church were changed by general Berthier, Feb. 15, 1798, into a Roman republic, which received a constitution, March 20, 1798, drawn up by Daunou, on the model of the French constitution of 1795. It expired, with the dissolution of the republic, in 1799. After the pope was reëstablished, in 1814, he proclaimed, July 6, 1816, a constituent decree. *e.* The miniature republic of San Marino continues to preserve its ancient democratic representative constitution, in which there are some aristocratic elements. *f.* Naples received a constitution from king Joseph, at Bayonne, June 20, 1808, which was confirmed by Napoleon; but his successor, Joachim, never put it into operation. Joachim (Murat), however, after his defeat, in 1815, ordered his minister Agar to draw up a constitution; but this was only posted up at the corners of the streets, and never acted upon. At an earlier period, in 1812, lord Bentinck had established in Sicily (then under the protection of England and the sceptre of king Ferdinand IV, soon afterwards under that of his son Francis) a constitution fashioned according to the British, which vested the legislative power exclusively in a parliament of peers and commons, the executive in the king, and the judiciary in independent courts. The feudal constitution was entirely abolished. This constitution was in force until July 23, 1814, on which day Ferdinand IV, who had once more taken the reins of government, overthrew the forms prescribed by England, together with the parliament of Sicily, which had hitherto existed. But when, after the downfall of Murat, he received Naples back, in 1815, from the congress of Vienna, he convoked the two houses of the Sicilian parliament, and communicated to them the draught of a new constitution for Sicily, of May 16, 1815, which had much similarity to the charter granted by Louis XVIII to the French, in 1814. This constitution, also, never went into operation; but when Ferdinand IV, Dec. 8, 1816, made Naples and Sicily one kingdom, and assumed the title of *Ferdinand I, king of the Two Sicilies*, he promulgated for the whole monarchy the constituent law of Dec. 12, 1816, which confirmed the abolition of feudalism, but did not reëstablish a national representation. (*See division E* (Spain), *of this article.*)—*G.* Germany. The constitution of the former German empire was founded entirely on the principles of the feudal system, and the old corporations. It had become a mere mockery, and even worse than useless. The eagle of the empire was often compared to an old, worm-eaten, stuffed bird, which must not be touched, for fear of its falling to pieces. Napoleon abolished the empire, and established the confederation of the Rhine, July, 12, 1806. (See *Confederation.*) But the deputies to be sent by the members of the confederation never actually assembled. The constitution of this confederacy did not guaranty a national representation in the different countries belonging to it. June 8, 1815, the

German confederation (see *Confederation*) was established. The 13th article runs thus:—"In each of the confederated states, a constitution, founded on the estates, shall be introduced" (*In allen Bundesstaaten wird eine landesständische Verfassung Statt finden*). The explanation of this article caused much dispute, but, at last, the old estates and the monarchical basis were considered as the essential parts of all the new constitutions. In consequence of the confederation of the Rhine, and of the German confederacy, several constitutions were formed between 1806 and 1815, in Germany, some of which inclined more to the representative system; others, more to the old system of feudal estates and corporations. Those states, which retained or reëstablished the old feudal estates and corporations, have been mentioned already in this article, under division I.—1. The kingdom of Westphalia, which lasted from 1807 to 1814, received a constitution modelled after the French representative system. This served as a model for the constitutions of several other states belonging to the confederation of the Rhine. It was given by Napoleon, Nov. 15, 1807, and its deficiencies supplied by the statute of Dec. 23, 1808. It expired with the kingdom. 2. The grand-duchy of Frankfort had a similar constitution, from Aug. 16, 1810, to 1813, which met with a like fate. 3. In the kingdom of Bavaria, which belonged also to the confederation of the Rhine, a national representation was established in May, 1808, by a formal constitution and six constituent edicts; but, by the decree of Dec. 2, 1811, the owners of *majorates* (entailed estates) and the possessors of noble fiefs were declared representatives of the Bavarian nation by right of birth. At last, the king, Maximilian, granted the constitution of May 26, 1818, accompanied by 10 edicts. May 17, 1818, a regulation for the communities had been already promulgated. The constitution establishes two houses—one of peers, the other of commons—the former to hold their places by right of birth, or by appointment of the king, the latter by election. This election, however, is not made by the people collectively, but by the different estates—nobility, clergy and scholars, citizens and peasants. This constitution nominally provides for the chief points of civil liberty, freedom of conscience and of the press, equality of all the citizens in the eye of the law, the equal capacity of all citizens for all appointments in the service of the state, also the equal distribution of taxes, the responsibility of public officers, &c. 4. Würtemberg. King Frederic abolished, in 1806, the old constitution, founded on a compact concluded between the estates and the sovereign, and governed absolutely, according to the decree of organization of March 18, 1806. Jan. 11, 1815, he issued a proclamation, by which he intended to prepare the way for the establishment of such a constitution as he wished; but the assembly convoked by him in March, 1815, refused the proposed constitution, asking for the reëstablishment of the old one. At last, the constitution of Sept. 25, 1819, was established by way of compact. It provides for two houses of legislature. (See *Würtemberg*.) 5. The grand-duchy of Baden, after several preliminary decrees, received a constitution, Aug. 22, 1818, which provides for two houses of legislature. The first is composed of peers, of the deputies of the gentry (*Ritterschaft*) and the universities, a Catholic bishop, a Protestant prelate, and eight members nominated by the monarch, without reference to their birth or station. The lower house consists of deputies, chosen with reference to the population. (See *Baden*.) 6. The grand-duchy of Hesse-Darmstadt received a constitution, providing for two houses, May 18, 1820. (See *Hesse-Darmstadt*.) 7. The principality of Waldeck and Pyrmont received a constitution Jan. 28, 1814. This was changed, however, April 19, 1816, when a constitution was established, by which only the land-owners and corporations of the cities are represented. 8. The duchy of Nassau received a constitution by the ordinance of Sept. 2, 1814, which establishes two houses, one of hereditary peers, the other of representatives, chosen for a limited time. July 1, 1816, a new organization of the government was proclaimed. It is founded, for the most part, on the division of estates. 9. Saxe-Weimar received a constitution, Sept. 20, 1809, while she belonged to the confederation of the Rhine. Another constitution was adopted, May 5, 1816, founded on the estates of the nobility, citizens and peasants, each of which sends 10 deputies, while the university of Jena sends 1. There is only one house of legislature. The elections are free, and the liberty of the press is guarantied. The diet, opened Dec. 17, 1820, exhibited the remarkable instance of a representative body refusing publicity to its deliberations, and allowing only the publication of portions of its proceedings. The liberty of the press has been long since suspended. It is hardly necessary to mention how ut-

terly insufficient a basis of representation the ancient estates are in our times, since the important classes of the learned (who were formerly represented in the clergy), artists, mechanics, merchants and manufacturers remain, on this system, unrepresented. 10. Saxe-Coburg received a constitution from its sovereign, Aug. 21, 1817, founded on the estates. When the diet is not sitting, a permanent committee watches over the maintenance of the constitution, and the execution of the laws. A further constitutional regulation was given Dec. 15, 1820, and the diet first assembled in 1821. 11. Saxe-Hildburghausen received a constitution, Jan. 7, 1818, founded on the estates. A permanent committee of the nobility, the cities and clergy, represents the diet when it is not sitting. 12. The principality of Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt received a constitution, April 21, 1821, founded on the estates. 13. The principality of Lippe-Schaumburg received a constitution by a decree of Jan. 15, 1815. It is founded on the estates. 14. Lippe-Detmold received a constitution, June 8, 1819, from the princess-regent Paulina, drawn up by herself; but this instrument was too liberal for the old estates of the nobility and the cities, which protested against it, as did also the prince of Schaumburg as agnate. (q. v.) 15. The duchy of Brunswick-Wolfenbüttel received a constitution, Jan. 19, 1820, founded on the estates and corporations. It provides only one house of legislature. In respect to the granting of taxes, the old constitution was retained. 16. The free city of Frankfort, during the reign of Napoleon, received a liberal organization, Oct. 10, 1806. July 18, 1816, an act was passed by the senate, supplementary to the old constitution of the city, when it was an imperial free city, which was accepted by the citizens. The former privileges of the patrician families do not exist any longer. 17, 18, 19. The three Hanseatic cities have reëstablished, since 1814, their old constitutions, founded on the ancient corporations, and, like several others, little in unison with the demands of the age. (See *Constitutions des trois Villes Libres-Anséatiques*, by Villers, Leipsic, 1814.) 20. The duke of Saxe-Meiningen established a constitution, Sept. 4, 1824, founded on the estates.—*H.* The Swiss confederacy was transformed, by the French directory, in 1799, into the Helvetic republic, with a democratic form of government. This gave rise to bloody contests. Bonaparte, by the act of mediation, Feb. 19, 1803, gave a new federative constitution to this country, combining ancient and modern elements. Sept. 8, 1814, the cantons convened again; and received into the confederacy of the 19 cantons 3 new ones—Valais, Geneva and Neufchatel. Each canton has its own representative constitution, founded on the elements of the old system, together with the principles of the act of mediation. In some, the aristocratic principle prevails; in others, the democratic. Some cantons are purely democratic, as Valais, Coire, Zug, &c. Neufchatel has a constitution in which aristocratic, democratic and monarchical principles are combined. The king of Prussia—the sovereign of this canton—established this constitution, June 18, and Dec. 26, 1814.—*I.* A provisory representative constitution was adopted by the national congress of the Hellenes, Jan. 1 (13), 1822, at Epidaurus. According to this instrument, the government was to consist of two bodies—the legislative senate, composed of deputies elected by the people, and the executive council. In July, 1827, the national assembly at Napoli di Romania adopted the constitution of 1827. Count Capo d'Istria was chosen president, and entered on his office Jan. 22, 1828. The state of this unfortunate nation, however, is so unsettled, that we must still expect many changes.—In Asia, several countries have fundamental laws. These, it is true, hardly deserve the name of *constitutions*, since they are destitute of those guarantees of the rights of the people, which we are accustomed to consider as integral parts of a constitution. Yet several of them, however, are, in fact, subject to as strict limitations as the constitutions of many of those states which we have just enumerated. Nay, it would be far more difficult to change certain fundamental laws in some Asiatic states, founded, as they often are, on the religion and ancient customs of the people, than to introduce a new constitution into many of the European states. We have seen that the mere decrees of certain European sovereigns have been sufficient to establish, change, abolish, reëstablish and reëbolish constitutions in the states under their rule. One point, however, must be kept in view—that, in almost all the European constitutions, the idea of a representation of the people is a fundamental one, however imperfect may be the means and forms provided for securing it. But we know of no fundamental law, in any Asiatic state, which embraces the idea of representation; and we may, therefore, be excused from going into a consideration of the Asiatic forms of government, in an

article on constitutions.—Having thus enumerated the European states which have received constitutions, it may not be uninteresting to take a survey of those European states which are governed by sovereigns entirely absolute. Austria was mentioned among those countries in which constitutions founded on the old feudal estates exist; but, although this may be the case in point of form, yet the Austrian monarchy is virtually one of the most absolute governments that can exist, and has systematically pursued, for a long series of years, so arbitrary a course, in many respects (including the administration of the finances and the intellectual cultivation of the people), that we can hardly find any thing parallel in governments which claim to be purely absolute; as, for instance, in Prussia. The following governments are without constitutions: —1. Piedmont, Savoy and Nice. 2. Tuscany, Parma and Modena. 3. The Two Sicilies. 4. The States of the Church. 5. Prussia, with the exception of Neufchatel, though the royal decree of May 22, 1815, just before the last campaign against Napoleon, promised the nation a representative constitution. The king, some years since, established provincial estates, founded on the different estates already enumerated, and the city corporations, which have the right to be consulted in regard to taxation, and to discuss what is laid before them by the king, through the marshal of the diet. Their rights, however, are, in reality, nugatory, because they have not even the power of making propositions to the government; and when, a few years ago, the estates of the province of the Lower Rhine petitioned the king not to abolish the trial by jury, which had been in use on the left bank of the Rhine from the time when that district had been connected with France, the king was highly displeased, and reminded the estates that they were convened only to consider what was laid before them by his marshal. 6. The electorate of Hesse-Cassel. In 1815, the elector, having resumed possession of the electorate, after the abolition of the kingdom of Westphalia, convened not only the old estates, those of the nobility, clergy and citizens, but also that of the peasants, which gave rise to animadversion; and, on the assembly's disagreeing to the new constitution, which he presented to them, the elector dissolved the body; since which time the government has been entirely absolute. 7. The landgraviate of Hesse-Homburg. 8. The duchy of Anhalt. Dec. 28, 1810, this little country received from the reigning duke a constitution, modelled entirely on that of the French empire; but the guardian of his successor suspended the constitution, Oct. 24, 1812. 9. The principalities of Hohenzollern-Hechingen and Siegmaringen. 10. The principality of Schwarzburg-Sondershausen. 11. The duchy of Oldenburg. 12. The duchy of Holstein. Both the latter, however, are about to receive, according to public report, constitutions founded on the estates. 13. The kingdom of Denmark, in which the ancient constitution was abolished in 1660. The people coöperated with the government in the overthrow of the old system, as it was favorable only to the nobility and the privileged corporations, the former of whom greatly abused their powers. 14. The empire of Russia. 15. Spain. 16. Turkey. 17. Portugal.

America. The English colonies in North America, before the declaration of the independence of the U. States, were all governed by charters from the crown of England, the principal features of which were a house of representatives, and a governor and body of counsellors, the first chosen by the people, the two last appointed by the king (or proprietors), except in the cases of Connecticut and Rhode Island plantations, in which the people were empowered to choose all their officers. The constitution prepared by the distinguished philosopher, John Locke, for South Carolina, at the request of the proprietors of the territory, operated no better than Plato's Republic would probably have done, if it had ever been put into practice. The constitution consisted of 120 articles, and was founded on aristocratical and feudal principles. Three classes of nobility were to be established, viz., barons, caciques and landgraves. The first were to possess 12, the second, 24, and the third, 48,000 acres of land, which were to remain inalienable in their families. The parliament, which consisted of one house only, was composed of the lords, proprietors, landgraves, caciques, and deputies from the free inhabitants holding inheritable property. This plan of government produced nothing but anarchy and discord. In the following Abstract of the Constitutions of the U. States, the constitution of Virginia framed in 1776 is given, since the draft of the constitution adopted by the late convention (1830) in that state has not been acted on by the people at the time when we write. If it should be accepted by them, the reader will find a sketch of it in the article *Virginia*.

MASSACHUSETTS. 1780. (Amended 1821.)	NEW HAMPSHIRE. 1792.	MAINE. 1819.	UNITED STATES. 1787. (Amended.)	*Date of Constitution.*	
General court, annually; senate of 40, and house of representatives.	General court, annually; senate of 12, and house of representatives.	Legislature of Maine, annually; senate and house of representatives.	Congress; house of representatives, and one third of senate, chosen biennially.	*Name and Term of Office.*	LEGISLATURE.
Last Wednesday in May and in January.	First Wednesday in June.	First Wednesday in January.	First Monday in December.	*Time of stated Meeting.*	
Senators, freehold of £300 or personal estate of £600, 5 years' residence. Representatives, freehold of £100 or ratable estate of £200, 1 year's residence.	Freehold; district residence. Senators, age 30, 7 years' state residence; representatives, two years'.	Five years' citizenship, 1 year state and 3 months' district residence. Senators, age 25.	Senators, age 30, 9 years' citizenship; representatives, age 25, 7 years' citizenship. Both inhabitants of state for which chosen.	*Qualifications.*	
Senators, in proportion to taxation; representatives, to number of ratable polls.	Senators, in proportion to taxation; representatives, to number of ratable polls.	In proportion to population.	Senators, 2 for each state, appointed by the legislatures. Representatives, according to population, excluding $\frac{2}{5}$ of the slaves.	*Apportionment.*	
By the people; annually.	By the people; annually.	By the people; annually.	By electors, appointed as the respective state legislatures may direct; 4 years.	*Election; Term of Office.*	EXECUTIVE.
Freehold of £1000; 7 years' residence; of the Christian religion.	Freehold; age 30; 7 years' residence.	Citizenship; 5 years' state residence; age 30.	Being a natural born citizen, or a citizen at the adoption of constitution; age 35; 14 yrs' residence.	*Qualifications.*	
Qualified negative; official patronage and pardoning power, jointly with council.	Qualified negative; official patronage and pardoning power, jointly with council.	Qualified negative; official patronage and pardoning power, jointly with council.	Qualified negative; by consent of senate makes treaties, appoints ambassadors, and principal officers of the U. States; pardoning power.	*Powers.*	

Lieutenant-governor.	President of senate.	President of senate.	Vice-president, who is, *ex officio*, president of the senate.	*Successor on Death, Absence, &c.*
Nine, besides the lieutenant-governor; by legislature, from those elected by the people as counsellors and senators: those left constitute the senate.	Five; by the people; freehold, age 30, 7 years' state residence; official patronage and power to reprieve and pardon jointly with the governor.	Seven; by legislature; citizenship and state residence; to advise the governor in the executive part of government.	None.	COUNCIL; *Number; Election; Qualifications; Powers.*
By governor and council; during good behavior. Justices of the peace for 7 years.	By governor and council; judges of supreme court during good behavior till age of 70.	By governor and council; during good behavior till age of 70. Justices of peace for 7 years.	By president, with advice and consent of senate; during good behavior.	*Appointment and Term of Office.* JUDICIARY.
By impeachment; by governor and council, on address of both houses of the legislature.	By impeachment.	By impeachment.	By impeachment.	*How removable.*
Citizenship, 1 year's state and 6 months' district residence, and payment of taxes.	Residence and payment of taxes.	Citizenship, and 3 months' state residence.	Those requisite for the most numerous branch of the respective state legislatures.	*Qualifications of Voters.*
Governor and senate, first Monday in April. Representatives, May.	In March.	Second Monday in September.	Regulated by legislatures of the respective states.	*Day of General Election.*
The sense of the people to be taken on any amendments agreed to by a majority of senate and two thirds of representatives, at two successive sessions.	The sense of the people to be taken septennially on the subject of a revision of the constitution.	The sense of the people may be taken on amendments proposed by two thirds of legislature.	Two thirds of congress may propose amendments; or, on application of two thirds of state legislatures, shall call a convention. Amendments to be ratified by three fourths of the states.	*Provision for amending Constitution.*

NEW YORK. 1821.	VERMONT. 1793.	CONNECTICUT. 1818.	RHODE ISLAND. Charter of Charles II. 1663.	*Date of Constitution.*	
Senate of 32, one fourth annually; and assembly of 128, annually.	General assembly, or house of representatives, annually.	General assembly, annually; senate of 12, and house of representatives.	General assembly; council of 12, including governor and deputy-governor, and house of representatives.	*Name and Term of Office.*	LEGISLATURE.
First Tuesday in January.	Second Thursday of October.	First Wednesday of May.	First Wednesday of May and last Wednesday of October.	*Time of stated Meeting.*	
Senators must be freeholders.	Two years' state and one years' township residence.	Citizenship; freehold, and six months' residence; or a year's performance of militia duty; or paying a tax. Blacks excluded.		*Qualifications.*	
In proportion to population.	By towns.	Senate by general ticket; representatives by towns.		*Apportionment.*	
By the people; biennially.	By the people; annually.	By the people; annually.	By the people.	*Election; Term of Office.*	EXECUTIVE.
Being a native citizen, a freeholder; age 30; 5 years' residence.	Four years' residence.	An elector; age 30 years.		*Qualifications.*	
Qualified negative; official patronage, with consent of senate; pardoning power, except in cases of treason, which he can reprieve till end of next session of legislature.	See *Executive Council.*	Qualified negative, with power to reprieve till end of next session of legislature.	A vote in the council; but no negative on acts of both houses.	*Powers.*	
Lieutenant-governor, who is, *ex officio*, president of senate.	Lieutenant-governor.	Lieutenant-governor, who is, *ex officio*, president of senate.	Deputy-governor.	*Successor on Death, Absence, &c.*	

None.	The executive council consists of the governor, lieutenant-governor, and 12 counsellors, elected annually by the people. It is possessed of all powers usually vested in a governor; and all legislative powers, except that of originating bills and pardoning: but they reprieve till the end of next session of assembly.	None.		COUNCIL; *Number; Election; Qualifications; Powers.*
By governor, by consent of senate; during good behavior till 60. Justices of peace, 4 years. Senate, chancellor, and supreme judges, a court for trial of impeachments and correction of errors.	By legislature and executive council, annually. Executive council, justices of peace for whole state *ex officio.*	By general assembly; supreme and superior courts during good behavior till 70; all others annually.	Annually elected by the legislature.	*Appointment and Term of Office.* JUDICIARY.
By two thirds of the assembly and majority of senate, by joint resolution.		By impeachment; by governor, on address of two thirds of the legislature.		*How removable.*
Citizenship, a certain state and district residence, having paid tax, or performed militia duty, or been assessed, or having labored on highway. Freehold necessary for people of color.	One year's residence.	Same as *Qualifications of Legislature,* which see.	Rhode Island has no written constitution, being still governed by the original charter granted by king Charles II of Great Britain. (See the article *Rhode Island.*)	*Qualifications of Voters.*
In October or November, as may be provided by law.	First Tuesday in September.	In April.		*Day of General Election.*
Amendments may be proposed to the people if passed by a majority at one session of the legislature, and by two thirds at the succeeding session.	The council of censors, who are elected septennially for the purpose of inquiring into violations of the constitution, &c., may call a convention.	Amendments may be proposed by a majority of house of representatives, on which the sense of the people shall be taken, if ratified next session by both houses.		*Provision for amending Constitution.*

MARYLAND. 1776. (Amended.)	DELAWARE. 1792. (Amended 1802.)	PENNSYLVANIA. 1790.	NEW JERSEY. 1776.	*Date of Constitution.*	
General assembly; senate of 15, chosen by electors appointed by the people every 5th year; house of delegates, annually.	General assembly; the house of representatives, and one third of the senate, chosen annually.	General assembly; the house of representatives and one fourth of the senate, chosen annually.	Legislative council and general assembly, annually.	*Name and Term of Office.*	LEGISLATURE.
First Monday in December.	First Tuesday in January.	First Tuesday in December.	Fourth Tuesday in October.	*Time of stated Meeting.*	
Senators, 25 years of age, 3 years' state residence. Delegates, 1 year's county residence.	Freehold; citizenship; 3 years' state and 1 county residence. Senators 27, and representatives 24 years of age.	Citizenship. Senate, age 25, 4 years' state and 1 district residence. Representatives, 3 years' state and 1 county residence.	One year county residence. For council, a freehold estate worth £1000; for assembly, £500, proclamation money.	*Qualifications.*	
By counties and cities.	By counties.	In proportion to taxable inhabitants.	Council, one member for each county; assembly, in proportion to population.	*Apportionment.*	
By the legislature; annually. Eligible 3 years out of 7.	By the people; for 3 years. Eligible 3 out of 6 years.	By the people; for 3 years. Eligible 9 out of 12 years.	By the legislature; annually.	*Election; Term of Office.*	EXECUTIVE.
Age 25; 5 years' residence.	Age 36; 12 years' citizenship and 6 years' residence.	Age 30; 7 years' citizenship and residence.		*Qualifications.*	
Official patronage, with advice and consent of council; pardoning power.	Extensive, uncontrolled official patronage; pardoning power.	Qualified negative; extensive, uncontrolled official patronage; the pardoning power.	A casting vote in legislative council, of which he is president. The council possesses the pardoning power, and is a court of appeals, in the last resort. The governor is chancellor and surrogate general.	*Powers*	

First named of the council, until next meeting of the legislature.	Speaker of the senate.	Speaker of the senate.	Vice-president of the council.	*Successor on Death, Absence, &c.*
Five; elected by legislature; age 25, and 3 years' residence; advise the governor, and consent to his appointments.	None.	None.	None.	COUNCIL; *Number; Election; Qualifications; Powers.*
Governor, by consent of council; during good behavior.	By the governor; during good behavior. Justices of the peace for 7 years.	By the governor; during good behavior.	By legislature; judges of the supreme court for 7, of the inferior courts for 5, years.	*Appointment and Term of Office.*
By conviction of misbehavior in a court of law; by governor, on address of two thirds of legislature.	By impeachment; and by the governor, on address of two thirds of the legislature.	By impeachment; and by the governor, on address of two thirds of the legislature.	By impeachment.	*How removable.*
Citizenship; state residence of one year, and county or city, of six months. Blacks excluded.	Two years' residence, and payment of taxes. Blacks excluded.	Citizenship, two years' residence, and payment of taxes.	One year's county residence, and an estate worth £50 proclamation money.	*Qualifications of Voters.*
First Monday in October for delegates; first Monday in September, every fifth year, for electors of senate.	First Tuesday in October.	Second Tuesday in October.	Second Tuesday in October. May adjourn from day to day.	*Day of General Election.*
The legislature may pass bills amending the constitution, which, to be valid, must be confirmed at next session.	Amendments may be passed at one session, and, if approved by the governor, ratified by three fourths of the next. A convention may be called by an expression of the will of the people at their annual election.	None.	None.	*Provision for amending Constitution.*

JUDICIARY.

GEORGIA. 1798. (Amended.)	SOUTH CAROLINA. 1790. (Amended.)	NORTH CAROLINA. 1776.	VIRGINIA. 1776.	*Date of Constitution.*	
General assembly, annually; senate and house of representatives.	General assembly; senate of 45, one half biennially, and house of representatives of 124 members, biennially.	General assembly; senate and house of commons, chosen annually.	General assembly; house of delegates, and one fourth of senate, chosen annually.	*Name and Term of Office.*	LEGISLATURE.
Second Tuesday in January.	Fourth Monday in November.			*Time of stated Meeting.*	
Freehold, or taxable property; 3 years' state, 1 county residence. Senators, age 25, 9 years' citizenship; representatives, 7 years' citizenship.	Citizenship; freehold. Senators, age 30, 5 years' state residence; representatives, 3 years' state residence. Blacks excluded.	Freehold, and 1 year county residence.	Freehold; district residence. Senators, 25 years of age.	*Qualifications.*	
Senators, one for each county; representatives in proportion to population, excluding two fifths of people of color.	Senators by districts; representatives in proportion to population and amount of taxes paid.	Senate, one for each county; house of commons, 2 for each county, and 1 for each of certain specified towns.	Senate by districts; house of delegates by counties, cities, and boroughs.	*Apportionment.*	
By the legislature; biennially.	By the legislature; biennially. Eligible 1 term in 3.	By the legislature; annually. Eligible 3 years out of 6.	By the legislature; annually. Eligible 3 years out of 7.	*Election; Term of Office.*	EXECUTIVE.
Freehold and other property; age 30; 12 years' citizenship, and 6 years' residence.	Freehold; age 30; residence and citizenship of 10 years.	Freehold; age 30; 5 years' residence.		*Qualifications.*	
Qualified negative; pardoning power; reprieves only in cases of treason.	The pardoning power.	The pardoning power.	Some official patronage, and the pardoning power, with advice and consent of council.	*Powers.*	

President of the senate.	Lieutenant-governor.	Speaker of senate.	President of council.	*Successor on Death, Absence, &c.*
None.	None.	Seven; by legislature, annually.	Eight; by legislature, who remove and supply two, every 3 years.	COUNCIL; *Number; Election; Qualifications; Powers.*
Elected by the people; judges of superior courts for 3 years; of the inferior courts, and justices of the peace, annually.	Judges of superior courts by legislature; others as hitherto; good behavior.	By legislature; good behavior.	By legislature; good behavior. Justices of the peace by governor and council.	*Appointment and Term of Office.* JUDICIARY.
By impeachment; and by the governor, on address of two thirds of the legislature.	By impeachment.	By impeachment.	By impeachment.	*How removable.*
Citizenship, six months' county residence, and payment of taxes if assessed.	Citizenship; 2 years' state residence; a freehold, or 6 months' district residence and payment of taxes. Blacks excluded.	For senators, freehold and a year's residence; for house of commons, a year's residence and payment of taxes.	Same as previous to establishment of constitution.	*Qualifications of Voters.*
First Monday in November.	Second Monday in October and day following, biennially.	No day appointed by constitution.	No day appointed in constitution.	*Day of General Election.*
By two thirds of the legislature at two successive sessions.	A convention may be called by two thirds of the legislature. Amendments may be made by same majority, if passed at two successive sessions.	None.	None.	*Provision for amending Constitution.*

MISSISSIPPI. 1817.	TENNESSEE. 1796.	KENTUCKY. 1799.	OHIO. 1802.		
				Date of Constitution.	
General assembly; senate one third annually, house of representatives annually.	General assembly; senate and house of representatives, chosen biennially.	General assembly; the house of representatives and one fourth of the senate, chosen annually.	General assembly; house of representatives and one half the senate, chosen annually.	*Name and Term of Office.*	LEGISLATURE.
First Monday in November.	Third Monday in September, every second year.	First Monday in November.	First Monday in December.	*Time of stated Meeting.*	LEGISLATURE.
Citizenship; freehold, or an interest in real estate. Senators, age 26, 4 years' state, 1 district residence; representatives, age 22, 2 years' state, 1 district residence.	Three years' state, and 1 county residence, and a freehold of 200 acres.	Citizenship. Senators, age 35, 6 years' state, 1 district residence; representatives, age 24, 2 years' state, and 1 district residence.	Citizenship; payment of taxes. Senators, age 30, 2 years' district residence; representatives, age 25, 1 year's county residence.	*Qualifications.*	LEGISLATURE.
In proportion to white population.	In proportion to the number of taxable inhabitants.	In proportion to the number of qualified electors.	In proportion to white male population, above 21 years of age.	*Apportionment.*	LEGISLATURE.
By the people; biennially.	By the people; biennially. Eligible 6 out of 8 years.	By the people; quadriennially. Eligible 4 out of 11 years.	By the people; biennially. Eligible 6 out of 8 years.	*Election; Term of Office.*	EXECUTIVE.
Freehold; age 30; 20 years' citizenship; 5 years' residence.	Freehold of 500 acres; age 35; 4 years' residence.	Age 35; citizenship; 6 years' residence.	Age 30; 12 years' citizenship; 4 years' residence.	*Qualifications.*	EXECUTIVE.
Qualified negative; the pardoning power, except for treason, for which consent of senate necessary.	The pardoning power.	Qualified negative; official patronage, with consent of senate; the pardoning power; reprieves only in cases of treason.	The pardoning power.	*Powers.*	EXECUTIVE.

Lieutenant-governor, who is, *ex officio*, president of the senate.	Speaker of senate.	Lieutenant-governor, who is, *ex officio*, speaker of the senate.	Speaker of senate.	*Successor on Death, Absence, &c.*
None.	None.	None.	None.	COUNCIL; *Number; Election; Qualifications; Powers.*
By legislature; good behavior, *till 65. Justices of the peace for such term as may be fixed by law.	By legislature; good behavior.	By governor; good behavior.	By legislature for 7 years. Justices of the peace by the people for 3 years.	*Appointment and Term of Office.* JUDICIARY.
By impeachment; and by governor, on address of ⅔ of leg. The judge must be heard in defence.	By impeachment.	By impeachment; and by governor on address of two thirds of legislature.	By impeachment.	*How removable.*
Citizenship; 1 year's state, and 6 months' district residence, payment of taxes, or enrolment in the militia. Blacks excluded.	A freehold, or 6 months' county residence.	Citizenship; 2 year's state, or 1 district residence. Blacks excluded.	One year's residence and being assessed with taxes, or laboring on highway. Blacks excluded.	*Qualifications of Voters.*
First Monday in August, and day following.	Biennially; on the first Thursday in August, and day following.	First Monday in August; may be continued 3 days on request of any one of the candidates.	Second Tuesday in October.	*Day of General Election.*
The sense of the people may be taken for calling a convention, when two thirds of the legislature deem it necessary.	The sense of the people may be taken for calling a convention, when two thirds of the legislature deem it necessary.	The sense of the people may be taken for calling a convention, when the legislature pass a law for that purpose within the first 20 days of their stated annual session.	The sense of the people may be taken for calling a convention, when two thirds of the legislature deem it necessary.	*Provision for amending Constitution.*

MISSOURI. 1820.	ILLINOIS. 1818.	INDIANA, 1816.	LOUISIANA. 1812.	ALABAMA. 1819.	*Date of Constitution.*	
General assembly; the house of representatives and one half of senate, chosen biennially.	General assembly; the house of representatives and one half of the senate, chosen biennially.	General assembly; house of representatives and one third of senate, chosen annually.	General assembly; house of representatives and one half the senate, chosen biennially.	General assembly; house of representatives and one third of senate, chosen annually.	*Name and Term of Office.*	LEGISLATURE.
First Monday in November, every second year.	First Monday in December, every second year.	First Monday in December.	First Monday in January.	Fourth Monday in October.	*Time of stated Meeting*	
Citizenship; 1 year's district residence; taxation. Senators, age 30, 4 years' state residence; representatives, age 24, 2 years' state residence. Blacks excluded.	Citizenship; a year's district residence; payment of taxes; senators, 25 years of age.	Citizenship; 1 year's district residence; payment of taxes. Senators, age 25, 2 years' state residence.	Citizenship; freehold. Senators, age 27, 4 years' state, 1 district residence; representatives, 2 years' state, 1 city residence. Blacks excluded.	Citizenship; 2 years' state and 1 district residence. Senators 27 years of age. Blacks excluded.	*Qualifications.*	
In proportion to white male population.	In proportion to white population.	In proportion to white male inhabitants above 21 years of age.	Representatives in proportion to qualified electors; senators by permanent fixed districts.	In proportion to white population.	*Apportionment.*	
By the people; quadriennially. Ineligible every second term.	By the people; quadriennially. Ineligible every second term.	By the people; triennially. Eligible 6 in any term of 9 years.	By the people; quadriennially. [The legislature select one of the two highest on the poll.] Ineligible every second term.	By the people; biennially. Eligible 4 out of 6 years.	*Election; Term of Office.*	EXECUTIVE.
Age 35; native born citizen of the U. States, or an inhabitant of Missouri at the time of cession to the U. S.	Age 30; 30 years' citizenship; 2 years' residence.	Age 30; 10 years' citizenship; 5 years' residence.	Freehold of $5000; age 35; citizenship; 6 years' residence.	Age 30; a native citizen of the U. States; 4 years' residence.	*Qualifications.*	
Qualified negative; official patronage, with consent of senate; pardoning power.	Qualified negative (see *Council*). Official patronage, with consent of senate; the pardoning power.	Qualified negative; official patronage, with consent of senate; pardoning power.	Qualified negative; official patronage, and pardoning power, with consent of senate; reprieves only in cases of treason.	Qualified negative; the pardoning power; in cases of treason, consent of senate necessary.	*Powers.*	

Lieutenant-governor, who is, *ex officio*, president of the senate.	Lieutenant-governor, who is, *ex officio*, speaker of the senate.	Lieutenant-governor, who is, *ex officio*, president of the senate.	President of the senate.	President of the senate.	*Successor on Death, Absence, &c.*
None.	The judges of the supreme court, with the governor, form a council, which possesses a qualified negative on legislative acts.	None.	None.	None.	COUNCIL; *Number; Election; Qualifications; Powers.*
By governor; good behavior until aged 65.	By legislature; good behavior.	By governor for 7 years. Justices of the peace elected by the people for 5 years.	By governor; good behavior.	By legislature; good behavior, till 70.	*Appointment and Term of Office.* JUDICIARY.
By impeachment; by governor, on address of ⅔ of legislature. The judge must be heard in defence.	By impeachment; and by governor, on address of two thirds of legislature.	By impeachment.	By impeachment; and by governor, on address of three fourths of the legislature.	By impeachment; and by governor, on address of ⅔ of legislature. The judge must be heard in defence.	*How removable.* JUDICIARY.
Citizenship; a year's state and 3 months' district residence. Blacks excluded.	Six months' residence. Blacks excluded.	Citizenship; 1 year's residence. Blacks excluded.	Citizenship; 1 year's county residence; payment of taxes. Blacks excluded.	Citizenship; 1 year's state, and 3 months' district residence. Blacks excluded.	*Qualifications of Voters.*
Biennially; on the first Monday in August.	Biennially; on the first Monday in August.	First Monday in August.	Biennially; on the first Monday in July.	First Monday in August, and day following, until altered by law.	*Day of General Election.*
Two thirds of the legislature may propose amendments, which may be ratified by two thirds of the next legislature at their first session.	The sense of the people may be taken for calling a convention, when two thirds of the legislature deem it necessary.	The sense of the people to be taken every twelfth year, as to calling a convention.	A convention to be called, if voted for by the people two successive years; the vote being previously authorised by legislature, within the first 20 days of their annual session.	Two thirds of the legislature may propose amendments; which, if ratified by the people at the next election, and by two thirds of the subsequent legislature, become valid.	*Provision for amending Constitution.*

REMARKS.—*Legislature.* The powers of the legislature, being well known, and nearly similar in all the states, are not enumerated in the preceding table. It may be proper to mention here, however, that the senate have no power to originate money bills, excepting in the states of Connecticut, New York, Ohio, North Carolina, Tennessee, Illinois and Missouri; and that, in New Jersey and Maryland, the senate can neither originate nor alter such bills. In Virginia, *all* laws originate in the house of representatives. The power of impeachment before the senate is vested in the house of representatives by all the state constitutions, except those of Maryland, Virginia and North Carolina. Maryland appears to have no court of impeachment, judicial officers being removable by conviction of misbehavior in a court of law. In Virginia, the house of delegates impeach before the court of appeals. In North Carolina, state officers may be impeached before any state court of supreme jurisdiction, either by the general assembly, or by presentment of the grand jury of the court. No pardoning power any where exists in cases of impeachment.—In Alabama, a revision and new digest of civil and criminal law is to be made decennially. In Alabama, Indiana, Illinois and Missouri, the legislature are restricted in their power of erecting banks.

Executive. The duties of the executives, in addition to those enumerated in the table, are, to superintend the execution of the laws, and to act as commanders-in-chief of the militia. In Louisiana, the governor must visit the different counties at least once in two years, to inform himself of the state of the militia, and the general condition of the country.—Massachusetts is the only state whose constitution gives *titles* to the officers of government. The governor is entitled *his excellency*, the lieutenant-governor *his honor.*

Religion. In the United States, every denomination of religion is equally under the protection of the law. In a few of the states, however, certain modes of belief are required as qualifications *for office.* In Massachusetts and Maryland, the declaration of a belief in the Christian religion is required to qualify for office. In New Jersey, no *Protestant* can be denied any civil right on account of his religious principles. In Pennsylvania, Mississippi and Tennessee, the belief in a God, and a future state of rewards and punishments, is required as a qualification for office. In N. Carolina, no one denying the truth of the Protestant religion, or the divine authority of the Old or New Testament, or whose religious principles are incompatible with the freedom and safety of the state, can hold a civil office. In the other states, no religious test is required.—Persons conscientiously scrupulous of taking an oath, are every where permitted to substitute a solemn affirmation; and this is recognised by all the constitutions, except those of Virginia and North Carolina, and the charter of Rhode Island, a hiatus which is supplied in those states by law.—Those who are conscientiously scrupulous of bearing arms, are every where allowed to pay an equivalent for personal service. In Tennessee, the legislature are enjoined to "pass laws exempting citizens belonging to any sect or denomination of religion, the tenets of which are known to be opposed to the bearing of arms, from attending private and general musters." In Maine, "persons of the denominations of Shakers or Quakers" may be exempted from military duty.—Ministers of the gospel are not eligible as legislators in Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina and Tennessee. In South Carolina, Kentucky and Mississippi, they are eligible neither as governors nor legislators. In Missouri, the only civil office they can hold is that of *justice of the peace;* while in New York, Delaware and Louisiana, they are not eligible to any office whatever.—New Hampshire and Massachusetts are the only states whose constitutions make provision for religious establishments. In New Hampshire, the legislature is empowered to *authorize,* and in Massachusetts the legislature is enjoined to *require,* the several towns, parishes, &c., in the state, to make adequate provision, at their own expense, for the support and maintenance of *Protestant* ministers of the gospel.

In Central and South America, a number of constitutions have been established within this century. All, with the exception of the monarchical constitution of the Brazils, and the transient imperial system of the Mexican empire under Iturbide, who was elected emperor May 18, 1822, are republican, modelled, in most respects, after the constitution of the U. States, in regard to the division of powers among the legislative, judiciary and executive bodies, &c. In Mexico, Central America, and the United Provinces of La Plata, there exist federal governments, i. e. unions of different states, like that of the U. States: the other republics have central

governments. The government of Spain, in her South American colonies, was so defective, the territory of these so immense, and the population so scattered, that, when the Spanish yoke was thrown off, the elements of an independent and free government, in the new states, were necessarily so few, that, ever since their respective declarations of independence, they have been in a state of agitation; and many of them are likely to remain so for a long time to come, because the people are wofully deficient in education and industry—two of the main grounds of real liberty and of a settled order of things; and it is one of the most difficult tasks for a nation, from which tyranny has withheld the means of education, to acquire the habits which fit men for independence, after shaking off the yoke of their oppressors, which is generally the easiest part of a revolution. History shows that far more internal convulsions are caused by ignorance, and the violence which springs from it, than by the ambition of aspiring individuals. Since the condition of South America is, at present, so unsettled, it would be of little use to enumerate the different constitutions existing there, which will probably undergo many changes; and we must refer the reader to the articles on the respective countries, in which he will find their history brought down to the time of the preparation of the articles. Brazil received its present constitution in 1824. It was sworn to by the emperor March 25 of that year. It has several new features. The four branches of civil authority—the legislative, the mediative, the executive and the judicial—originate from the transfer of power by the people. The government is monarchical, hereditary and representative. The representation of the Brazilian nation consists of the emperor and the general assembly—a body composed of two chambers, that of the deputies, chosen for four years, and that of the senators, chosen by the emperor from the election-lists. With the former rests the power of originating bills for the imposition of taxes and the levying of soldiers, as well as of proposing a change of dynasty. The latter retain their dignity for life. The emperor has the executive and mediatorial authority, but his *veto* is not absolute. He cannot refuse his sanction to a bill equally approved by two legislative assemblies. The press is free. The treaty with Portugal, Nov. 15, 1825, has somewhat of the character of a fundamental law. Paraguay is governed by doctor Francia, without a constitution, and the former kingdom of Hayti received a constitution in 1811. The democratic constitution of the republic of Hayti, dated Jan. 27, 1807, was renewed in 1816; and when the kingdom was abolished in 1820, and the Spanish part of the island was united with the republic, in 1822, the constitution of 1816 was established for the whole island. It is fashioned after the constitution of the U. States; has a house of representatives, a senate and president. Indians, Negroes, Mulattoes and Mestizoes only are allowed to become citizens.* (See the articles *Corporation* and *Estates*.)

CONSTITUTIONISTS. (See *Unigenitus*.)

CONSTITUTIONNEL, LE (*French*; The Constitutional); a daily paper in Paris. In England and the U. States, no party, however much it may be opposed to others, thinks of abolishing the constitution or constitutional liberty: the word *constitutional*, therefore, cannot be used in these two countries as designating a party. Very different is the case in France—a difference which must be constantly kept in mind, if we wish to understand the present political proceedings in that country, or to compare them with American and British politics. In France, there really exists a powerful party, which aims at restoring the *good old times*, and destroying the *Charte*. (q. v.) The word *constitutional*, therefore, designates, in France, the party opposed to the one just mentioned, embracing, however, many varieties of opinion. The paper called *Le Constitutionnel* is one of the ablest journals of the age. It is liberal, but moderate and cautious. Messrs. Etienne, Jay and Tissot are the chief editors. Six or eight proprietors contribute. Over the whole is a *directeur en chef*, and for the different branches there are from 10 to 12 editors. Many of the first *savants* are often engaged to furnish a certain number of original articles

* The most novel phenomenon in constitutional history is the constitution, or rather constituent law, which the active pacha of Egypt has recently given to his subjects. An assembly has met, accordingly, at Cairo, consisting of the ministers of the pacha, the *ulemas*, or the learned in the law, the superintendents of manufactures conducted on government account (the pacha is the most active merchant and manufacturer of his realm), the *cachefs*, or prefects of districts, to the number of 23; and the *cheyks-el-belad*, or heads of villages, who form the representatives of the people, and are 93 in number, chiefly from Lower Egypt. The session was opened by a long speech from Ibrahim Pacha, the son of the pacha of Egypt. The above is an extract from the *Courier de Smyrne*. We have, it is true, no other information; but, if there is any truth in the statement, it is certainly of great interest.

in the course of the year. In like manner, the famous M. Malte-Brun was employed to write, every month, a geographical article for the *Journal des Debats*, for a very high sum. The *Constitutionnel* occupies from 8 to 10 presses, working day and night. The monthly expense of the paper amounts to 50,000 francs. The remuneration which is paid for single contributions is very high. For an article of one column, or one and a half, generally 100 to 120, sometimes 150, francs are paid. It was established, in 1815, by 15 shareholders, and has from 18 to 20,000 subscribers—a greater number than any other French paper, the *Journal des Debats*, which comes next to it, having only from 13,000 to 14,000. In the beginning, a share of the *Constitutionnel* cost 30,000 francs; now it costs 100,000. A great variety of topics is treated of in this paper, embracing not only politics, but the sciences and arts, and, as interesting to general readers, it may be recommended in preference to any other French newspaper.

Construction, in politics, is the interpretation of the fundamental law of the state. Wherever there is such a fundamental law, a difference of opinion must exist respecting the meaning of certain passages, as no phraseology but the mathematical is capable of perfect precision. Such construction is therefore a copious source of party strife. In several states, there have been parties, which declared war against all construction of the fundamental law, and insisted upon the execution of its obvious meaning, forgetting that this *obvious meaning*, as they called it, was nothing but their own construction of its provisions. Such difference of opinion must exist in regard to every written code, political or religious. Thus the Protestants declared, at the diet of Augsburg, that they would not allow any construction of the Bible, since its obvious meaning expressed God's will. The construction of the fundamental law, then, wherever persons are united in one society, is of vital importance, and particularly so in politics. If the construction of the constitution, that is, the declaration of its meaning in doubtful points, is unprovided for, and left, as has been the case in several of the modern monarchies, to the executive, liberty may be considered as destitute of any bulwark. The U. States of America are the first state, at least of any magnitude, which has intrusted the construction of the constitution, in cases of dispute between the government and people, to a tribunal provided by the instrument itself. This tribunal is the supreme court of the U. States.

Consul; a name given, 1. to the two highest magistrates in the republic of Rome, from whom it passed to certain high officers under the emperors; 2. the designation of the three highest magistrates of the French republic, during a certain period; 3. the title, at present, of certain officers of a diplomatico-commercial character.

I. In Rome, after the kings had been expelled, two consuls were placed at the head of the senate, the body in whose hands was the administration of the republic; *consul* signifying *adviser, counsellor*. These officers were to be annually elected. In Greek, they were called ὕπατοι (the highest). Consuls were, at first, chosen only from among the patricians; at a later period, also from the plebeians. In some cases, both the consuls were plebeians, but this was an exception to the general rule. In order to be eligible to the consulship, the candidate was to be 45 years of age (*ætas consularis*). But this law was frequently violated. Pompey was made consul in his 36th, Valerius Corvus in his 23d, Scipio Africanus, the elder, in his 28th, and the younger Scipio in his 38th year. Nobody was to be reëlected consul till after an interval of 10 years. But this law was also disregarded; Marius was reëlected immediately. The candidate was required, by law, to be in Rome at the time of the election; but this law was not better regarded than the others. The election of the consuls took place in the *comitia centuriata*, in the *campus Martius*. One of the existing consuls presided. He who had most votes was called *consul prior*. His name was the first in the *fasti*. He also first received the *fasces* (q. v.), and usually presided at the election of the magistrates for the next year. The time of election varied at different periods. The consuls elect were called *consules designati*. They entered on their office, on the first of January, by sacrificing and praying in the capitol, after receiving the congratulations of the senate and people. Within five days afterwards, they were obliged to repeat the oath which they had taken when elected, that they would not injure the republic, and that they would govern according to the laws. A similar oath that they had so done, was required of them when they left their office. The exterior marks of honor of the consuls (*insignia*) were the same with those of the former kings, excepting the crown; and, instead of a sceptre, they had a

staff of ivory (*scipio eburneus*). Their toga was lined with purple (*toga prætexta*); under the emperors, it was embroidered. They sat upon an ornamented chair (*sella curulis*). Twelve lictors, with the fasces and axes, preceded them. In the beginning, the lictors, with fasces, marched before each; but Valerius Publicola made a law, that, in the city, they should precede only one. After that time, the consuls enjoyed this honor, respectively, in alternate months. The one who was not preceded by the fasces had a public slave going before him (*accensus*), and the lictors following him. The consul who was first elected, or who had most children, or, if the number was equal, whose wife was living, or who had most votes, first received the *fasces cum securibus*. Whoever met the consul gave way to him, uncovered his head, descended from his horse, or rose, if he happened to be seated. If the consul saw any one neglect this form of respect, he ordered the lictor to punish him (*animadvertere*). The annals of state were called *fasti consulares*, and particular years were designated by the names of the consuls then in office. Instead of saying, for instance, A. U. C. 690, it was said *M. Tullio Cicerone et L. Antonio consulibus*; hence *numerare multos consules*, instead of *multos annos*. In order to understand the authority of the consuls, it must be kept in mind, that, in the time of the Roman republic, the powers of the different branches of government were by no means kept so distinct as with us, and therefore much greater opportunity was then afforded for the assumption of undue authority. The division of powers is one of the most important inventions in the art of governing, and affords one of the greatest protections of liberty; much greater than is afforded by republicanism, or any form of government, without it. We find united in the consuls, to a great degree, the executive, judiciary and legislative functions. In the beginning of the republic, the authority of the consuls was almost as great as that of the preceding kings. They could declare war, conclude peace, make alliances, and even order a citizen to be put to death; hence Cicero ascribes to them *regiam potestatem* (Legg. iii. 3). But Valerius Publicola took the axe out of their *fasces*, that is, deprived them of their right over the lives of the citizens, and left them, at least while in the city, only the right to decree the punishment of scourging. Without the city, when they had the command over the army, they had the axe in the *fasces*, that is, the power to condemn to death. Publicola had a law enacted allowing appeals from the consuls to the people. The greatest check was put upon the consular power by the establishment of the tribunes of the people, who had the right to oppose every measure of the consuls. Yet their power remained very great. They stood, in reality, at the head of the whole republic: all other officers were under them, the tribunes of the people only excepted: they convoked the senate, proposed what they thought fit, and executed the laws. Laws proposed by them were generally called by their name. They received all despatches from the provinces and foreign kings, and gave audience to foreign ambassadors. In times of emergency, the consular power was still further increased by the well known decree, *viderent, vel darent operam, ne quid detrimenti respublica caperet*, by which they received unlimited power, and could even sentence to death without trial, levy troops, and make war without the resolve of the people first obtained. If a sudden riot took place, the consuls called the citizens to arms by the words *qui rempublicam salvam esse velit, me sequatur*—equivalent to the reading of the riot act with us. At the beginning of their term of office, the consuls divided the provinces among them by agreement or lot. *Province*, at first, signified a certain business committed to the consul, as the command of an army. By and by, it came to denote conquered countries. To these consuls were sent by the senate as governors, after laying down their office. They were then called *proconsules*. A citizen who had been consul was called *consularis*, and had a higher rank than other senators. Pompey enacted a law that a consul should not be sent to a province until five years after he had laid down his office, and Cæsar decreed that he should remain there only for two years. Under the emperors, the consular dignity sunk to a mere shadow, until Caligula wished to make his horse consul. Many consuls, at this period, were appointed in one year, until Constantine again appointed two annually, after the office had been abolished by Justinian. The pomp of the consuls, under the emperors, was still greater than during the republic. *Consul honorarius* was a titular officer, with the rank, but without the power, of a consul. This dignity was first conferred under Cæsar.

II. In France, the directorial government (third constitution) was abolished by the revolution of the 18th Brumaire, of the year 8 of the republic (Nov. 9, 1799), and

a provisional consular government, consisting of Bonaparte, Sièyes and Roger Ducos, established the fourth constitution, which was proclaimed Dec. 15, by which France was declared a republic under a government of consuls. Three elective consuls (Bonaparte, Cambacères, Lebrun, each with 500,000 francs annually) had almost uncontrolled executive authority, while the legislative power was in the hands of the tribunate and the legislative assembly: a conservative senate was also elected. But as early as Aug. 2, 1802, Bonaparte was proclaimed first consul for life, and thus the constitution of France became again monarchical. He had the power of naming his successor, proposing the two other consuls, appointing the senators, counsellors of state, and the presidents of the council of the people, which he could assemble, and determine the length of their sessions at his pleasure; he could also assemble and dissolve the legislative body at his will. The courts of justice, civil and criminal, were subjected to his control; the right of pardoning was put into his hands, and the number of the members of the tribunate was limited to half of what it had been. He was to manage the revenues and the expenditure of the state, provide for the safety of the people at home, and for the defence of the country abroad, exercise supreme command over the forces, maintain political connexions with foreign countries, confirm all treaties, and, in critical times, might even suspend the constitution. Thus the first consul united royal dignity with royal authority, and, that he might the better retain both, the civil list was increased to 6,000,000 francs; and, Aug. 15, 1802, the birth-day of the first consul, a consular court was instituted at St. Cloud, and all the former court discipline reëstablished. Nothing now remained for the complete restoration of monarchy, but to make Bonaparte's dignity hereditary in his family by law, as it was already, in point of fact, by his power of naming his successor. The first consuls were also the last; the one became emperor, the others princes. On the first coins struck after Napoleon's elevation as emperor, he called himself *empereur de la republique Française.*

III. Since the time of the crusades, officers called *consuls* have existed in different states, for the purpose of giving decisions, affording protection, or verifying facts and occurrences, relating to maritime and commercial affairs. The Italian states, in particular, took advantage of the crusades to procure permission from the Asiatic princes to send such persons as protectors of merchants from their own country into the domains of these princes, and their example was followed by other European nations, for the protection of their commerce in the Levant, and in Africa; and, since the 15th and 16th centuries, the same officers have also been established in European countries, to facilitate the intercourse of the respective nations, so that the commercial consuls, both in Europe and other parts of the world, are now very numerous. The right of nominating consuls is in the hands of the supreme power, which, however, can send them only where treaties or ancient customs authorize their appointment. The duty of this officer is to afford protection and assistance to navigators or merchants of his nation, and to watch over the fulfilment of commercial treaties. In point of authority, however, the consuls in the Levant and Africa are different from those in Europe and America, because the former have also civil jurisdiction over their countrymen. They are invested with much more of a diplomatic character than the latter. Consuls are regarded by some as ministers: others, however, will not acknowledge them as such. They certainly do not stand on the same footing with even the lowest degree of acknowledged diplomatic persons, because they have no letters of credence, but merely patents of appointment, which must be confirmed by the government to which they are sent. They therefore do not enjoy the privileges of ministers; for instance, exemption from the jurisdiction of the courts of the foreign country; and from taxes, the right of having divine service performed in their residences, &c. Generally, they are subject to the civil authorities of the place where they reside.—*Consul-general* is a consul appointed for several places, or over several consuls. Sometimes vice-consuls are given to consuls. Consulships almost always exempt from military service, for which reason the consulship is often sought for. Generally, consuls are merchants, without remuneration, except that arising from fees, which sometimes amount to considerable sums. Very often consuls are not citizens of the countries for which they act.

Consulta (*Ital.*) was a branch of the administration in the Italian republic, and the kingdom of Italy which succeeded. It corresponded to a council of state. It consisted of eight persons, and had chiefly the direction of foreign affairs and diplomacy.

Consumption, in political economy, is the use and wearing out of the products of industry, or of all things having an exchangeable value. This destruction, by putting things to the uses for which they are designed, is very different in different things; nor are the wants of society limited to the use of things having an exchangeable value. The air and the water are as necessary, in the economy of life, as the earth and its products; and yet neither the air nor water, ordinarily, bears a price. The latter, however, is sometimes a subject of commerce, especially in large cities; in the city of Madrid, for example. The earth, on the other hand, is a subject of monopoly in all countries where any progress has been made in civilization. But, unlike its products, it is not always deteriorated by use: on the contrary, if skilfully cultivated, its value is increased. In respect to the products, too, there is a difference; some are destroyed, or, in other words, reduced to their elements, by use, as provisions. Others, as the precious stones, are not necessarily destroyed by time or use. The metals, ordinarily, pass through various forms, in a variety of manufactures, before they are wasted and lost in rust; and some products, being destroyed in one form, are converted into materials for use in another. The remnants of linen and cotton fabrics, for instance, supply materials for paper; and so the wood and iron of a ship, on ceasing to be useful, in their combination, for the purposes of navigation, still supply, the one, fuel, the other, materials for the founderies of iron. The greater the advancement of the arts, the more extensively will the remnants of consumption of one kind supply the materials for the production of articles of another form. The arts will even convert the destruction of war into the materials for new production. The bones left on the field of Waterloo have been carefully collected, and transported to England, to manure the lands. The increase of population, and the progress of the arts, introduce a thousand ways of gleaning the relics of one kind of consumption to supply the materials of another. This is one of the absolute gains of resources consequent upon the advance of civilization. In regard to consumption, the remarks and reasoning of Adam Smith have led to some erroneous prejudices, though his positions are, in some respects, just. He assumes, for instance, that all the stock of society, including the improvements on the lands, are the result of savings, or the excess of the results of labor over the demands for immediate consumption; and this is, no doubt, true; but the inference which is, and too often, made, that the great object of a nation should be to save the fruits of its labor, as the surest means of wealth and prosperity, is by no means true in its full extent. If, for instance, a community has saved the products of its labor to the amount of $1000, for which sum it imports from abroad, and introduces into use, a more perfect kind of plough, and the art of making it, or the art of making a better hat, or screw, or saw, with the same labor,—the amount saved being expended for this purpose, the numerical possessions, or the computed capital stock, of that community, is thereby diminished; and yet the aggregate productive capacity is increased. This lets us into a principle of national economy, which is too frequently overlooked, namely, that the means of prosperity—the national wealth—consists more in the capacity for production than in actual possessions. As far as the capital, or nominal wealth, consists in the implements of production, and the accommodations for the shelter of the inhabitants, they are both a part of the individual wealth and national resources. But a vast proportion of the productive faculties of a people do not exist in the form of property, and are not marketable articles. Of this description are the arts, and those characteristics of a community, which enable the people to maintain good laws, and perpetuate their political institutions. All the consumption, directed to the promotion of these, is, in the strictest sense, economical, and all the saving of stock, which might be devoted to these objects, by a consumption for that purpose, is a wasteful and short-sighted economy. The great business of society, in an economical view, is production and consumption; and a great production without a corresponding consumption of products cannot for a long time be continued. The notions about the destructive tendency of luxury are, therefore, preposterous, as a general proposition, for it proposes thrift and saving for no purpose. Suppose a whole nation to act fully up to the notions inculcated by doctor Franklin, what would be the result but universal idleness? for, all being intent on saving, that is, on not consuming, there would, of course, cease to be any encouragement or demand for production. This is the condition of savage life, imposed by a necessity resulting from ignorance, improvidence and indolence. To keep the streams of production inac-

tive flow, consumption is necessary; and the consumption, which directly and steadily promotes production is, in fact, promotive of public wealth. We do not mean to deny, that the expenditures of a man who exceeds his means of payment will be injurious, not only to himself, but also to the community; for he may annihilate the capital of those who give him credit, and, since their industry may depend on their capital, which supplies them with tools to work with, materials to work upon, and a stock of clothing, food and accommodations, until they can obtain the returns of their industry by a sale of its products, the loss of this capital, by trusting it to one who never pays them, is a destruction of their industry. Hoarding, on the other hand, though not so injurious, yet, if too generally prevalent, may have the effect of paralyzing production, and stifling and enfeebling the economical energies of a people, by diminishing the motives to industry. In a healthy state of the national industry, therefore, the consumption of products should bear a just proportion to production. As long as enough is saved to supply all the increase of demand for a stock of implements and materials, and make all the improvements, of a permanent nature, of which the country is susceptible, such as canals, roads, bridges, &c.,—which are, indeed, all of them, only different modes of present consumption of the fruits of labor of various kinds to reproduce others,—it is much better, as a general rule, that the remainder of the products of industry should be expended in luxuries, than that they should not be produced at all. In regard to luxuries—including in this term all the expenditures made for the gratification of appetite, taste or vanity—the dispositions of men, in general, will sufficiently incline them to these. There is no necessity of inculcating the utility of such expenditures as encouragements to industry. Against the importunity of the appetites and desires of men, and against improvidence and thoughtlessness of the future, doctor Franklin's lessons of economy are of great utility. But, looking at the whole mass of society as a great engine of production and consumption, we should inculcate a different set of maxims, based on more comprehensive principles. The example of doctor Franklin himself would be a practical lesson, in this respect; for he was not illiberal of his time, or labor, or money, in promoting those expenditures which had the advancement of society for their object. These are often such as gratify no immediate appetite or taste. They look to the future. Their greatest encouragement is the honor which is paid to them by the public opinion; for if a man gains more distinction by encouraging a useful or ornamental art, founding a school, or contributing to the construction of a public work, than by riding in a coach, a generous motive is held out to him to turn a part of the general consumption, of which his resources give him the control, into those channels. The tastes and habits of thinking of a people determine the direction of a vast proportion of the general consumption; and the direction and amount of this consumption again determine, in a great degree, those of production. When we say that production should be encouraged, it is only inculcating, in other words, the maxim that consumption should be encouraged; for the one will, in every community, bear a pretty near proportion to the other; and the object of a liberal, enlightened policy is, to swell the amount of both; and the object of a wise and philanthropical policy is, to direct them to objects promotive of the physical comfort and moral and intellectual improvement of a people. We are, however, to avoid the error of supposing, that all the causes which go to swell the aggregate of production and consumption, are beneficial in their operation. If, for example, all the rents of the lands, as under the feudal system, are assigned to a few, who, by a luxurious and expensive style of living, consume the greater part of the produce of the labor of the other members of the community, leaving them no more than barely enough to sustain life, and defend them against the elements, though such a community may present a gorgeous exhibition of individual wealth, yet the condition of a great part of its members is little better than that of savages. This was the tendency of society under the feudal system, and all the ecclesiastical systems founded under the auspices of the church of Rome. In such communities, every tax, and every superfluous product, passes into a vortex remote from the interests, comforts and wants of the mass of the population. The consumption ought to be so distributed, as to give every one some just share, in proportion to his labor and services. A precisely equal and just apportionment of the fruits of labor, and the profits of the use of the earth, cannot be made in any country; for the rights of property must be guarded, or industry will dwindle away. But the laws may do much, and the pre-

vailing habits of thinking, and principles and motives of action, of a people, still more, towards assigning to every kind of industry, and every species of talent and skill, its fair proportion of the general consumption, and in such a way as not to check, but to augment, the general mass of things produced and consumed. The benefits of commerce do not consist so much in the mass of wealth, which it may be the means of accumulating, or in its directly employing a great many persons, as in the facilities it gives for augmenting the general mass of production and consumption; and, in this respect, internal commerce, in a country of considerable extent and variety of products, is far more important than foreign, since the mutual exchanges of the products of labor made among the inhabitants of such a country are much greater, in amount, than those made between the whole country and other nations.

CONSUMPTION, in medicine. (See *Atrophy.*)

CONTAGION (*contagio;* from *contango,* to meet or touch each other). This word properly imports the application of any poisonous matter to the body through the medium of touch. It is applied to the action of those very subtile particles arising from putrid substances, or from persons laboring under certain diseases, which communicate the diseases to others; as the contagion of putrid fever, the effluvia of dead animal or vegetable substances, the *miasmata* of bogs and fens, the *virus* of small-pox, *lues venerea,* &c., &c. The principal diseases excited by poisonous *miasmata* are, intermittent, remittent and yellow fevers, dysentery and typhus. The last is generated in the human body itself, and is sometimes called the *typhoid fomes.* Some *miasmata* are produced from moist vegetable matter, in some unknown state of decomposition. The contagious *virus* of the plague, small-pox, measles, chincough, *cynanche maligna,* and scarlet fever, as well as of typhus and the jail fever, operates to a much more limited distance through the medium of the atmosphere than the marsh *miasmata.* Contact of a diseased person is said to be necessary for the communication of plague; and approach within two or three yards of him for that of typhus. The Walcheren *miasmata* extended their pestilential influence to vessels riding at anchor, fully a quarter of a mile from the shore. The chemical nature of all these poisonous effluvia is little understood. They undoubtedly consist, however, of hydrogen, united with sulphur, phosphorus, carbon and azote, in unknown proportions and unknown states of combination. The proper neutralizers or destroyers of these gasiform poisons are, nitric acid vapor, muriatic acid gas and chlorine. The two last are the most efficacious, but require to be used in situations from which the patients can be removed at the time of the application. Nitric acid vapor may, however, be diffused in the apartments of the sick without much inconvenience. Bed-clothes, particularly blankets, can retain the contagious *fomes,* in an active state, for almost any length of time. Hence they ought to be fumigated with peculiar care. The vapor of burning sulphur or sulphurous acid is used in the East against the plague. It is much inferior in power to the other antiloimic reägents. There does not appear to be any distinction commonly made between contagious and infectious diseases. The infection communicated by diseased persons is usually so communicated by the product of the disease itself; for instance, by the matter of the small-pox; and therefore many of these diseases are infectious only when they have already produced such matter, but not in their earlier periods. In many of them, contact with the diseased person is necessary for infection, as is the case with the itch, syphilis, canine madness; in other contagious diseases, even the air may convey the infection, as in the scarlet fever, the measles, the contagious typhus, &c. In this consists the whole difference between the fixed and volatile contagions. A real infection requires always a certain susceptibility of the healthy individual; and many infectious maladies destroy, forever, this susceptibility of the same contagion in the individual, and, accordingly, attack a person only once, as the small-pox, measles, &c. Other contagious diseases do not produce this effect, and may, therefore, repeatedly attack the same person, as typhus, itch, syphilis, and others. Sometimes one contagious disease destroys the susceptibility for another, as the kine-pock for the small-pox. In general, those parts of the body which are covered with the most delicate skin, are most susceptible of contagion; and still more so are wounded parts, deprived of the epidermis. Against those contagious diseases which are infectious through the medium of the air, precautions may be taken by keeping at the greatest possible distance from the sick, by cleanliness and fearlessness; but most completely by the vigilance of the health-officers, by fumigations according to the

prescriptions of Guyton-Morveau, &c. We can more easily secure ourselves against such contagious diseases as are infectious only in case of contact, by means of cleanliness, caution in the use of vessels for eating and drinking, of tobacco-pipes, of wind-instruments, beds and clothes. No general preservative against contagious diseases is known, though many are offered for sale by quacks. The examination of the persons intended for nurses and tenders of infants is very necessary, as thousands of children may be infected by contact with them, and the cause of the disorder remain unknown. (See *Epidemic.*)

Contarini; a noble family of Venice. Domenico Contarini was doge of Venice from 1043 to 1071. He rebuilt Grado, and reduced the city of Zara, which had revolted.—Jacopo Contarini was doge from 1075 to 1080. Under his reign, the Venetians forced the city of Ancona to acknowledge their sovereignty over the Adriatic sea.—Andrea Contarini was doge from 1367 to 1382. The Genoese, under Pietro Doria, had conquered Chiozza, in 1379, and threatened even Venice. Andrea Contarini reconquered Chiozza, and delivered the republic from its enemies.—Francesco Contarini was doge from 1623 to 1625. Under him, Venice, in alliance with Louis XIII of France, the duke of Savoy, and the Protestant cantons of Switzerland, reconquered the Pays de Vaud, in 1624, which the Austrians had taken possession of.—Carlo Contarini was doge from 1655 to 1656. Under his reign Lazaro Mocenigo, admiral of the republic, in June, 1655, gained a brilliant victory over the Turks, in the Dardanelles.—Domenico Contarini was doge from 1659 to 1674. During his government, Venice resisted, for five years, the attacks of the Turks on the island of Candia; but, on Sept. 26, 1667, after a siege and defence of unexampled obstinacy, Francesco Morosini surrendered the island. Peace was then concluded.—Francesco Contarini, in 1460, taught philosophy in Padua, was ambassador at the court of Pius II, commanded the Venetian troops against the Florentines, who had attacked Siena, and wrote the history of this campaign.—Ambrosio Contarini, from 1477 to 1483, was ambassador of the republic at the court of the king of Persia, Usun Kassan. The interesting description of his residence at this court first appeared in Venice, 1481, in Italian.—Gasparo Contarini negotiated a permanent peace between the republic and Charles V. In 1527, he went as ambassador to Rome; then to Ferrara, in order to obtain the liberty of pope Clement VII, whom Charles V kept imprisoned in fort St. Angelo; succeeded in his mission, and became ambassador at the court of the pope. After his return, he was made senator of Venice. Pope Paul III conferred on him the cardinal's hat in 1535. In 1541, he was papal delegate at the German diet, at Ratisbon, where he distinguished himself by his moderation. When the bishops rejected the 22 articles of the Protestants, he exhorted the former not to offend the people any longer by their avarice, luxury and ambition, but to visit their dioceses, support the poor and the schools, and distribute the benefices according to merit. After his return, he was sent as legate to Bologna, where he died in 1542. —Giovanni Contarini, born at Venice, in 1549, died in 1605, was one of the most distinguished painters of his age, worked in the style of Titian, and was particularly skilful in painting ceilings, e. g., his Resurrection, in the church of St. Francesco di Paolo, in Venice.—Vincenzo Contarini, born at Venice in 1577, died in 1617; a scholar, whose reputation was, in early life, so great, that the magistrates of Padua established a new chair of Latin and Greek eloquence, only to retain the learned youth of 26 years of age in their city. He lectured there until 1614.—Simone Contarini, born at Venice in 1563, died in 1633, was Venetian ambassador at the court of the duke of Savoy, Philip II of Spain, Mohammed III, in Constantinople, pope Paul V, and the emperor Ferdinand II; and became, afterwards, advocate of San Marco. As such, he made another journey to Constantinople. When, in 1630, the plague raged at Venice, he could not be induced to leave the city, but remained to make the arrangements which the evil required.

Contat, Louise (madame de Parny, known on the French stage as mademoiselle), was born at Paris in 1760, made her *début* as Atalide, in *Bajazet*, at the *théâtre Français* (1776), but afterwards devoted her brilliant talents entirely to comedy. She was the pupil of Mme. Préville, and her earlier manner was formed on that of her instructress. She was discriminating, but cold in her action; dignified, but stiff in her movements; forcible, but monotonous in her delivery. It was only when she appeared in a new class of characters, that she ceased to be an imitator. She had already appeared with great applause in the parts which the French call the *grandes coquettes*, when Beaumarchais

produced for her *Suzanne*, the *spirituelle* and fascinating *soubrette*, in which, by the author's confession, she far surpassed his own conceptions of that character. Her versatility of talent was displayed in the *Coquette Corrigée*, in Julie in the *Dissipateur*, in Mme. de Volmar (*Mariage Secret*), and in Mme. Evrard (*Vieux Célibataire*). Beauty, grace, vivacity, archness and ease were united with dignity, tenderness, delicacy and judgment. She restored to the stage the masterpieces of Molière, which had long been neglected by the public. After a theatrical career of 32 years, 24 of which were a continual series of triumphs, she retired from the stage in 1808, and became the centre of a brilliant circle of friends. Mme. de Parny was remarkable for her powers of conversation. She was lively or severe, grave or gay, as the occasion required; and her remarks were always characterized by sound and ingenious views, elegant taste, and varied information. A few weeks before her death, she threw into the fire a large collection of anecdotes and other writings, in prose and verse, from her pen, because they contained some strokes of personal satire. She died, in 1813, after five months of severe suffering from a cancer in the breast, during which she manifested the greatest firmness, and even maintained her usual cheerfulness and gayety of spirit. M. Arnault, from whom this account is borrowed, owed his liberty and life, in 1792, to her interference, at the risk of her own life.

Conté, Nicolas Jacques, a painter and chemist, but particularly distinguished for the ingenuity of his mechanical contrivances, was born at St. Céneri, near Séez (department of Orne), in 1755, and died in 1805. His mechanical genius was displayed, at the age of 12 years, by the construction of a violin (which was used at several concerts), with no other instrument than a knife. At the age of 18, without having received any instructions, he executed several paintings for the hospital of Séez. This success did not prevent him from the cultivation of the physical and mathematical sciences. He went to Paris, and invented a hydraulic machine, which was mentioned with approbation by the academy of sciences. In 1793, he was appointed one of the committee for making experiments in regard to the decomposition of water by iron, instead of sulphuric acid; and his activity and skill on this commission occasioned his appointment of director of the aerostatic school at Meudon. Conté suggested the idea of establishing a place of deposit for useful machines, tools, &c., in consequence of which the conservatory was instituted. He afterwards introduced the manufacture of an excellent kind of crayons into France, and established a great manufactory, which still supplies all France with them. He was appointed, in 1798, to accompany the French expedition to Egypt, and his services were of the greatest value. He constructed a furnace on the Pharos, near Alexandria, in the space of two days, for red-hot balls, with which the English were repelled, and thus time was given for fortifying that place. The machines and instruments of the army having fallen into the hands of the Arabs, Conté was obliged to furnish every thing, even the tools: he constructed wind-mills, machines for the mint at Cairo, for an Oriental printing establishment, for the fabrication of gunpowder, &c., and cannon founderies; manufactured steel, paper, swords for the soldiers, utensils for the hospitals, instruments for the engineers, telescopes for the astronomers, microscopes for the naturalists, drums, trumpets, in short, every thing necessary for such a military and scientific expedition in such a country as Egypt. On his return to France, he was appointed to superintend the execution of the great work on Egypt, and invented a graving machine, which, by performing certain parts of the labor, spared the artist much time and trouble. The death of his wife, to whom he was tenderly attached, threw him into a lingering disease, and he survived her but a short time. Conté was a member of the legion of honor. His simplicity, integrity, courage, disinterestedness and warmth of affection rendered him no less amiable and estimable in private life, than his science and ingenuity made him valuable to the nation.

Contempt. Legislative bodies and judicial tribunals are generally invested with power to protect themselves against interruption; and such a power is essential to enable them to conduct their business. They are usually empowered to commit persons to prison, or punish them otherwise, for disturbances and contempts. The constitution of the U. States expressly gives to the senate and house of representatives authority to punish their own members for contempts; and in the case of Anderson, in the 6th volume of Wheaton's reports, it is decided that the house of representatives has power to imprison other persons than its own members for breach of its privileges and contempt of

the house. Such a right, though not expressly given in the constitution, was considered as incidental to the establishment of a legislative body. So it has been considered and repeatedly decided in England, particularly in 1771, when Crosby, lord-mayor of London and a member of the house of commons, was committed to the Tower for the breach of the privileges of the house, and sir Francis Burdett again in 1811. A legislative body may punish one of its own members for disorderly behavior, as well as a bystander. Judicial tribunals have the same power. The French penal code, article 222, &c., provides, that, when any executive or judicial officer shall, during or on account of his official duties, be insulted, the person guilty of the outrage shall be punished by an imprisonment of not less than two months nor more than two years; unless the offence is committed in open court, in which case the imprisonment is not less than two nor more than five years. Blackstone says, in the 4th volume of his Commentaries, that process for contempt is "an inseparable attendant on every superior tribunal; and, accordingly, we find it actually exercised as far back as the annals of our law extend." This power has a much broader construction in England than in the U. States, being confined, in the latter country, mostly, at least, to cases of actual disturbance and flagrant disrespect to the court, or an attempt to influence a decision by popular appeals, or direct and high-handed or outrageous resistance to, or obstruction of, its proceedings or processes; whereas, in England, it extends to acts or omissions which do not directly disturb the judicial proceedings; such, for instance, as not paying a bill of costs awarded by the court; not obeying the summons of a court of equity, and not answering a bill; refusing to be sworn as a witness, which has also been held to be a contempt in the U. States. Serving a process on an attorney, while attending court, has been held to be a contempt of the court in England; likewise shouting, or giving applause, in court, on a return of a verdict by a jury. It was held, in New York, to be a contempt of the court to bring a suit in the name of another, without his consent. It is a contempt to endeavor, by writings or publications, to prejudice the public mind, or that of a jury, or the court, in a cause pending in court. This is not only an attack upon the public administration of justice, but also upon the right of the individual parties in the suit, since it would be in vain to provide, by law, that no party shall be adjudged or condemned without a hearing, if practices are permitted which tend to deprive him of a fair hearing. The party may be charged with contempt, either on the view of the court, that is, without taking the testimony of witnesses, for misdemeanors committed in presence of the court, or on the testimony of witnesses; and he is always heard in his own defence, provided he observes decorum in making his defence. The process is necessarily summary, since the cases are generally such as require immediate interposition, and courts do not usually resort to it, except in palpable and flagrant cases. The punishment, assigned by the statutes of the U. States, and those of the separate states, for this offence, is generally fine or imprisonment.

Content and Noncontent are the words by which assent and dissent are expressed in the house of lords. Aye and No are used in the house of commons.

Contessa, the elder and the younger; two German authors. The former, Christian James Salice Contessa, was born at Hirschberg, in Silesia, in 1767, and died in 1825: the latter, Charles William Salice Contessa, was born, Aug. 9, 1777, at Hirschberg, studied at Halle, and died at Berlin, June 2, 1825. He wrote tales and comedies. Von Houwald, likewise a German poet, published his works in 1826. Hoffmann has described Contessa's character in a masterly manner, under the name of Sylvester, in his *Serapionsbrüder*. The elder of the two brothers is unimportant as an author.

Conti, Antonio Schinella, *abbate*; a Venetian patrician, born at Padua, in 1677, whose mathematical researches attracted the attention of Newton. He had given up the clerical profession, because he disliked to hear confessions. He visited Paris, and, in 1715, London, where he was elected a member of the royal society, on the proposition of Newton. Here he became involved in the controversy between Newton and Leibnitz, and, by attempting to avoid displeasing either of them, dissatisfied both. By chance, Conti came into possession of a manuscript, which contained Newton's system of chronology. From his hands it passed into those of Freret, who published it, with severe notes. Newton was much displeased with Conti's share in the transaction. Feeble health obliged Conti to return, in 1726, to the milder sky of his own country. He lived mostly in Venice, entirely devoted to his literary occupations, which

included poetry. Of the six volumes of his works, which he intended to publish, only the two first appeared (Venice, 1734, 4to.). The first contains a long poem (*Il Globo di Venere*), intended to illustrate the Platonic ideas of the beautiful. After Conti's death (Padua, 1749), four of his tragedies were published at Florence, in 1751 (*Giunio Bruto, Cesare, Marco Bruto,* and *Druso*), which did not establish his poetical reputation beyond all question. In all his works, abstract thinking prevails over poetic imagination. His language is powerful, but is accused of being tinctured with foreign idioms.—There are several other Contis famous in the learned world.

CONTI. (See *Bourbon.*)

CONTINENTAL SYSTEM was a plan devised by Napoleon to exclude England from all intercourse with the continent of Europe. All importation of English manufactures and produce, as well as all other intercourse with Great Britain, was prohibited, for the purpose of compelling England to make peace upon the terms prescribed by the French emperor, and to acknowledge the navigation law established at the peace of Utrecht. For a long period, a violent conflict had been carried on between the maritime powers, concerning the rights of neutral flags, which involved the following points:—1. Does the neutral flag protect enemies' property, or not? 2. Is neutral property subject to confiscation under an enemy's flag, or not? 3. How far does the right of belligerent powers extend to search neutral vessels sailing with or without convoy? 4. What is contraband of war at sea, and what are the rights of the captors in respect to it? 5. How far does the right extend to declare places in a state of blockade? and, finally, 6. Have neutrals the right to carry on a trade, in time of war, from which they were prohibited, in time of peace, with one belligerent, without disturbance from the other? or may neutrals carry on trade between a belligerent power and its colonies, during a war, either directly or circuitously, from which they were excluded in time of peace? On all these questions, the interest and policy of Great Britain were at variance with those of neutral nations, and induced her to urge belligerent pretensions, to which they were not willing to submit. This opposition to the previously acknowledged rights of neutrals was not, however, confined to Great Britain; France, likewise, adopted it, and other maritime powers did the same, whenever they were strong enough to maintain their pretensions. The principle that the flag protects the property was denied by the most powerful maritime nation, and still less was neutral property respected under a belligerent flag. The right of searching, not only neutral vessels sailing singly, but even fleets under public convoys, was introduced in the case of a Swedish merchant fleet, and followed up in respect to others, and the searching vessels were not bound, by the rule adopted in the British admiralty, to take the word of the officers commanding the convoy, that there were no contraband goods on board. A very wide latitude was also given to the term *contraband.* Not only arms and munitions of war were included as such, but also materials which might be used in their manufacture, or such as were necessary in naval and military equipments, especially where they were destined to a naval or military station of the belligerent enemy. The principle adopted was, that whatever might afford the enemy any direct assistance or facilities in his naval or military enterprises, was contraband of war. The principle of the right of confiscating articles of contraband, and, in some circumstances, the ship also, was carried to the extreme extent of the national law. On the right and extent of blockades, new doctrines, likewise, became prevalent. The old doctrine, that a naval blockade, in order to be valid, in respect to neutrals, must be maintained by an adequate force, so as to render ingress and egress imminently dangerous to neutral vessels, was never denied by the British admiralty; but then the novel practice was introduced, of declaring a whole coast in a state of blockade, and, by a pretty liberal construction as to the force requisite to maintain a valid blockade, and the danger of capture to which a neutral must be exposed, by an attempt to enter the places declared to be thus blockaded, the belligerent possessing the strongest naval force was enabled to interrupt the trade of a neutral with the enemy. These doctrines of blockade were finally carried to such a length, that England declared the whole coast of France and Holland to be in a state of blockade, while Napoleon, in retaliation, declared the whole of Great Britain to be in a state of blockade, though he had not a vessel to enforce the blockade. This subject of contraband of war was violently contested, as long ago as 1780; and it was maintained, by the European powers who joined the armed neutrality of that time, that the flag should cover the property, and that the neutral had the right, during war, to carry on a

trade between either belligerent and its colonies, by permission of such belligerent, without any interference on the part of the other belligerent, although such trade was not allowed in time of peace. The principles of blockade and contraband gave Great Britain a great preponderance, on account of its maritime superiority; and the question naturally occurs, whether this preponderance is so dangerous as to call for the united efforts of nations to modify the principles of national law on these subjects, or, at least, to resist the construction put upon them by Great Britain. On examination, it will appear that the pretensions of Great Britain, whether well or ill founded, do not immediately threaten the independence of other nations, but only injure their commerce in time of war. It increased the price of some articles of luxury, in Europe, during the late wars from 1802 to 1812, but could not endanger the political independence of nations; could not, like the preponderance of a continental power, extinguish states, and enslave Europe. The continental nations suffered these evils only in time of war; for, in time of peace, England never has used oppressive measures against the commerce of other countries; and even in time of war, this reproach was most strongly made against her by those who judged of a maritime war solely by the rules established by the laws of nations to regulate wars on shore. But the rules adapted to the one cannot properly be extended to the other. Thus it is a general rule, acknowledged, at least, if not always acted upon, that the private property of the enemy shall be spared. If these rules were extended to maritime war, as France maintained they should be, the war would, in most instances, be entirely illusory. How, for example, could England, in a maritime war against France, after having taken her few colonies, and destroyed her fleets, do her any further injury, if private property were, in all instances, to be respected? If, in such a case, the seizure of private, as well as national property, be not permitted, the war would be at an end. For the same reasons, the neutral flag, during a maritime war, cannot be unconditionally respected, as in time of peace. Were this the case, the flag of the weaker belligerent power would disappear from the seas, whilst neutrals would carry on its trade undisturbedly, un er their flags; and how could deceptions ever be detected? The neutrals, themselves, allow that they have no right to render either belligerent direct assistance in the war; and yet, if their flag were to protect all property, it would be impossible to prevent neutrals from rendering such assistance, and, in fact, taking a disguised part in the war. The history of the continental system begins with the famous decree of Berlin of Nov. 21, 1806, by which the British islands were declared to be in a state of blockade; all commerce, intercourse and correspondence were prohibited; every Englishman found in France, or a country occupied by French troops, was declared a prisoner of war; all property belonging to Englishmen, fair prize, and all trade in English goods entirely prohibited. No vessel coming directly from England or English colonies, or which had been there since the publication of the edict, was to be admitted into any harbor, and all vessels attempting to avoid this edict by false declarations were to be confiscated, with all their goods, as English. The reasons assigned for this decree were, that England did not acknowledge the international law, accepted by civilized nations, but treated every individual belonging to the country of the enemy as if found in arms; made even the crews of merchantmen prisoners of war; extended the right of conquest over merchantmen and private property, and the right of blockade over places and harbors not fortified; over the mouths of rivers; nay, over whole coasts and countries. But many of these measures had always been taken, in maritime wars, even by France herself, as long as she had the means. One great reason for this and all the subsequent decrees of Napoleon was, that he considered England his inveterate enemy, and the enemy of the political doctrines which took their rise from the revolution. He often used to say, "*Je ne fais pas ce que je veux, mais ce que je peux. Ces Anglais me forcent à vivre au jour le jour.*" England immediately directed reprisals against the Berlin decree, first by an order in council of Jan. 7, 1807, by which all neutral vessels were prohibited to sail from one port to another belonging to France, or one of her allies, or to a nation so much under her control that English vessels could not freely have intercourse with it. Every neutral vessel which should violate this order was to be confiscated, with her cargo. A second decree of Nov. 11, 1807, was much more oppressive to commerce. By this, all harbors and places of France and her allies, in Europe and the colonies, as likewise every country with which England was at war, and from which the English flag

was excluded, were subjected to the same restrictions as if they were closely blockaded; all commerce in the manufactures and productions of such countries was prohibited, and vessels engaged in such commerce were to be confiscated, as also all those vessels whose certificates showed that they were built in the enemy's country. Another order in council declared the sale of vessels, by the enemy, to neutrals, unlawful, and the intended transfer of property void. Hardly were these orders promulgated, when France made counter reprisals. By a decree of Milan of Dec. 17, 1807, aggravated by a decree of the Tuileries, Jan. 11, 1808, every vessel, of whatsoever flag, which had been searched by an English vessel, and consented to be sent to England, or had paid any duty whatever to England, was to be declared *denationalized*, and to have become British property; and in every case, such denationalized vessel, as also those which had broken the blockade declared against the Ionian islands, or had sailed from an English harbor or English colony, or those of a country occupied by the English, or which were destined to any such ports, were declared good prize. In order the more effectually to annihilate the English commerce, the tariff of Trianon, respecting colonial goods, was proclaimed Aug. 3, 1810. This was extended by another decree of Sept. 12 of the same year, and both were followed by the decree of Fontainebleau, Oct. 18 of the same year, directing the burning of all English goods. These decrees were to be executed, with more or fewer modifications, in all countries connected with France. The consequence was, that the price of colonial goods rose enormously; a regular smuggling trade was carried on at different points; for instance, at Heligoland, which was sometimes so crowded with persons concerned in this business, that a ducat was paid for a barrel to sleep in; thousands of substitutes for colonial goods, particularly for coffee and sugar, were invented (which presented the remarkable *psychological* fact, that people would drink the decoction of any stuff, which resembled coffee in color, if it had not the slightest resemblance in taste; so powerful is imagination), and a variety of manufactures grew up on the continent, which were the germs of very extensive and flourishing branches of industry.—As the holy alliance (a league as obnoxious as its name is arrogant) is composed of European continental powers, and as a chief object of this coalition is the destruction of liberal institutions by the exercise of the *droit d'intervention armée* (see *Congress*, towards the end), a policy very different from that of the English, when Canning was at the head of foreign affairs, this continental policy has sometimes been called the *continental system*.

CONTINGENT; the name often given to the quota of troops which is to be furnished by each member of a number of states composing a confederation. By the terms of the confederation of the Rhine, each of the states of which it consisted was to furnish 1 man for every 150 inhabitants. The proportion has been increased in the German confederation, and amounts, at the lowest rate (the *simplum*), to 1 man for every 100 souls. The whole confederation amounting to 30,095,054, the army of the confederates, at the lowest ratio, called *simplum*, contains over 300,000 troops, divided into 10 *corps d'armée*, of which Prussia and Austria furnish each 3, Bavaria 1, and the remaining states 3. The quotas of men and money were assigned for a term of 5 years, according to the population of the different states at the time when the union was formed, and remain unaltered to the present time. Such an army has never yet been called together, and, should it ever be, the German confederation, in this case, would show how impotent and fragile is its whole constitution.

CONTORNIATI; ancient medals which have occupied the attention of antiquarians for a long time, and, on account of their rarity, are highly esteemed in cabinets. They are formed of a thin plate of metal (not of two different sorts, as is often supposed), with a flat impression. They differ from other ancient coins, by having a furrow upon both their sides, where the others have a wreath of pearls. These hollowed lines (in Italian, *contorno*) may have occasioned their name. Another characteristic of genuine *contorniati* is a cipher composed of the letters EP or PE, of which no satisfactory explanation has, as yet, been discovered, together with numerous impressed characters, and a great number of palm branches, the cavities of which are often filled with silver. They are also added by a second hand, and thereby are essentially distinguished from the *monograms*, so called in the language of the mint. They resemble the *signa incusa* (*contremarques*) on the Roman medals. All the *contorniati* are of bronze, and equal in size to the large bronze coins called *medaglioncini* by the Italian collectors. Their form is various, their work-

manship rude, and their inscriptions are frequently different from the usual curial style upon the ancient coins. From these circumstances, we may conclude that they did not belong to the age of the Roman emperors whose images they bear, but to a later one. Eckel, in his masterly treatise on the *contorniati*, follows the opinion of Morelli and Mahudel, who consider them to have been made from the reign of Constantine the Great to that of Valentinian. It has been ascertained that they were not struck by public authority; and the ancients have transmitted no account of their destination, which must, therefore, be left to conjecture. The frequent representations of race-grounds, palms, men shouting to the charioteers, and even the images of the emperors Nero and Trajan, &c., upon them, make it probable that they were intended for the frequenters of the games at the circus in Rome and Constantinople, for whose amusement both these emperors provided so abundantly. They were, probably, distributed as tickets of admission for the spectators, by the directors of the bands. The images of celebrated men, which are found upon them, are of little value as portraits, because they do not appear to have been executed with care.

CONTOUR. (See *Outline*.)

CONTRABAND, in commerce; all goods and wares exported from or imported into any country, against the laws of said country. There are, also, a number of articles termed *contraband of war*, which neutrals may be prevented, by one belligerent, from carrying to another. What is to be considered contraband of war depends upon existing treaties. These, however, have not settled, with much precision, the articles embraced under this term. Indeed, before the *Consolato del Mare* of the Italian mercantile states, the subjects of many powers were forbidden to furnish their enemies with arms. The rule was afterwards established, that a belligerent power might prevent neutrals from supplying its enemy with munitions of war; hence the name *contraband* (*contra bannum*) was introduced. Subsequently, the term *contraband* was extended so as to embrace articles out of which munitions of war were made. All other articles, however, even such as might be useful to the enemy, such as grain, wine, provisions, money, &c., were allowed to pass free, a few only being excepted, by particular treaties (as, for instance, in the compact between France and Spain, in 1604, in the treaty between England and Holland, in 1654, &c.), until very lately, when the number of articles styled *contraband of war* has been prodigiously increased. Many belligerent powers, in the war which broke out near the end of the last century, gave a partial and arbitrary construction to the term; for instance, England and Russia, in 1794, who wished to prevent neutral powers from supplying France with corn; and the might of England enabled her to enforce her own construction, which made such articles, for example, as salted meat contraband, under the pretext that it could only be intended for the garrisons and ships' crews. "The catalogue of contrabands," says sir William Scott (now lord Stowell), "has varied very much; sometimes in such a manner as to make it difficult to assign the reason of the variations, owing to particular circumstances, the history of which has not accompanied the history of the decisions. The king is bound to watch over the safety of the state; he may, therefore, make new declarations of contraband, when articles come into use, as implements of war, which were before innocent. This is not the exercise of discretion over contraband. The law of nations prohibits contraband, and it is the *usus bellici*, which, shifting from time to time, make the law shift with them. The greatest difficulty seems to have occurred in the instance of provisions, which have not been held, universally, contraband, though Vattel admits that they become so on certain occasions, when there is an expectation of reducing the enemy by famine. In modern times, one of the principal criteria, adopted by the courts, for the decision of the question, whether any particular cargo of provisions be confiscable as contraband, is, to examine whether those provisions be in a rude or a manufactured state. Articles are treated with greater indulgence in their native condition than when they are wrought up for the convenience of the enemy's immediate consumption." Of late, the practice of treating provisions as contraband of war, when asserted at all, has been, undoubtedly, less strict; a proof that the belligerent was not entirely confident of his right to confiscate. The belligerent has exercised the right of preëmption only —a right of purchase with a reasonable compensation to the individual whose property has been diverted, by the act of the belligerent, from its original destination. Every state determines for itself what articles shall be deemed contraband in the way of trade; for the most part, on the principle that nothing shall be im-

ported which the country itself produces in abundance, and nothing exported but that which exceeds its own consumption. (See *Smuggling*.)

CONTRACT; an agreement or covenant between two or more persons, in which each party binds himself to do or forbear some act, and each acquires a right to what the other promises. Natural law requires that if one person accepts from another a service, he should render to him something in return, whether this be expressly agreed upon, or only implied from the nature of the undertaking. Mutual promises of future good offices also are binding, at least by the natural law, if one of the contracting parties has thereby been induced to act; for, if he does not receive the thing stipulated for, he suffers wrong. We may go further, and say, that confidence in promises is so essential to the existence of social intercourse among men, that even the bare promise of one of the parties, when given and received in earnest, that is, with the idea of its being binding, is not entirely destitute of the force of obligation. In every state, it will be necessary to retain these principles, since the idea of justice implanted in the human mind should not be violated. It is the part of legislation to provide for special cases, to establish certain forms, and to fix, according to rules founded upon experience, the effects of each promise; also to withdraw from certain contracts their natural obligation, or to determine this in others, in which it is uncertain according to natural law. Such has been the course of the Roman law, which, by its consistency and justice in regard to contracts, has obtained, on the continent of Europe, almost universal authority. In that law, at an early period, a contract (*contractus*), in the proper sense of the word, was an agreement binding on both parties. It was required to be in a determinate form; and there was an equally determinate mode of impeaching it. A contract was distinguished from a simple pact or promise (*pactum*); and it was a fundamental doctrine, that a simple pact (*pactum*) would not entitle one to maintain a legal action, but merely to raise an objection in defence. The essential character of contracts in the stricter sense, is founded on the circumstance that such a legal relation is necessary for the most simple social intercourse, and imposes, according to its nature, certain duties. The most simple of these relations arise from a positive act, as the transfer of a thing to be returned (*contractus realis*), in which the object and extent of the obligation are determined by the real benefit conferred. Such a contract arises from delivering a thing, with or without pay; as, for instance, a deposit, a *mutuum*, or a pawn. A determinate form of agreement, however, is not always necessary. Civil intercourse allows another kind of contracts, in which the simple consent of the parties gives obligation to agreements, so that they may constitute the ground of an action (*contractus consensuales*). Such, according to the Roman law, is sale, hire (as well the lending of a thing as services done for money), partnership, an accepted commission, and the contract for a fee farm rent (*emphyteusis*). But the same obligatory power, and this in the strictest sense, was allowed, also, to a verbal promise given in a certain solemn form, called a *stipulation* (*contractus verbalis*), as well as to a written obligation (*contractus literalis, chirographarius*). The form of a stipulation became continually more lax, approaching nearer to a simple promise, and, at last, amounted to nothing more than this, that he who wanted to bind another (*stipulator*) asked him, in a form of his own choosing, "Do you promise to give me such a thing?" and the other, who was to be bound, answered, "I promise it." It is obvious that, in this way, every simple promise (*pactum*) could be made actionable, and that the alteration, in modern times, in the law of some parts of Europe, which admits of an action upon every compact, amounts, in fact, only to this, that the form of a stipulation has become even more lax, so that there is no longer any necessity for the claimant (*promissarius*) to commence with his question, but the compact can as well begin with the declaration of the party under obligation (*promissor*). These forms of contracts are, in their essential parts, settled; and the legal relation, together with the action arising from it, has a fixed name (*contractus nominati*). But other relations, also, as exchanges of things and services, service for service, gift for gift, gift for service, service for gift (*do ut des, facio ut facias, do ut facias, facio ut des*), gave rise to rights and obligations, but in such diversified ways, that an appropriate form of action could be framed only from the statement of each particular case (*actio in factum præscriptis verbis*); and there were, accordingly, no technical terms adapted to such variously combined relations. Hence arose the *contractus innominati*, which were considered as real contracts

so far only that the actual performance of one party entitled him to an action; and, even in this case, there was not an absolute obligation on the other party to the performance of his part of the contract; but, in most cases, simply the duty of restoring what had been received. But the modern law creates here (though not without dispute) a perfect duty to perform the very thing promised. Finally, the Roman law attributed the effect of actionable obligations even to some partial promises and agreements (*pacta*); not only to those which were added as appendices to other real contracts (*pacta adjecta*), but also to some of a different kind. These were either declared obligatory by a formal law, or were admitted as grounds of action by the pretor (*pacta legitima* and *prætoria*). Most of the technical designations of these are indeed new, yet the ancients had several, as, for instance, *re, consensu, verbis, literis, contrahitur obligatio*, &c. In this way donations, promises of dowry, promises of interest, acknowledgments of debt, &c., were made actionable. It is always implied in the idea of a contract, that the real cause of its obligation is founded on some particular rational object of the party who promises (*causa civilis*), and that mere promises and agreements are not binding. Even stipulations, which have no ground, or an unlawful one (*nullam aut injustam causam*), are valid, indeed, with regard to their form, but are open to the objection of intrinsic groundlessness, except when they are donations. With these views were also connected certain divisions of these legal relations, and of the actions arising from them, according to which, in some cases, the object of the obligation was strictly enforced (*actiones stricti juris*); but, in others, the liability could be settled only by the decree depending upon all the circumstances of the special action before the court (*actiones bonæ fidei*). Other divisions refer to the relation of the parties, as, in some of them, the obligation is only on one side, as to return the thing received in lending (*contractus unilaterales*); and, in others, there are reciprocal obligations, as in a sale, a partnership (*contractus bilaterales*); or they concern the subject of the contracts, whether relating to property or to some other object. To the conditions necessary for the formation of a contract belongs the consent of the contracting parties. Accordingly, when this is wanting, either because the parties were not capable of taking upon themselves the obligation (as minors, madmen, prodigals), or because the contract was founded on an error (an innocent error on the side of the party making the mistake, or one occasioned by the deceit of the other party), or when the engagement was extorted by force and fear, there can be no valid contract. To contracts may also be added conditions, which either delay or dissolve them, and also precise determinations of time, place and object (*modus*), which coincide, at times, with the condition. A contract must be possible and legal, else it is without force. No one can be obliged to undertake what is impossible, or decidedly immoral (*causa turpis*). According to the Roman law, it is a matter of dispute, whether an obligation to do something or to leave something undone gives a right to compel a specific performance, or whether it gives merely a claim to indemnification. The English and French laws have adopted the latter doctrine (*toute obligation de faire ou de ne pas faire se résoud en dommages et intérêts*). Obligations resembling express contracts arise if one person does something for another, without the knowledge and desire of the latter; so that the latter is bound to give a recompense for what has been thus beneficially done for him (*obligatio quasi ex contractu*). In this case, there is no consent existing, neither is it supposed, but the consent could not have been refused, or it was not necessary. Such relations, resembling express contracts, arise in cases of guardianship, between guardian and ward, by the receipt of money for a non-existing debt by mistake, the amount of which ought to be restored; so by a beneficial performance of some business for another, without any actual commission from him, where the circumstances raise a presumption of obligation.—Thus far the present article refers to the general theory of contracts, founded either upon natural justice or the principles of the civil and Roman law. A short account will now be added of the nature and obligation of contracts by the common law; that is, by the law which regulates this subject in the jurisprudence of England and America. The original basis of the common law, as to contracts, was, without doubt, the civil or Roman law; but it has undergone some modifications in its incorporation into our jurisprudence. A contract may be defined, in the common law, to be an agreement made in one form, between parties capable of contracting, for a legal object or purpose, and upon a sufficient consideration. It must be an agreement or mutual bargain, vol-

untary, and without force or fraud; and therefore it includes an assent given *bona fide*. The notion of an assent includes a physical and moral power of assenting, and the deliberate and free use of this power. And this leads us to the consideration of the next point, which is, that it must be between parties capable of contracting. Upon principles of universal law, an infant, having no discretion or moral power of perception, cannot make a contract; nor can a person who is insane or mad; nor an idiot, or person laboring under such mental debility or such natural defects as prevent a just exercise of reason. The common law recognises these principles, and therefore it treats as nullities all contracts entered into by such persons; it treats in like manner contracts made by aged and imbecile men, whose understanding has become so weak and inefficient that they are liable to imposition, and cannot act with a reasonable discretion. In respect to persons who enter into contracts in a state of intoxication, the old law, with a view to deter men from such practices, did not hold the contracts void, so that the party might set them aside at his own suit, upon the ground that no man should be allowed to stultify himself, or allege his own vice to excuse his non-performance of a contract. But this principle, if it is now acted upon at all, is received with great modifications; and, if there be any undue advantage taken of the party's situation, he will be relieved. The common law, indeed, seems originally to have disabled a party who was insane from avoiding, after the recovery of his reason, any contract made during his insanity; partly upon the maxim that no man should be permitted to stultify himself, and partly upon the supposed danger, in admitting such defences, of overturning deliberate and solemn contracts. But his legal representatives, after his death, were always allowed to avoid them; and when he has a guardian appointed, the guardian may avoid his contracts in a proper suit; so that the doctrine, if it now exists (and it has been much questioned), is more a matter of form than of substance. The general inclination, in American courts, has been to allow the party himself to show that the contract was void by reason of insanity, &c. In respect to who shall be deemed infants or minors, the laws of every civilized country have provided a certain age, at which persons shall be deemed capable of all sorts of contracts, and for all purposes *sui juris*. The time differs in different countries, and different times are assigned for different acts. By the common law, all persons are infants until *twenty-one* years of age, and then are considered as of full age for all purposes whatsoever. By the same law, the ages of males and females are different for different purposes. A male at *fourteen* is at years of discretion, and may consent or disagree to marriage, may choose his guardian, and, if his discretion is actually proved, he may make a testament of his personal estate, though not of his lands; at *seventeen*, he may be an executor. A female may, at *seven* years, be betrothed in marriage; at *nine*, is entitled to dower; at *twelve*, may consent or agree to marriage; at *fourteen*, may choose a guardian; at *seventeen*, may be an executrix; and at *twenty-one*, is of full age for all purposes. Both males and females are capable of making contracts for necessaries during their minority; but, in general, other contracts do not bind them, unless manifestly for their benefit; and, though contracts made with them cannot be avoided by the other side, the infants themselves, when they arrive at age, may ratify them; for, as to them, they are generally voidable, and not void. A contract, too, must be for some legal object or purpose; that is, for something which the law allows to be done or omitted; for it is a general principle, that all contracts which are prohibited by law, whether they involve moral turpitude, or are merely prohibited by positive law, are void and incapable of binding the parties. A contract, too, must have a sufficient consideration to support it. Considerations are either *valuable* in themselves, or *good*. A *good* consideration is such as flows from blood or natural affection between near relations, such as parent and child. In respect to such considerations, it may be said, that they are, as between the parties, generally sufficient to support an executed contract; that is, a contract which has completed its operation by a transfer of the thing, such as a gift or grant, or assignment and delivery of a thing. But where the rights of third persons, such as creditors, intervene, such gifts, or grants, or assignments, are not always valid, as against them. For a man must be just before he is generous. But in respect to good considerations, if the contract is not executed, but is a mere *chose in action*, such as a promise to pay money, or to deliver goods, or to give a thing, such a contract has no legal obligation, and cannot be enforced in a suit, in a court of law. It is generally deemed a voluntary promise or

naked pact. A *valuable* consideration is one arising from, or on account of, money or goods received, or services done, or other contracts of reciprocal benefit, or marriage, or a loss or injury, or forbearance of right. In all such cases, if a promise is made on any of these or the like accounts, it is binding in law. If A promises to pay ten dollars to B for goods sold to A, or money borrowed, &c., it is a binding contract. So if A promises to pay B a debt due from C, if B will forbear, for a certain time, to sue C, it is a binding contract. So, if A has done an injury to B's lands or goods, and promises to indemnify him, it is a good contract. In all these cases, there is a mutuality of interest or consideration—a *quid pro quo*. But a mere moral obligation creates no contract; as if A promises to give a pauper his clothes, or to supply him with necessaries. But though, in general, a contract is not binding, unless made upon a valuable consideration, there are certain forms in the common law, as there are in the civil law, by which a party may bind himself without such consideration. If, therefore, A enter into a written contract, under his seal, with B, to pay him a sum of money, or do any other act, there the common law considers the deed of such high solemnity, that it will hold it binding. It deems it as importing a valuable consideration, or rather will not suffer the contrary to be proved, and acts upon the solemnity of the instrument as, of itself, of paramount obligation. There are certain contracts which the common law requires to be done in a particular mode to give them validity, and therefore another requisite is, that the contract must be in due form. There are certain things, which can be conveyed or transferred only by some written instrument or deed, such as incorporeal hereditaments, as rights of ways, easements, &c.; and, generally speaking, lands can now be granted only by deed. There are, also, many cases specially provided for by statutes, in which contracts are not binding, unless reduced to writing, and signed by the party or his agent. Among these are contracts for the debts of another, contracts respecting lands, and contracts respecting goods beyond a certain value. Indeed, many of the regulations, here referred to as part of the common law, are, in the different states of the American union, variously modified by the local jurisprudence, and, principally, by statutes.

Contravallation; a line formed in the same manner as the line of circumvallation, to defend the besiegers against the enterprises of the garrison, so that the troops carrying on the siege lie between the lines of circumvallation and contravallation. As the line of circumvallation must be out of the reach of cannon-shot from the place besieged, its circumference is necessarily so great as to render both its erection and its defence difficult. It is, therefore, seldom resorted to, and a corps of observation is generally preferred.

Contumacy. (See *Contempt*.) The Latin term *contumacia* is used, on the continent of Europe, to express the offence of non-appearance in court of a person summoned judicially. In civil causes, a person, in such case, may be properly made liable to a decision against him, for his neglect in not appearing to defend his rights; but, by an extension of the principle to criminal cases, persons are often sentenced, in their absence, to punishment *in contumaciam*, as it is called, particularly those who are charged with political offences, who can expect little justice under despotic governments. Such sentences are manifestly unjust, since an innocent person ought not to suffer punishment, even if he courts it, and neglects the means of defence. Sentences *in contumaciam*, in criminal offences, therefore, are generally set aside, if the accused person appears and submits to trial. During the late political persecutions in Prussia, Austria, Italy, Spain and France, a great number of sentences *in contumaciam* have taken place, and even sentences of death have been passed in this way.

Conty, or Conti. (See *Bourbon*.)

Conventicle; a private assembly, or meeting, for the exercise of religion. The name was at first given as an appellation of reproach, to the religious assemblies of Wickliffe, in the reigns of Edward III and Richard II, and is now applied to illegal meetings of nonconformists. There were several statutes made, in former reigns, for the suppression of conventicles; but, by 1 William and Mary, it is ordered that dissenters may assemble for the performance of religious worship, provided their doors be not locked, barred or bolted. *Conventicle*, in strict propriety, denotes an unlawful assembly, and cannot, therefore, be justly applied to the legal assembling of persons in places of worship, certified or licensed according to the requisitions of law. In the U. States, the word has no application, and is little used.

Convention (from the Latin); a meeting. The word, in a political sense, is generally used for a meeting of delegates convened for a special purpose. Thus it

was a convention which deposed James II. *National convention* was the name of the assembly of the delegates of the French nation; so, in the U. States, there have been, of late years, various conventions to amend the constitutions of the several states respectively, as the *Virginia convention*, &c.

CONVENTION MONEY (in German, *Conventionsgeld*); money coined according to the 20 guilder standard of 1753. The courts of Vienna and Munich made a convention, in that year, to coin 283 guilders 5 kreuzers and $3\frac{44}{77}$ pence (*Pfennige*) of one fine mark of gold; and 20 guilders, or $13\frac{1}{3}$ convention dollars, or *Species-Thaler*, of one fine mark of silver. This standard was afterwards adopted by all the states of Germany excepting Holstein, Lübeck, Hamburg, Mecklenburg, Bremen, Oldenburg and Prussia. The 24 *guilder standard*, so called, is not another actual standard, but only a nominal division of the coins coined according to the above standard. 20 kreuzers of convention money, according to this, are counted as 24, &c.

CONVERSATION. With all civilized nations, agreeable conversation has been considered as one of the most important productions and promoters of social intercourse. The standard of good conversation must be different in different ages, countries, individuals, and even sects. A sober Quaker's idea of good conversation is probably very unlike what a gay man of the world would term such. The monotonous life which is led in Asia indisposes the natives to the quick interchange of thought, and makes them patient listeners to long narrations, or the endless creations of a fertile imagination; while the diversities and rapid changes of life in Paris afford a vast stock of subjects, so that a ready converser may touch on twenty different topics in the course of five minutes. When Leibnitz returned from a learned dinner, and said he had been entertained with fine conversation, he meant something very different from what an officer in the London horse-guards would designate by this phrase. In the same way, the conversation must always bear the impress of the age. A conversation at the frivolous courts of Louis XIV and XV, or in the dissolute circle of Charles II, must have had a different character from that which prevails at present in the courts of Versailles and St. James. Notwithstanding the numerous varieties of character which conversation assumes under different circumstances, there are certain general rules, which ought to be followed, wherever it takes place, according to the meaning given to it among the civilized nations of the West. Our rules would not, indeed, be applicable to some nations; e. g., the Chinese, among whom the better classes are said to converse often by alternate improvisation. Conversation is an art which must be learned like every other; and, as is the case in other arts, there are individuals and whole nations who have peculiar talents for it. Yet, as it is practised by every accomplished man, it is the duty of every such man to perfect himself in it as much as possible. It is, however, as in the case of every art, much easier to say what should be avoided, than what is to be done. A friend of ours, whose servants were Methodists, gave them leave to invite a party of their friends, which they did. Males and females of their sect came, but seated themselves apart from each other. Not a word was spoken. At last, recourse was had to the Bible. Who of us has not witnessed the reverse of this?—some noisy company, where every one spoke, and no one could distinguish even his own voice. These are the two extremes of unskilfulness in conversation. The intermediate shades we need not describe. The object of conversation is to afford entertainment or agreeable information; and one of its first rules is to allow every body to contribute his share; at the same time, we should not be entertained passively, but exert ourselves for the gratification of the company. Egotism is the very bane of conversation, the purpose of which is not to please ourselves, nor to obtain admiration, but to please others. We must carefully avoid tediousness in narration, and any display of self-conceit. We cannot, however, assent to the rule of the venerable Franklin, never to contradict in company, nor even correct facts, if wrongly stated, because difference of opinion is the soul of conversation. To adapt yourself to the company, and your conversation to your talents and information, is another rule; as, also, to keep the conversation flowing; to seize upon points which can turn it into new channels; and, above all, not to talk about the weather. The English and Americans talk more on this subject than any other nation. Perhaps this may be partly owing to their variable climate. If you see that your hearers understand already all you are going to say, proceed to something else. If you relate an anecdote, be quick: avoid episodes, and oblige others to support you: don't laugh at your own wit—it takes away all the point.

Nothing is more disagreeable than a speaker's laugh outlasting his joke. Good sense and good feeling should guide in the selection of topics for conversation, and prevent you from touching subjects unpleasant to your companions. Conversation, moreover, is not a parliamentary debate; and, if the demonstration of what you have said becomes tedious, let it go. When you are inclined to complain of a dull conversation, remember that two are necessary for a lively exchange of ideas, and consider whether you were not the party in fault. This complaint of tediousness is too often made by ladies, who forget that it is their duty to contribute to the conversation. The natural tact and politeness of the French, founded on a humane feeling, have made them distinguished above all other nations for sparkling, fluent, animated and delightful conversation. The *Encyclopédie Moderne* gives the following definition of its character:—*La conversation n'est point une course vers un but, une attaque régulière sur un point, c'est une promenade au hasard dans un champ spacieux, où l'on s'approche, on s'évite, on se froisse quelquefois sans se heurter jamais.* Rousseau justly remarks, that "the tone of good conversation is neither dull nor frivolous. It is fluent and natural; sensible, without being pedantic; cheerful, without being boisterous; elegant, without being affected; polite, without being insipid, and jocose, without being equivocal. It deals not in dissertations nor epigrams; conforms to the demands of good taste, without being bound by rule; unites wit and reason, satire and compliment, without departing from the rules of a pure morality, and allows all to speak on subjects which they understand. Each one expresses his opinion, and supports it in as few words as possible; and no one attacks that of another with warmth, or upholds his own with obstinacy. All impart information, and all are entertained." The middle of the last century, when the most polite and refined circles collected around ladies of polished minds and graceful manners, such as L'Espinasse, Du Deffand and Geoffrin (q. v.), (to the last of whom we are indebted for an excellent treatise on conversation), may be justly regarded as the flourishing period of refined society in France. Though the art of conversation can be learned very imperfectly from books, yet these sources of information are not to be despised. We would, therefore, refer our readers to Delille's poem entitled *La Conversation;* madame Vannoz's *Conseils à une Femme, sur les Moyens de plaire dans la Conversation;* and Chazet's *L'Art de causer.* Diderot and madame de Staël have given us at once rules and examples for delightful conversation. We will, therefore, willingly take the French as our masters in this art, believing in the old maxim—*que les Français seulement savent converser et que les autres nations ne savent que disserter et discuter.* The *Encyclopédie Moderne* contains the following passage, which we insert as containing some truth in the midst of its extravagance:—*Les Allemands ne causent pas, ils argumentent: la conversation des Italiens est une pantomime mêlée d'exclamations. Chez les Anglais, ce qu'on nomme conversation est un silence syncopé par des monosyllabes et interrompu de quart d'heure en quart d'heure par le bruit de l'eau qui s'échappe de l'urne à thé.* We must observe, that the English have no word precisely corresponding to *causer.* It might be as difficult to find a word in any other language corresponding to *prosing.* Goldoni, in his comedy called the *Coffee-House,* has characterized the different nations of Europe by the nature of their conversations. It is surprising that the Western nations have never been sensible how important it is to instruct children in the art of agreeable narration. A large part of their time in schools is spent in acquiring facility in written composition; and yet, have we not occasion to relate a hundred times where we have occasion to write once? If we look around us, how few persons do we see who know how to relate, properly, any thing of length! Among the Asiatics, the art of relating is in high estimation, and properly taught. We ought to imitate them in this respect.

Convex (from the Latin *convexus,* vaulted, arched); rising in a circular form; the contrary to *concave.* Thus the inside of a watch-glass is concave, the outer surface convex. The mathematician defines a curved line convex on the side on which the point of intersection of two tangents falls, and concave on the opposite side.—Convexity and concavity are of particular importance in catoptrics and dioptrics, as applied to mirrors and lenses.

Conveyance, in law, is the transfer of the title to lands or hereditaments. There are different kinds of conveyance at common law; as by feoffment and livery (making a deed of the land in fee, and putting the grantee into possession); by lease and release (granting a term of years, or other limited right of possession of the land, and then relinquishing the remainder to the lessee, after he has taken posses-

sion); by grant, which was first used in regard to incorporeal hereditaments (such as the right of receiving a certain perpetual rent, or appointing a clergyman to a particular church), where no livery of seizin and actual possession could be given, but was subsequently applied to corporeal hereditaments; or, finally, by bargain and sale, which is, in fact, a species of grant. (See *Bargain and Sale.*) Such were the modes of conveyance by the common law; but the introduction of uses and trusts made a great revolution in the modes of conveyance in England. The feoffment to uses was first introduced, whereby the fee of the land was granted to one person, for the use or benefit of another. The statute of 27 Henry VIII was passed to prevent this species of conveyance, by enacting, that, where it was made, the fee should pass to the person for whose benefit the grant was made, so that the effect should be the same as if the conveyance had been made to him directly. To evade this statute, trusts were invented, whereby the land was conveyed to one, for the use of another, in trust for a third; and the courts, favoring this evasion of the statute, held that, in such case, the fee would pass to the second, to be held for the use and benefit of the third; thus effecting, by the intervention of another party to the conveyance, what the statute was intended to prevent. This contrivance has rendered the system of conveyancing very intricate and complicated in England. It is more simple and direct in the U. States, following, substantially, the transfer by bargain and sale, as has been already remarked under that head.

Convocation; an assembly of the clergy of England, by their representatives, to consult on ecclesiastical matters. It is held during the session of parliament, and consists of an upper and a lower house. In the upper sit the bishops, and in the lower the inferior clergy, who are represented by their proctors, consisting of all the deans and archdeacons, of one proctor for every chapter, and two for the clergy of every diocese; in all, 143 divines. The convocation is summoned by the king's writ, directed to the archbishop of each province, requiring him to summon all bishops, deans, archdeacons, &c. The power of the convocation is limited by a statute of Henry VIII. They are not to make any canons or ecclesiastical laws without the king's license; nor, when permitted to make any, can they put them in execution but under several restrictions. They have the examining and censuring all heretical and schismatical books and persons, &c.; but there lies an appeal to the king in chancery, or to his delegates. The clergy in convocation, and their servants, have the same privileges as members of parliament. In 1665, the convocation gave up the privilege of taxing themselves to the house of commons, in consideration of being allowed to vote at the elections of members for that house.

Convoy (from the French *convoyer*, to accompany), in naval language, signifies a fleet of merchantmen, bound on a voyage to some particular port or general rendezvous, under the protection of a ship or ships of war. It also means the ship or ships appointed to conduct and defend them on their passage thither. In military language, it is used for *escort.* (q. v.)—*Convoy*, or *brake*, is a crooked lever, applied to the surface of the wheels of carriages, so as to retard their motion by its friction.

Convulsion (Latin, *convulsio;* from *convello*, to pull together); a diseased action of muscular fibres, known by violent and involuntary contractions of the muscular parts, with alternate relaxations. Convulsions are universal or partial, and have obtained different names, according to the parts affected, or the symptoms; as the *risus sardonicus*, when the muscles of the face are affected; *St. Vitus's dance*, when the muscles of the arm are thrown into involuntary motions, with lameness and rotations. The hysterical epilepsy, or other epilepsies, arising from different causes, are convulsive diseases of the universal kind. The muscles of the globe of the eye, throwing the eye into involuntary distortions, in defiance of the direction of the will, are instances of partial convulsion. The muscles principally affected, in all species of convulsions, are those immediately under the direction of the will; as those of the eyelids, eye, face, jaws, neck, superior and inferior extremities. The muscles of respiration, acting both voluntarily and involuntarily, are not unfrequently convulsed; as the diaphragm, intercostals, &c. The more immediate causes of convulsions are mental affection, or any irritating cause exciting a great action in the arterial system of the brain and nerves. After muscles have been once accustomed to act involuntarily, and with increased action, the same causes can readily produce the same effects on those organs. All parts that have muscular fibres may be convulsed. The sensations in the mind most capable of pro-

ducing convulsions, are timidity, horror, anger, great sensibility of the soul, &c.

CONVULSIONISTS. (See *Jansenists.*)

CONWAY, Thomas, major-general in the army of the U. States, and knight of the order of St. Louis, was born in Ireland. At the age of six years, he went with his parents to France, where he was educated to the profession of arms, and acquired considerable reputation as an officer and a man of sound judgment. Having come to America with strong recommendations, he was appointed by congress a brigadier-general in May, 1777, and soon rendered himself conspicuous for his hostility to general Washington, and used every endeavor to substitute general Gates in the station of commander-in-chief. In this he was supported by some members of congress. He was appointed by that body inspector-general of the army, with the rank of major-general, but was soon obliged to resign his commission, in consequence of his unpopularity with the officers. The brigadiers, in particular, had taken great umbrage at his promotion over them, and remonstrated to congress against the proceeding, as implicating their honor and character. His calumnies against Washington at length became so atrocious, that general Cadwallader challenged him to answer for them in a duel. The parties met, and Conway received a ball through the lower part of his head, but the wound was not mortal. Conceiving, however, that it was, he wrote a satisfactory letter of apology to Washington, for the injury he had endeavored to inflict upon his character.

COOK, James; an English seaman, highly celebrated for his maritime discoveries. He was born at Marton, a village in the north riding of Yorkshire, in 1728, of sober and industrious parents, not above the rank of peasantry. After having learned reading, writing and a little arithmetic, at a country school, he was put apprentice to a shopkeeper at Snaith, a small town on the sea-coast. Here he acquired such a taste for the occupation of a sailor, and so much consequent dislike of his business, that his master gave up his indentures, and he soon after bound himself to two brothers, ship-owners of Whitby, for three years, and continued in their employ for some time after. At the commencement of the French war in 1755, he entered the royal navy. In 1759, he was made master of the Mercury, which belonged to the squadron sent against Quebec, and performed the hazardous service of taking soundings in the river St. Lawrence, opposite the French encampment. He also made a chart of the river St. Lawrence below Quebec, in a very satisfactory manner. After the capture of Quebec, he assisted at the taking of Newfoundland, and afterwards made a survey of the harbor of Placentia. At the end of 1762, he returned to England; but, the next year, he went again to Newfoundland as marine surveyor. After again visiting England, he went out in the same capacity with sir Hugh Palliser, appointed governor of Labrador and Newfoundland. In this situation, he made himself known to the royal society by the communication of an observation on a solar eclipse, in 1766, with the longitude of the place deduced from it. In 1768, he was appointed to the command of the Endeavor, a vessel destined to convey to the Pacific ocean persons employed by government to make observations on the transit of Venus. He sailed from Deptford, June 30, 1768, with the rank of lieutenant in the navy. He was accompanied by Mr. (afterwards sir Joseph) Banks, and the Swedish naturalist doctor Daniel Solander. The transit of Venus, June 3, 1769, was advantageously observed at Otaheite; the neighboring islands were explored, and lieutenant Cook then sailed for New Zealand, where he arrived in October. Six months were employed in examining the shores of the islands; after which he took his departure for New Holland, the eastern coast of which he attentively surveyed. On his return, Cook was raised to the rank of master and commander in the navy. An account of the voyage, drawn up by doctor Hawkesworth, was speedily published, and a second expedition was planned to explore the antarctic regions, for the purpose of ascertaining the existence or non-existence of a circum-polar southern continent. On this occasion, two ships were employed—the Resolution, of which captain Cook had the command, and the Adventure, under captain Furneaux. Doctor John Reinhold Forster and his son went out as naturalists, Mr. Hodges as painter, and Messrs. Wales and Bayley as astronomers. The voyage was commenced in July, 1772; and, after proceeding as far south as the latitude of 71°, where a barrier of ice opposed any further progress, discovering the island of New Georgia, in 54° south latitude, and visiting Otaheite and other places, captain Cook returned to England in 1775. So successful were the means employed by captain Cook for the pre-

vention of disease among his crew, that only one man was lost by sickness during the expedition. The captain having communicated to the royal society a paper describing the regulations and remedies which he had adopted, he was chosen a fellow of that body, and his experiments were rewarded by the Copleian gold medal. Government rewarded him with the rank of post-captain in the navy, and the appointment of captain in Greenwich hospital. The narrative of this voyage was drawn up by captain Cook himself, and merely arranged for the press by doctor Douglas, afterwards bishop of Salisbury. In July, 1776, he sailed on an expedition to ascertain whether any communication existed between the Atlantic and Pacific oceans in the arctic regions. In this voyage, he again commanded the Resolution, which was accompanied by the Discovery, and explored a considerable extent of the western coast of North America. He also discovered the Sandwich islands, and to Owhyhee, one of this group, he returned from his American survey, to pass the winter of 1778. In February, captain Cook sailed for Kamtschatka, but was compelled by an accident to put back to Owhyhee. A boat having been stolen by one of the islanders, the captain went on shore to seize the king of Owhyhee, and keep him as a hostage till the boat was restored. The people, however, were not disposed to submit to this insult: their resistance brought on hostilities, and, in attempting to reach his boat, captain Cook and some of his attendants became victims to the fury of the irritated islanders. The death of this great seaman took place Feb. 14, 1779. A medal in commemoration of him was struck by order of the royal society; his eulogy was pronounced in the Florentine academy, and was made a prize subject by one of the French scientific societies.

Cooke, George Frederic; a theatrical performer of great eminence. He was born in Westminster, April 17, 1756. His father was a subaltern officer in the army, who, dying when young, left his wife in straitened circumstances. The youth evinced an early taste for his future profession; and, being apprenticed to a printer, he neglected the labors of the office, and engaged his companions to assist him in performing plays. His indentures were consequently cancelled, and he was dismissed. He was then tried in the navy; but his inclination for the stage overcame all restraint, and he at length joined an itinerant company of actors. Here he was quite in his element; and, after having acquired a competent acquaintance with stage business, he became the hero of the scene at York, Newcastle, Chester, Manchester, Liverpool, and other places. He acquired so much fame, that, in 1794, he was engaged by the manager of the Dublin theatre; and, after performing that season with great success, he returned to England. In 1797, he went again to Dublin, and continued there three years. At length, he made his appearance at Covent-garden theatre, Oct. 31, 1800, in the character of Richard III. His reputation was, at once, established, as a histrionic performer of the first class; and, after repeating the part of Richard III several times, he acted Iago, Macbeth, Shylock, sir Giles Overreach, sir Pertinax Macsycophant, Kitely, &c., with at least equal applause, if not with equal skill and discrimination. The talents of Cooke were obscured by indulgence in pernicious habits of intemperance, which ultimately destroyed his popularity. Owing to the irregularity of his conduct, Cooke at length became the plague and terror of English managers, few, if any, of whom, probably, regretted his removal to the U. States, where he had formed a theatrical engagement. In America, he displayed the same powerful abilities, and the same vicious weakness, which had distinguished him in his native country. Death, hastened by intemperance, put an end to his career, March 25, 1812.

Cookery. It is not great things, but trifles, which principally make up the sum of human happiness. Who would not think a dull razor, which draws tears from the eyes every morning, or a creaking tavern sign, which disturbs us every night, a much greater evil than the single sharp pang occasioned by the drawing of a tooth? An act, therefore, like eating, which is repeated several times every day by the millions who inhabit the globe, is a subject worthy of serious investigation. The scientific pride, which disdains to dwell on the ordinary affairs of common life, is rapidly vanishing; and, in an age when utility is the great object of the philosopher, cookery may hope to engage a share of his attention. It has been asked, Why does man cook? Why does he, unlike the lower animals, transform the materials, which nature gives him for nourishment, at least with the exception of some savage tribes? Some philosophers have ascribed it to a desire innate in man to make changes in every thing that he meets. But however philosophers may solve this

question, the fact is clear that we cook, and all agree in desiring something palatable on their tables. Mr. Frederic Accum has given us a treatise on *Culinary Chemistry* (London, Ackermann, 1821, 8vo.); but much remains to be done to put cookery on a scientific footing. The maxim, that "people will easily find out what is best for them," is by no means applicable to cookery. Every body who has travelled, and has observed the manner of cooking among different nations, must have seen, that, with the exception of those countries where man lives chiefly upon fruits, or in an almost savage state, people generally spoil what nature affords them as nourishment; and he would be a great benefactor to his nation, who should teach them to adopt a system of cookery which would make their dishes at once palatable and wholesome. How much money would be saved, how many diseases prevented, how much comfort gained, if cookery were placed on a more rational basis, and were accommodated judiciously to the respective products of different countries! Rumford has attained deserved celebrity for his efforts to improve the food of the poor; and he would be no small benefactor of his species, who should be equally successful in improving the diet of the people at large. Most modern books on cookery are devoted to the preparation of refined dishes; and a very unfounded prejudice prevails, as if the culinary art were too trivial a matter to engage a reflecting mind. We are acquainted, however, with one book, the editor of which, a gentleman of literary reputation in Germany, has applied himself to the investigation of the culinary art, with a view of throwing light upon many points in the practice of cookery, which are, in general, but insufficiently understood, and of teaching the preparation of wholesome and palatable dishes, within the reach of the people at large. This excellent work, of which we should be glad to see a translation, is called *Geist der Kochkunst, von König, herausgegeben von C. F. von Rumohr*, Stuttgard, 1822 (The Spirit of Cookery, by König, edited by the Baron von Rumohr). As architecture is divided into two sorts, the useful and the ornamental, so cookery might be divided into the useful and the luxurious; and again, as the *pharmacopœia* of some countries is divided into a general one, and one for the poor, so useful cookery might also be divided into common and pauper cookery. Prizes might be offered for the invention of cheap and wholesome dishes, and more care might be taken to provide good cooks, by setting on foot establishments where particular instruction should be given to girls desirous of becoming cooks. It is a little surprising, that, while so much care is bestowed on the improvement of the fruits of the earth, and the animals used for food, so little attention, comparatively speaking, is given to improving the culinary processes, which render them fit for affording nourishment. In addition to the work of the baron Rumohr, above-mentioned, two of the best books on this subject are the Cook's Oracle and Housekeeper's Manual, by William Kitchener, M. D., adapted to the American Public, by a Medical Gentleman, New York, 1830; and the French Cook, by Louis Eustache Ude, reprinted at Philadelphia, in 1828. The latter work, however, is adapted more particularly for those who say, with Voltaire, *Qu'un cuisinier est un mortel divin!* The history of the art of cooking is well given in the above-mentioned work of the baron von Rumohr. The melody of Homer's verse can hardly reconcile us to the cookery of his countrymen, described in his flowing hexameters. All the beauty of the Ionian dialect cannot give a charm to the process of preparing the pork for the feast of Penelope's suitors. How much the Egyptians, so far advanced in many branches of civilization, had accomplished in the art of cookery, Champollion has not as yet informed us. The early Romans did not disdain to direct their attention, not only to husbandry, but also to cookery. Cato, in his book on agriculture, gives several receipts for dishes of flour and vegetables. The introduction or successful cultivation of important vegetables was frequently the occasion of surnames, in the early times of Rome, as *Lentulus, Fabius, Cicero.* The meals of the Romans consisted generally of three courses: the first contained light food, eggs, oysters, and the like, to excite the appetite; next came the *brunt of war*, as the ancients called it, made up of roast and boiled dishes, of every description; then followed the dessert (*mensæ secundæ*) of fruit and pastry. Luxury in eating increased, when the Romans became acquainted with Asiatic magnificence, to such a degree that laws were required to keep it within bounds. Lucullus carried epicurism to the extreme. He erected several dining halls in his palaces, and gave to each of them the name of some deity, which was a guide to the steward in regulating the etiquette and the expenses of the banquet: a *cœna*,

for example, in the hall of Apollo, commonly cost 50,000 drachms, or 4687 dollars. Under Pompey, M. Aufridius Lurco invented the fattening of peacocks, and, in this way, earned, in a short time, 60,000 sestertia. During this period, an actor had a dish prepared, which cost 1875 dollars. It consisted of singing and talking birds, each of which was valued at 112 dollars. The son of the same actor entertained his friends with pearls, which he dissolved in vinegar. Under Tiberius, there were schools and teachers of cookery in Rome. One of the family of the Apicii invented many new dishes; for example, a salt dish of fishes' livers; also many cooking utensils, and the art of fattening swine on dried figs. Another wrote a book on cookery, and invented the art of keeping oysters fresh. The emperor Vitellius was once entertained by his brother with 2000 choice fishes and 7000 birds. Vitellius himself once had a single dish prepared of the livers, the young, and the brain of many select birds and fishes. Roman cookery was remarkable for the almost universal use of oil or oily substances. In the later ages of Roman greatness, the object of the cook was to please the palate, rather than to provide for the healthful nourishment of the system. In the middle ages, the Italians, who outstripped the rest of the nations of Europe in every branch of civilization, attained, also, much earlier, a degree of accomplishment in the culinary art. They carried it to much perfection as early as in the sixteenth century, and probably earlier, as some passages of their *novelle* lead us to suppose. The artists of that country delighted much in convivial assemblies, and the chief cook of St. Pius V, Bartolommeo Scappi, published, in 1570, an excellent work on the art of cookery (*Opera di Bartol. Scappi, cuoco secreto di Papa Pio V divisa, etc. con il discorso funerale, che fu fatto nelle esequie di Papa Paolo III*, 4to.). The princesses of the house of Medici appear to have transplanted the Italian cookery to France, at least to the French court. The Italian cookery was, however, very similar to that of the ancient Romans, as even the mode of preparing dishes at present prevalent in Italy has still retained much of the ancient character. We refer particularly to the abundant use of oil. In fact, this character prevails more or less in the cookery of all nations of Latin descent. However great the influence may have been which Italian cookery exercised on the French system, it is to the inhabitants of France that we owe the usage of seasoning meat mostly with its own gravy, whereby a much greater variety is obtained, and the dishes are, at the same time, more wholesome than those prepared in the old modes. From the accounts of the household of Louis XV, it appears that the court dined with moderation. From eight to nine dishes only were served; but two thirds of the meat used in the kitchen was taken for gravy. Of course, this was possible only in a royal kitchen; but the tendency of the modern culinary art appears clearly enough from this instance. The French, probably, were induced to make this change because only a small portion of the southern part of their country furnishes oil, and good butter is produced only in a small part of the north. When the French revolution brought the "third estate" into honor, the old national French soup, *pot au feu*, came into notice—a dish on which the French pride themselves justly. The new mode of cooking became now more and more popular. But, soon after the great excitement of the revolution had subsided, and men had leisure to think of their palates, an over-refined style of cookery was introduced, and gave rise to works like the *Almanac des Gourmands*. The dishes of this latter period are not to be rashly ventured on, but to be eaten with a wise circumspection. The cookery of the English took quite a different turn from that of the Italians and French. Owing to their situation on an island, which prevented them from constant association with other nations, at least as far as respected the people at large, and probably owing, in part, to their national disposition, their cookery has been mostly confined to simple, strong and substantial dishes. The art of roasting has been carried by them to much perfection. With other English customs, the British cookery likewise came to the U. States; but this country, which has departed from the English standard in regard to many things of more importance, has not confined itself to a servile imitation of English cookery, but has borrowed much from the European continent. Soup has become general; and, in preparing vegetables, the French way has been followed more than the English. But the system of cooking in the U. States has many defects. Many dishes are spoiled by butter and fat, and, on the whole, far too much meat is eaten—a very natural consequence of which is the everlasting complaint of dyspepsy. A country so rich in fruits ought to allow

them a large place in its cookery. If the culinary art should be properly investigated, many facts would be brought to light, which have as yet been little attended to. Thus, for instance, it would be very interesting, in a medical point of view, to show the intimate connexion of different diseases, in various countries, with the common dishes.

Coombe, William, author of several popular works, including the Diaboliad; the Devil upon two Sticks in England, a continuation and imitation of Le Sage's novel, but far inferior, in spirit and graphic delineation, to the original; the Tour of Dr. Syntax in Search of the Picturesque, &c. The last mentioned poem was originally written for Mr. Ackermann, and published, by him, in the Poetical Magazine with Rowlandson's illustrations. Mr. Ackermann, in 1812, published a history of Westminster Abbey, in two volumes, 4to., from the pen of this gentleman, who also was a principal contributor of essays, short pieces illustrative of engravings, &c., to many of his miscellanies. Mr. Coombe's last poem was the History of Johnny Quæ Genus, which, like his Syntax, English Dance of Death, and Dance of Life, was accompanied by Rowlandson's prints. In his youth, Mr. Coombe inherited a moderate fortune, which he soon dissipated; and, during the last years of his long life, literature was his principal support. He died, June 18, 1823.

Cooper, Anthony Ashley, first earl of Shaftesbury, and a statesman of considerable eminence in the reign of Charles II, was born in 1621. At the age of fifteen, he entered Exeter college, Oxford, whence he removed to Lincoln's Inn, with a view to the study of law; but was chosen representative for Tewkesbury, in 1640, while only in his nineteenth year. At the commencement of the civil war, he sided with the king's party, though he appeared to deem mutual concession necessary. In consequence of this opinion, finding himself distrusted by the court, he went over to the parliament, and, in 1644, stormed Warham, and reduced all the adjacent parts. He had some share in the private negotiation between the king and lord Hollis, at the fruitless treaty of Uxbridge, and is said to have contrived the insurrection of the club men. When Cromwell turned out the long parliament, sir Anthony was one of the members of the convention which succeeded. He was, nevertheless, a subscriber to the protestation, which charged the protector with arbitrary government, a fact which did not prevent him from becoming one of his privy council. After the deposition of Richard Cromwell, he was privately engaged in a plan for the restoration of Charles II, which he subsequently aided with all his influence. He was one of the twelve members who carried the invitation to the king, and was, soon after, made a privy counsellor, and a commissioner for the trial of the regicides. In 1661, he was raised to the peerage, by the title of baron Ashley, and appointed chancellor of the exchequer, and a lord of the treasury. He was also a leading member of the Cabal. He promoted the declaration for liberty of conscience; but, on the other hand, he supported the Dutch war, and issued illegal writs for the election of members of parliament during a recess, and, in other respects, exhibited much latitude of principle and of practice. In 1672, he was created earl of Shaftesbury and lord high chancellor. His conduct on the bench was able and impartial. He had not, however, been more than a year in office, when the seals were taken from him; and, from that moment, he became one of the most powerful leaders of the opposition. For his warmth in asserting that a prorogation of fifteen months amounted to a dissolution of parliament, he was committed to the Tower, and was not released until after a full submission. Whether the popish plot, in 1678, was of his contrivance, is uncertain; but he made use of it to force out the earl of Danby's administration, and produce the formation of a new one, in which he was himself made president of the council. Amid many violent party proceedings which followed, he was the author of that bulwark of liberty, the *habeas corpus* act. He only remained in the administration four months, when the interest of the duke of York once more prevailed against a statesman whose endeavors to promote a bill for his exclusion from the succession had been unremitting. On his dismissal from office, he was charged with having attempted subornation of perjury. He was, in consequence, once more committed to the Tower, and tried for high treason; but was acquitted by the jury, amidst prodigious acclamations of the people—a circumstance which stimulated Dryden to the production of his celebrated poem of Absalom and Achitophel, in which Shaftesbury is so unfavorably conspicuous. Not long after this acquittal, the earl withdrew to Holland, where he arrived in November, 1682, and where he

died, of the gout in his stomach, on the 22d of Jan. 1683. The career of this able, but dubious and versatile statesman, forms the best commentary on his public principles, and declares him to be rather a bold, active and enterprising man of expediency, than a great politician. Yet the character of a man sincerely esteemed by Locke, and other men of undoubted principle, is not to be implicitly taken from the odium excited by opposing party feelings. On the whole, this extraordinary person appears to have possessed many vices, always redeemed by a great portion of ability, and a leaning to broad and liberal principles of government, when he could freely display it.

Cooper, Anthony Ashley, third earl of Shaftesbury, a celebrated philosophical and moral writer, was born at Exeter-house, in London, in February, 1671. He was grandson to the subject of the preceding article, who early instructed him in Greek and Latin, placing about him a female who spoke those languages with considerable fluency. He could read them both with ease when only eleven years of age. He was then placed at a private school, and finally removed to Winchester. At the latter establishment he did not remain long, but went on his travels earlier than was customary. On his return to England, in 1689, he became the representative of Poole, in Dorsetshire, and distinguished himself, while in parliament, by his support of measures favorable to public liberty. His health suffered so much by parliamentary attendance, that, in 1698, he gave up his seat, and, visiting Holland in the assumed character of a student of physic, he prosecuted his studies, and became intimately acquainted with Bayle, Le Clerc, and other literary men. On his return to England, he succeeded to the earldom; and, although not a constant attendant of the house of lords, he was always ready on important occasions. King William offered him the post of secretary of state, which his health would not allow him to accept. On the accession of Anne, he took leave of public life, and once more visited Holland, to which he was much attached, where he remained for two years. In 1708, in consequence of the extravagances of the French prophets, he published his Letter on Enthusiasm, in which he opposed prosecution and personal punishments. In 1709, he published his Moralists, a Philosophical Rhapsody; being an eloquent defence of the doctrine of a Deity and providence, on the Platonic model; which piece is ranked by bishop Hurd among the most finished productions of the kind in the English language. His *Sensus Communis* soon followed, and, in 1710, his Soliloquy, or Advice to an Author; after which his health declined so rapidly, that he was advised to fix his residence at Naples, in which city he died, in February, 1713, in the forty-second year of his age, but not before he had finished his Judgment of Hercules, and Letter concerning Design. His works appeared, in three volumes, 8vo., in 1713, under the title of Characteristics of Men, Manners, Opinions and Times. In 1716, some of his private letters, upon philosophical and theological subjects, were published, under the title of Several Letters, written by a Noble Lord to a Young Man at the University, 8vo.; and, in 1721, another collection, entitled Letters from the Right Honorable the Earl of Shaftesbury to Robert Molesworth, Esquire, &c. The principal attention of lord Shaftesbury was, however, directed to the writings of antiquity, on which he built a civil, social and theistic kind of philosophy. In his Essay on Wit and Humor, he defends the application of ridicule, as a test of truth, in regard to religion, as well as other matters. His principal merit is a lively and elegant mode of discussion, somewhat fettered by his uncommon solicitude in regard to style, to which no English author has attended with more assiduity. In all his works, lord Shaftesbury appears a zealous advocate for liberty, and a firm believer in the fundamental doctrines of natural religion; but, although he professed a respect for Christianity, he was doubtless sceptical in regard to revelation, and sometimes indulged his humor, on scriptural points, with correspondent indecorum. In a moral point of view, his character was very estimable, both as a public and as a private man, and obtained the suffrages of all who knew him.

Cooper, sir Astley Paston, bart., F.R.S. This highly distinguished surgeon was born in Gadesborough, county of Hertford, England, Aug. 23, 1768. He has filled the most responsible public offices in his profession, and has enjoyed an unequalled share of private confidence. He was one of the surgeons to Guy's hospital, and lecturer on surgery and anatomy in St. Thomas's hospital, London, is surgeon to the king, and, in July, 1821, was created a baronet. In Burke's Peerage, he is spoken of as having attained to the "highest eminence in the surgical profession;" and no

one who has heard him lecture, witnessed his operations, or studied his published works, will question his claims to this distinction. His principal works are the splendid volume On the Anatomy and Surgical Treatment of Inguinal and Congenital Hernia, which appeared in 1804; the continuation and completion of the same work in the volume on Crural and Umbilical Hernia, in 1807; his work on Dislocations and Fractures; and the Lectures on the Principles and Practice of Surgery, which last have recently been published under his inspection, from notes of his lectures taken by Mr. F. Tyrrell. Besides these extended works, sir Astley has enriched various periodicals, journals and transactions, with papers of great practical value. His latest undertaking is a work in folio, On the Diseases of the Female Breast. Only a part of this has as yet appeared. Sir Astley is highly esteemed for his originality, boldness and success as a practical surgeon. He was the first to operate for carotid aneurism; and the whole profession bears witness to the genius which suggested this great operation; and its blessings are now almost the daily occurrences of practical surgery. Sir Astley was also the first to tie the aorta—perhaps the boldest attempt of the surgical art—and, although the operation was unsuccessful, still it was shown not to be immediately, we may add necessarily, destructive to life; and, in more favorable cases, it may save from death. No foreign surgeon has been so much resorted to by persons from the U. States, whose cases required consummate skill; and they have been among those who have had large experience of its amount and its advantages. As a public teacher, too, sir Astley will be long remembered by the profession in the U. States. He had a singular felicity in communicating to others the knowledge he so largely possessed. He was truly a beautiful lecturer. A manner grave, simple, energetic, characterized his prelections. He demanded and received the closest and most respectful attention. The smallest sound, in his crowded theatre, were it but the creaking of a shoe, arrested his mind in the midst of the sentence he was uttering; and, without changing his position, and scarcely altering his voice, he would direct his demonstrator to remove from the room the occasion of his annoyance, and then pass on with his subject as if no interruption had occurred. This control of his audience is particularly mentioned, for there is, perhaps, no place in which, from the numbers and the variety of the individuals collected, the attention is commanded with more difficulty than in the crowded lecture-room of a foreign hospital. Sir Astley has, within a very few years, retired from his labors at the hospitals, and is now enjoying the fruits of successful industry and talent. His early history has not been glanced at; but there was nothing in its circumstances which distinguished him from the crowds of young men who have to depend upon themselves for success and for fame; and now that he enjoys both these so largely, he yet feels he has a debt to pay, and is still found among the most useful laborers for the public.

Cooper, Samuel, minister in Boston, son of the reverend William Cooper, was born March 28, 1725. He gave early indications of great powers of mind, and, after having been graduated at Harvard college, in 1743, devoted himself to the church. When but 20 years of age, he acquired great reputation as a preacher, and was chosen to succeed his father as colleague with the reverend doctor Colman, in Boston. He continued in this situation until his death, which happened Dec. 29, 1783, in the 59th year of his age. As a preacher, doctor Cooper was, perhaps, the most distinguished man of his day in the U. States. He was a sincere and liberal Christian, and of a charitable disposition. He was not only a great theologian, but was also extremely well versed in other branches of learning, particularly in the classics. He was one of the original founders of the American academy of arts and sciences, of which he was the first vice-president. His patriotism prompted him to take a decided part against Great Britain. He was efficacious in procuring foreign alliances, and was often consulted by some of the most prominent of the revolutionary characters. His manners were those of a finished gentleman. With the exception of his political writings, which were published in the journals of the day, his productions were exclusively sermons.

Coöperative Societies. For several years, there has been a society in London for the purpose of encouraging the formation of working communities among the laboring classes; they published the Coöperative Magazine, and, about three years ago, a few intelligent and industrious workmen at Brighton (England) formed the Brighton coöperative society. "Wages," say the coöperatives, "have been and are continually diminishing. The independent day-laborer has almost ceased to

exist; the country laborer can seldom live without parish aid; the mechanic begins to find himself in the same situation. Machinery, which multiplies the products, has diminished the demand for workmen, and, in consequence, their wages. The whole secret of the remedy lies in this, that the laborers do not work for themselves, but for the capitalists: if they could work for themselves, they would get the whole produce of their labor, of which they now get only an eighth, or, at most, a fourth. To do this, they must have capital, which must be obtained by union and saving. Societies may be formed, each member of which pays a small periodical subscription. Instead of putting this out in savings-banks, or investing it in different securities, which yield a small interest, because the capital is employed by others, who must have their profits from it, let the workmen employ themselves on this capital, and thus obtain the whole produce of it themselves. They may purchase goods by the wholesale, and sell them at the usual prices to the members. Thus the profits on the articles sold will go to increase their own capital, instead of going into others' hands. As the capital increases, the society will be able to find work for the members, the whole produce of which will become common property, instead of enriching other employers. After a while, all the members may be thus employed, and they will soon become able to purchase land, cultivate it, establish manufactories, provide for all their wants,—food, clothing, &c.; and thus receive all the produce of the labor of the whole." This reasoning is not mere speculation; it has actually been carried into practice. The Brighton society, above mentioned, is in a flourishing condition, and has been followed by numerous others in different parts of England. "There are now," says the Quarterly Review (Nov., 1829), "upwards of 70 coöperative societies in England, and they are spreading so rapidly, that, by the time this number of our Review is published, there will be nearly 100." But the increase was greater than was anticipated; since the Sunday Atlas of Dec. 6, 1829, gives the number at nearly 150. The benefits which the coöperators promise themselves, are, 1. relief from all fear of poverty, the sick, aged, widows and orphans being provided for by the society; 2. the supply of the comforts of life without that incessant labor which the low rate of wages now requires; 3. leisure and means for the improvement of their moral and intellectual condition. It will be seen that these are not establishments of charity, being established by the poor themselves; that they encourage industry, since each individual must depend, as much as ever, on his own exertions, which are more suitably rewarded, and promote good morals by a strict inquiry into the moral character of such as are desirous of admission to their privileges.

Copal is a somewhat resinous substance, obtained from a tree (*rhus copallinum*) which has winged and very entire leaves, the foot-stalks membranaceous and jointed, and is a native of several parts of America. Considerable quantities of copal are annually exported from the Spanish colonies in America, in irregular masses, some of which are transparent, of a yellowish or brown color; and others are whitish and semi-transparent. By solution in different ways, it is made into a most beautiful and perfect varnish, which has the name of *copal varnish*. One mode of making this is by melting the copal with an equal quantity of linseed oil; another by mixture with oil of turpentine; and a third, by mixture with alcohol, or spirit of wine. Copal is the varnish which is chiefly applied to snuff-boxes, tea-boards, and other similar articles.

Copartnership. (See *Partnership*.)

Copeck (*kopeika*); a Russian copper coin, so called from the impression of St. George bearing a lance. A hundred of them make one ruble. (See *Coin*.) The value of the copper coin, compared with the assignation-ruble, varies in the different governments.

Copenhagen (in Danish, *Kioebenhavn*); the capital of the kingdom of Denmark, and the residence of the king; 55° 41′ 4″ N. lat.; 12° 35′ 6″ E. lon.; on the island of Zealand, in the Sound, and on a narrow branch of the sea, which separates it from the island of Amack. Copenhagen is fortified, contains a citadel called *Fredericshaven*, and is well built, with regular, well-lighted streets, and fine houses, principally of brick. It contains 230 streets and 13 public places, the largest of which, but irregularly built, is the new king's-market, with the statue of Christian V, and the octangular Frederic's-place, in which four streets meet, and in the centre of which is the fine statue of king Frederic V on horseback. Copenhagen contains 22 churches, 22 hospitals, 30 almshouses, 3 convents, and 105,000 inhabitants, among whom are 2400 Jews. The town is composed of three principal divisions, which are enclosed by the fortifications, viz. the old town, which has been

much improved since the fire; the new town, of which the eastern (the finest, but least lively part) is called *Fredericstadt;* and Christianshaven, which is situated on the island of Amack, and is separated from the island of Zealand by an arm of the sea. This channel forms a safe harbor, capable of admitting 400 vessels, where the naval arsenal, the dock, and other buildings requisite for the navy, are situated. This is, likewise, the station of the fleet. Outside of the fortifications are three suburbs, partly composed of fine country-seats. Formerly, there were four royal palaces at Copenhagen; but, in 1794, the most splendid of these (one of the largest palaces of Europe, called *Christiansburg*) became a prey to the flames, so that only the ruins and the splendid stables remained. The other three palaces are Charlottenburg, now the repository of the academy of arts, and furnished with a gallery of paintings; the old royal palace Rosenburg, where many antiques and precious articles are kept, adjoining to which is the king's-garden, a public promenade; and the Amalienburg, consisting, properly speaking, of four palaces, which were purchased for the residence of the king after the fire had consumed the palace. Among the other buildings worthy of being mentioned are, the arsenal, in which is the royal library, containing 250,000 volumes and 3000 manuscripts (according to a late number of the Foreign Review, it contains 400,000 volumes); the theatre; the exchange, with the bank; the Trinity church, and the beautiful Frederic's church; the large, beautiful, and admirably arranged Frederic's hospital; the foundling, lying-in, and marine hospitals. Among the scientific establishments are the university, founded in 1475, with 4 faculties, 20 ordinary and 16 extraordinary professors, a library of 100,000 volumes, with valuable Northern and Oriental manuscripts; a botanical garden and an observatory; the royal surgical academy, which has about 200 students; the academy for military cadets and midshipmen; the royal and university library; the public library of Classen, with 30,000 volumes, founded, in 1776, by two brothers, named *Classen;* several public and private museums; the royal academy of sciences and arts; the society for the study of the Northern languages and history; the Iceland and Scandinavian societies; the surgical academy; 114 schools, among which is 1 for the deaf and dumb, and 1 for the blind; the veterinary school; the gymnastic establishment, &c. Many of the admired works of Thorwaldsen (q. v.) adorn the churches and palaces of Copenhagen. Besides numerous sorts of mechanics and artists, Copenhagen contains manufactories, which employ 14,000 hands. Among these are the royal manufactory of porcelain, the manufactories of cloth, calico, silk, cotton, oil-cloth and paper-hangings, the iron-founderies, and 18 sugar-refineries, with 520 workmen. Copenhagen is the centre of the domestic and foreign commerce of Denmark, which is promoted by the royal bank (founded, in 1736, by Christian VI), the marine insurance company, the East and West India companies, and by the beautiful harbor, into which about 5000 vessels enter annually. From the 2d to the 5th of Sept., 1807, the town was bombarded by the English, and 305 houses and other edifices, among which was a beautiful church, were entirely burnt, and 2000 houses injured so as to be rendered uninhabitable: 2000 persons, partly of the garrison and partly citizens, lost their lives. The environs of Copenhagen are, some of them, very fine. In the neighborhood are the summer palaces of the king—Fredericsberg, the usual summer residence of the court, Hirschholm, Friedensburg and Jägerpreis. In 1168, Copenhagen was a fisher's hamlet, which was given by the king to bishop Axel (see *Absalom*), who fortified it against the pirates, then numerous on the islands. Gradually it rose to great importance, but, of late, its commerce has sunk very much.

Copernicus, Nicholas; born at Thorn, on the Vistula, Feb. 19, 1473, where his father had become a citizen 10 years before. It is supposed that his family came originally from Westphalia. His mother was sister to the bishop of Ermeland. From a school at Thorn, Copernicus went to Cracow, where he studied medicine, and received the degree of doctor. At the same time, he studied mathematics and astronomy. The fame of Peurbach and Regiomontanus, the restorers of astronomy in Europe, excited his emulation. At the age of 23, he went to Italy, where the arts and sciences were beginning to flourish, after the fall of the Byzantine empire. At Bologna, he was instructed in astronomy by Dominicus Maria, whose intimate friend he became. In 1500, he taught mathematics at Rome with great success, and was already placed by the side of Regiomontanus. From Rome he returned to his own country, where his uncle made him a canon in the cathedral of Frauenburg. In 1521, he was sent, by the chapter, to the diet of Graudentz, one of the principal

objects of which was to put an end to the difficulties which had arisen from the irregular coining of money. Here he proposed a plan for establishing a general mint at the public expense; but the cities of Elbing, Dantzic and Thorn would not give up their right of coining, and the plan of Copernicus was not carried into effect. He now applied his whole strength to the contemplation of the sublime objects of nature. Among the many hypotheses, with regard to our planetary system, which had been advanced during the previous 2000 years, one had at last prevailed, the most ingenious, and artificial, and the most wonderful mixture of sagacity and error which the human mind has ever conceived. Pythagoras, Aristotle, Plato, Hipparchus, Archimedes, and others, had all adopted it. It was called the *system of Ptolemy*. (See *System of the Universe*, and *Ptolemy*.) Copernicus doubted whether the motions of the heavenly bodies could be so confused and so complicated as this hypothesis would make them; for nature follows, he thought, more simple laws; and, as soon as these are found, they must explain, with simplicity, the most complicated appearances. He found, in the writings of the ancients, that Nicetas, Heraclides and Ecphontus had thought of the possibility of a motion of the earth. This induced him to examine the subject more fully. The hypothesis of Aristarchus of Samos—that the earth revolves in an oblique circle around the sun, and also revolves daily on its own axis—Copernicus could not yet have seen; for it is found in no work previous to his time, except the *Arenario* of Archimedes, which was first printed at Venice, at a later period. Copernicus now assumed that the sun was the centre of the system; that the earth was a planet, like Mars and Venus; and that all the planets revolve round the sun in the following order:—Mercury, in 87 days; Venus, in 224; the Earth, in 365; Mars, in 1 year and 321 days; Jupiter, in 11 years; and Saturn, in 29 years. When he afterwards described their paths, he found that these circles, notwithstanding their simplicity, fully explained all the motions of the heavenly bodies, and that the apparent stations and retrogradations of the planets necessarily resulted from the motion of the earth. Thus was discovered the true system of the universe. Thus Copernicus stands, as it were, upon the boundary line of a new era. (See *Earth*, and *Astronomy*.) He died June 11, 1543, in the 71st year of his age. His great countryman, Kepler, has described his character in the following words:—*Copernicus, vir maximo ingenio, et quod in hoc exercitio magni momenti est, animo liber.* The great and excellent character of this philosopher best appears in the letter with which he addresses his work to the pope. Excommunication, however, was issued from the Vatican against Copernicus, and it was not till 278 years after the publication of the work, in 1821, that the papal court annulled the sentence.—Let us review the progress of Copernicus' discovery. He commences his labors at a time when the belief in the immobility of the earth is universal. He conceives the idea of its motion, and pursues it with unwearied diligence, not for a few years, but through the greater part of his life, constantly comparing it with the appearances in the heavens. He at last confirms his idea, and thus becomes the founder of a new system of astronomy. All this he did, a hundred years before the invention of telescopes, with miserable wooden instruments, on which the lines were often only marked with ink. In his immortal work, dedicated to the pope, Paul III, *De Orbium cœlestium Revolutionibus, libri* vi (first published at Nüremburg, 1543, folio; later editions appeared at Basle, 1566, and Amsterdam, 1617), his system is developed. Besides this principal work, we have, by the same author, *Astronomia Instaurata*, in 6 books, and a work, *De Lateribus et Angulis Triangulorum*. His principal work was completed in 1530; but he determined to publish it only at the repeated solicitations of his friends. As the first impression appeared May 24, 1543, Copernicus enjoyed but for a few days the pleasure of seeing his work in the hands of the world. (See Rhæticus, *Narratio de Libris Revol. cœlest. Copernici*, Dantzic, 1546, 4to.) He there advances his system merely as a hypothesis, which explains, in a more simple and natural manner than the previous ones, the phenomena of the heavens. This was a precaution which the prejudices of the times obliged him to take; but an inspection of the book shows with what full and thorough conviction he was persuaded that his system was the only possible one. Gassendi, as well as Lichtenberg, has written a Life of Copernicus (*Vita Nic. Copernici. Accessit Gassendi Vita Tycho-Brahei*, Hague, 1652, 4to.). See, also, Adam's *Vitæ Philosophorum Germanorum*, page 26. Doctor Westphal has given a good narrative of the life of Nicholas Copernicus (Constance, 1822). Count Sierakowski has erected a monument to his memory, in

St. Anne's church at Cracow, with this inscription, taken from the Bible:—*Sta, sol, ne moveare.* Thorwaldsen, the greatest sculptor of the age, has executed a colossal statue of Copernicus, for the city of Cracow, which is one of the most noble specimens of modern art.

Copiapo; a jurisdiction in Chile, rich in gold-mines, situated in the north part of Chile. There are likewise mines of iron, copper, sulphur, lead, mercury, silver and lapis lazuli. Arsenic also is found. Saltpetre is common.

Copiapo; a seaport of Chile, which gives its name to the jurisdiction; 140 miles N. N. W. Rioja; lon. 71° 18′ W.; lat. 27° 10′ S.; population, 1700. It is situated on a river of the same name, 12 leagues from the sea. The houses are irregularly built.

Copley, John Singleton, a self-taught and distinguished painter, was born in 1738, in Boston, Massachusetts, and died in London, in 1815. Copley began to paint at a very early age; and pieces, executed by him in Boston, before (to use his own words) he had seen any tolerable picture, and certainly before he could have received any instruction, in the art of painting, from the lips of a master, show his natural talent, and, in fact, were unsurpassed by his later productions. He did not visit Italy till 1774. In 1776, he went to England, where he met his wife and children, whom he had left in Boston. As the struggle between England and America had begun in 1775, there was neither a good opportunity for Mr. Copley to return to his native land, which he always seems to have had in view, nor was there much hope of success for an artist in the convulsed state of the country. He therefore devoted himself to portrait painting in London, and was chosen a member of the royal academy. His first picture which may be called historical, was the Youth rescued from a Shark; but the picture styled Death of Lord Chatham, which represents the great orator fainting in the house of lords, after the memorable speech in favor of America, and contains, at the same time, the portraits of all the leading men of that house, at once established his fame. In 1790, Copley was sent, by the city of London, to Hanover, to take the portraits of the four Hanoverian officers, commanders of regiments associated with the British troops under general Eliot (afterwards lord Heathfield), at the defence of Gibraltar, in order to introduce them in the large picture, which he was about making for the city, of the siege and relief of Gibraltar, which was afterwards placed in the council-chamber of Guildhall. Mr. Copley pursued his profession with unabated ardor, until his sudden death, in 1815. Besides the pictures already mentioned, and a number of portraits, including those of several members of the royal family, the most distinguished of his productions are Major Pierson's Death on the Island of Jersey; Charles I, in the House of Commons, demanding of the Speaker Lenthall the five impeached Members, containing the portraits of the most distinguished members of that house; the Surrender of Admiral de Winter to Lord Duncan, on board the Venerable, off Camperdown; Samuel and Eli, &c.; of all of which engravings exist, though of some (for instance, of the last-mentioned piece), they are extremely rare. His eldest and only surviving son,

Copley, John Singleton, lord Lyndhurst, high chancellor of England, was born in Boston, Massachusetts, May 21, 1772; went, with his mother and sisters, in 1775, to England (*see the preceding article*); was sent, at the age of seven years, to a boarding-school at Clapham, near London, and, after the lapse of a few years, was placed under the reverend doctor Horne of Chiswick, with whom he remained until he entered Trinity college, Cambridge. He distinguished himself here by assiduous application, won many prizes, and received the high degree of second wrangler. He afterwards obtained a lay fellowship, and, in 1795, visited the U. States under a travelling fellowship of the college, made arrangements with regard to some family property at Boston, and travelled, in company with Mr. Bollmann (q. v.), to Niagara, into Canada, &c., on horseback, which was very different from the mode of performing similar tours at present. In 1798, he returned to England, commenced the study of the law at Lincoln's Inn, and was, for two years, with Mr. Tidd, a distinguished special pleader. In 1816, Mr. Copley was elected member of parliament for Yarmouth. In 1819, he took the degree of sergeant-at-law, and was M. P. for Ashburton, having been made chief-justice of Chester in 1818. In 1819, he first became known to the public at large by his able assistance of sir Charles Wetherel, in his defence of the elder Watson, and afterwards, by an equally able defence of Thistlewood, both accused of high treason. Wetherel and Copley were then the idols of the populace, and their names were placarded on every corner. After these displays of talent, the government felt the importance

of securing his services. He was, therefore, sent to attend the special commission at Derby, for the trial of Brandreth and his companions. In 1819, he was made solicitor-general, in time to involve him officially in the proceedings against the queen, Caroline (q. v.), in which he assisted the attorney-general. In 1824, he was made attorney-general. He became the friend of Canning, and so remained until the death of this minister. In 1826, Mr. Copley was chosen M. P. for the university of Cambridge, after an arduous struggle. In a few months, on the death of lord Gifford, he was made master of the rolls. April 30, 1827, he was made lord high chancellor of England, after Canning had been appointed prime minister, April 12, 1827, and lord Eldon (q. v.) had resigned, and after he had declared himself against Catholic emancipation. April 25, 1827, he was created lord Lyndhurst. His armorial motto—*ultra pergere*—may well apply to his former career; but he has now reached the highest point of judicial honor. When Wellington's administration was formed, lord Lyndhurst remained in office.

Copper is of a red color, with a tinge of yellow, having considerable lustre, but liable to tarnish and rust from exposure to the air. It is moderately hard, and has considerable ductility and malleability. Its specific gravity is 8.78. It has a sensible odor, especially when heated or rubbed, a styptic, unpleasant taste, and is peculiarly poisonous to animals. In treating of this metal, we shall defer our account of its ores, which are numerous, until we have concluded its chemical history.—Copper melts at a full white heat, and, by slow cooling, may be crystallized. It suffers oxidation at a lower temperature from the action of the air, thin scales of oxide forming on its surface when it is heated to redness. At a higher heat, it burns with a green flame. Exposure to air and humidity, at the natural temperatures, converts it into a green rust, which is the oxide combined with a portion of carbonic acid. —There are two oxides of copper. The protoxide is of a red color, and occurs native, in the form of octoedral crystals, in the mines of Cornwall. It is also prepared artificially, by mixing 64 parts of metallic copper, in a state of fine division, with 80 parts of the peroxide, and heating the mixture to redness in a close vessel; or by boiling a solution of the acetate of copper with sugar, when the peroxide is gradually deoxidized, and subsides as a red powder. It consists of one atom, or proportional, of copper, 64, and one of oxygen, 8, = 72. The sulphuric, muriatic, and probably several other acids, form with it salts, which, for the most part, are colorless. On exposure to the air, they attract oxygen, and are rapidly converted into per-salts. The peroxide of copper is also found native, and may be prepared artificially by calcining metallic copper, by precipitation from the per-salts of copper, by means of pure potash, or by heating the nitrate of copper to redness. It is composed of one atom of copper, 64, and two of oxygen, 16, = 80. It varies in color from a dark-brown to a bluish-black, is insoluble in water, and does not affect the vegetable blue colors. It undergoes no change by heat alone, but is readily reduced to the metallic state by heat and combustible matter. It combines with nearly all the acids, and most of its salts have a green or blue tint. It is soluble, likewise, in ammonia, forming with it a deep blue solution—a property by which the peroxide of copper is distinguishable from all other substances.—Metallic copper is oxidated and dissolved by the greater number of the acids, and forms with them, in general, soluble and crystallizable salts.—Sulphuric acid, either concentrated or diluted, oxidates it, and combines with the peroxide, especially when assisted by heat. The solution is of a blue color, and, when evaporated, affords crystals in the form of rhomboidal prisms. This salt is the *blue vitriol* of commerce, and is usually obtained, either by evaporation of the solution of it, formed by the infiltration of water through copper mines, or by exposure of sulphuret of copper to the action of air and humidity, until the sulphur is converted into sulphuric acid, and the metal is oxidated and combined with it. Nitric acid acts on copper with great energy, the metal attracting a portion of its oxygen, nitric oxide gas being disengaged, and the oxide combining with the remaining acid. The solution, when evaporated, affords prismatic crystals, of a deep-green color, deliquescent, and easily soluble in water. From the facility with which it parts with oxygen, it acts with energy on several substances. Thus it detonates when struck with phosphorus, and it burns several of the metals. If wrapped in tinfoil, the tin is oxidated with such rapidity as to be attended with inflammation.—Muriatic acid dissolves copper slowly, when the air is admitted: if it is excluded, the action is very inconsiderable, unless heat is applied. The solution is of a fine green color, and, by evaporation, slender pris-

matic crystals are obtained, which are deliquescent, and very soluble in water.—The combinations of peroxide of copper with phosphoric, carbonic, and other acids, are effected by adding to a solution of nitrate or sulphate of copper a solution of a neutral salt, containing the acid with which the copper is designed to be combined. Copper is slowly oxidated by a number of weaker acids, as by some vegetable juices, when acted on by them with the admission of air. Acetic acid, or vinegar, in particular, forms an important compound with the oxide of copper. To obtain it, copper plates are exposed to the fumes of vinegar. A crust is soon formed of a green color, which is the *verdigris* of commerce.—All the salts of copper are decomposed by the alkalies and earths. Potash, soda, and the alkaline earths, throw down precipitates, which are of various shades of green or blue, according to the quantity of alkali added, the color being green, if a small quantity is added, and becoming blue from a larger quantity. These precipitates are sub-salts, the alkali attracting the greater portion of the acid, but the oxide precipitated still retaining a portion of the acid combined with it.—The action of ammonia upon the salts of copper is more remarkable. It first abstracts a portion of the acid, and throws down a green or blue precipitate, which is a sub-salt; but, when added in larger quantity, it redissolves this precipitate, and forms a transparent solution, of a very deep-blue color, which, when evaporated, affords fine blue crystals. A triple compound, used in medicine under the name of *ammoniuret of copper*, is prepared by triturating together two parts of sulphate of copper with one part of carbonate of ammonia, the mass becoming soft from the mutual action of the two salts, the carbonic acid being disengaged with effervescence, and the triple compound of sulphuric acid, oxide of copper, and ammonia, being obtained of a deep violet-blue color.—Copper is precipitated in its metallic state, from its saline solutions, by zinc and iron; either of these metals attracting the oxygen which serves as the medium of its union with the acid of the solution. Its oxide is precipitated by albumen, and the precipitate is almost inert; hence the whites of eggs have been recommended as an antidote to the poisonous salts of copper.—The best mode of detecting copper, when suspected to be present in mixed fluids, is by sulphureted hydrogen. The sulphuret, after being collected, should be placed on a piece of porcelain, and digested in a few drops of nitric acid. A sulphate of copper is formed, which, when evaporated to dryness, strikes the characteristic deep blue, on the addition of a drop of ammonia.—Copper and sulphur unite by fusion, the combination being attended with the evolution of heat and light. A bi-sulphuret of copper also exists in copper pyrites.—Copper combines with a great number of the metals by fusion. It communicates hardness to gold and silver, without much impairing their ductility, or debasing their color, when in small proportion; hence it is employed in the standard alloys of these metals, that of gold containing one twelfth, that of silver one sixteenth, of the mass. With platina, it forms an alloy, ductile, and susceptible of a fine polish. With tin, it forms several valuable alloys, which are characterized by their sonorousness.

Bronze is an alloy of copper, with about 8 or 10 per cent. of tin, together with small quantities of other metals, which are not essential to the compound. Cannons are cast with an alloy of a similar kind, and the ancient bronze statues were of nearly the same composition. (See *Bronzes.*)

Bell-Metal is composed of 80 parts of copper and 20 of tin. The Indian gong, so much celebrated for the richness of its tones, contains copper and tin in this proportion. The proportion of tin in bell-metal varies, however, from one third to one fifth of the weight of the copper, according to the sound required, the size of the bell, and the impulse to be given. M. d'Arcet has discovered that bell-metal, formed in the proportion of 78 parts of copper, united with 22 of tin, is, indeed, nearly as brittle as glass, when cast in a thin plate, or gong; yet, if it be heated to a cherry red, and plunged into cold water, being held between two plates of iron, that the plate may not bend, it becomes malleable. Gongs, cymbals and tamtams have been manufactured with this compound.

Brass. Copper and zinc unite in several proportions, forming alloys of great importance in the arts. The best brass consists of four parts of copper to one of zinc; and, when the latter is in greater proportion, compounds are formed called *tombac*, *Dutch gold* and *pinchbeck*. An alloy called *Bath metal* is made by adding 9 pounds of zinc to 32 of brass; and an extremely pale, nearly white metal, used by the button-makers of Birmingham, under the name of *platina*, by adding 5 pounds of zinc to 8 of brass. The brothers Keller, who were very celebrated statue-

founders, used an alloy, 10,000 parts of which contained 9140 of copper, 553 of zinc, 170 of tin, and 137 of lead. Their castings are famous, and some are of very large size, as the equestrian statue of Louis XIV, cast at a single jet, by Balthazar Keller, in 1699, which is 21 feet high, and weighs 53,263 French pounds. These statues are usually called *bronze* statues, although made of brass. Brass was well known to the Romans, under the name of *orichalcum*, who took advantage of its resemblance to gold, in robbing the temples, and other public places, of that precious metal. Thus Julius Cæsar robbed the capitol of 3000 pounds weight of gold, and Vitellius despoiled the temples of their gifts and ornaments, and replaced them with this inferior compound.

The art of *tinning* copper consists in covering that metal with a thin layer of tin, in order to protect its surface from rusting. For this purpose, pieces of tin are placed upon a well-polished sheet of copper, which, if the process is skilfully conducted, adhere uniformly to its surface. The oxidation of the tin—a circumstance which would entirely prevent the success of the operation—is avoided by employing fragments of resin, or muriate of ammonia, and regulating the temperature with great care.

Ores of Copper.—1. *Native Copper*, like the metal, is of a red color, but frequently tarnished. Its lustre is metallic: it is flexible, ductile and malleable: its fracture is hackly. It occurs in branched pieces, dendritic, in thin plates, and rarely in regular crystals, under the form of the cube or octoedron. It is found in the veins of primitive rocks, and of the older secondary. It is occasionally accompanied by several of the ores of copper, and sometimes those of other metals. One of the largest masses of this substance ever noticed was discovered by Schoolcraft, in the North West Territory, about 30 miles from lake Superior, on the west bank of the river Ontonagon. It weighs, by estimation, 2200 pounds. It lies near the water's edge, at the foot of an elevated bank of alluvion. Native copper is frequently found in connexion with the secondary greenstone and red sandstone formation in the U. States. Its greatest known depositories, however, are the mines of Cornwall in England.

2. *Sulphuret of Copper*. Under this name may be described a series of ores containing copper, sulphur, and variable proportions of other metals, which, by some mineralogists, are conceived to pass into each other, and, of course, are improperly arranged as distinct species. Its principal varieties are the vitreous copper ore, the purple copper, gray copper, and yellow copper pyrites.

a. Vitreous Copper is of a lead or iron-gray color. It occurs crystallized in regular six-sided prisms, mostly modified on the terminal edges, and in acute, double, six-sided pyramids, with triangular planes. It also occurs massive. The cross-fracture of the crystallized is often conchoidal, with a vitreous lustre: the massive varies greatly in respect of hardness and color. It is sometimes sectile and soft. The fracture is even, or flat conchoidal. Specific gravity, 4.8 to 5.4. It consists, according to Chenevix, of 81 copper and 19 sulphur. It occurs in veins and beds, in primitive and early secondary rocks, and is found with other ores of copper. In the U. States, it has been met with very often in the old red sandstone, but is nowhere wrought, as yet, to advantage. It abounds in Cornwall, and many European countries.

b. Purple Copper occurs both massive and crystallized. Its color is between copper-red and tombac-brown. It is often possessed of an iridescent tarnish, in which blue is apt to prevail. The general form of the crystal is that of a cube, of which the solid angles are replaced. It is soft, easily frangible, and sectile in a slight degree. Specific gravity, 5.033. That of Norway consists of copper 69.50, sulphur 19, iron 7.50, and oxygen 4. It is fusible into a globule, which acts powerfully upon the magnetic needle. The purple copper is found in Norway, Saxony and England, and occurs under similar circumstances with the other ores of copper.

c. The *Gray Copper*, or *Fahlerz*, is of a steel-gray or iron-black color. It occurs crystallized in the form of the tetraedron, in which no regular structure is visible: it also occurs massive and disseminated. Its fracture is uneven or imperfectly conchoidal, with a shining or glistening metallic lustre. It is brittle. Specific gravity, 4.5. It consists of 52 copper, 23 iron, and 14 sulphur; but it also contains, mixed with these constituents, various other metals, in very variable proportions, as lead, antimony and silver. It occurs in Russia, France, Spain, England, Chile and Mexico.

d. Yellow Copper Ore, or *Copper Pyrites*, occurs of various shades of yellow, crystallized in the form of the tetraedron, having the solid angles replaced, and massive. It is also stalactitic and botryoidal. It is

brittle, yields to the knife, and may thereby easily be distinguished from iron pyrites, which it often much resembles. Specific gravity, 4.3. It contains copper 30, iron 32.20, sulphur 35.16, earthy matter 0.50, lead, arsenic and loss, 2.14. It is the most abundant of all the ores of copper, and affords, almost exclusively, the copper of commerce. It exists both in primitive and secondary rocks, and is accompanied by most of the other ores of copper, sometimes galena, oxide of tin, and several of the ores of iron. It is found in North and South America, most European countries, in Japan and Africa. In the year ending June 30, 1817, 73,727 tons of copper ore (principally copper pyrites), which sold for £410,936, and yielded 6425 tons of pure copper, were raised from the mines of Cornwall only; being more than three fourths of the quantity raised from the British mines.

3. *Red Oxide of Copper* is of a red color, varying greatly in its shades, and, by transmitted light, often of a crimson red. It occurs crystallized in the form of the octoedron, and its varieties, which are very numerous. The crystals are externally splendent, but sometimes of a lead-gray color, with a metallic lustre. The cross-fracture is sometimes uneven; oftener conchoidal, with a splendent and somewhat adamantine lustre. It is transparent, or translucent, yields easily to the knife, and is brittle. Specific gravity, 4.9 to 5.6. It consists, according to Chenevix, of 88.5 copper, and 11.5 of oxygen. Red oxide of copper is also found in delicate capillary crystals, as well as massive, when it is opaque, and frequently granular in its fracture. The brick-red, or *tile copper ore*, which occurs earthy, or a little indurated, appears to be a mixture of oxide of copper and oxide of iron. This species is found in the primitive and transition rocks, associated with the other ores of copper. It is found finely crystallized in the English mines, and at Chessy in France. It also occurs in the Hartz, the Bannat, Hungary, Chile and Peru, but, hitherto, has not been found, except in very limited quantities, in the U. States.

4. *Carbonate of Copper.* Oxide of copper, combined with carbonic acid, forms two species—the blue and the green carbonate; the differences between which arise either from different states of oxidation, or in part from the combination of water.

a. Blue Carbonate, or *Azure Copper Ore*, is found in shining, translucent crystals, whose figure is that of rhombic prisms, variously acuminated, and modified by secondary planes. The color is azure-blue, frequently of great intensity. It sometimes occurs in an earthy form, as an incrustation, and is occasionally massive, without lustre. As analyzed by Mr. Phillips, it consists of 69 peroxide of copper, 25.4 carbonic acid, and 5.4 water. It occurs in the copper mines of England, and of European countries generally, also in South America.

b. Green Carbonate of Copper, or *Malachite*, occurs massive, disseminated and crystallized in capillary and acicular crystals. Its color is green, and the lustre of the fibrous varieties silky and pearly. It is soft and brittle, but admits of a beautiful polish, and is highly esteemed in inlayed work. It contains more oxygen and more water than the blue carbonate. It occurs along with the other ores of copper. The finest specimens are brought from Siberia.

5. *Phosphate of Copper* is a rare ore, which was formerly regarded as malachite, but is now known to be a bi-phosphate of the peroxide of copper. It occurs massive, and disseminated in minute prismatic or octoedral crystals, of a green color. It is found in Hungary.

6. *Muriate of Copper* is another rare species, which occurs in angular grains, of a bright green color, among the sands of the river Lipas, in the desert of Atacama, separating Chile from Peru; also in minute prismatic crystals, of an emerald-green color, on brown iron stone, at Remolinos, in Chile. It is soft and brittle. Specific gravity, 4.4. It tinges the flame of the blowpipe of a bright green and blue, muriatic acid fumes are evolved, and a bead of copper remains on the charcoal.

7. *Arseniate of Copper.* Copper, combined with arsenic acid, forms several species, differing in the relative proportions, and in the quantity of water in them. Five are usually enumerated, which were distinguished by Chenevix. One variety—the octoedral arseniate of copper—occurs crystallized in the form of an obtuse octoedron. Its usual color is sky-blue; sometimes apple or grass-green. It is translucent, shining and brittle. Specific gravity, 2.881. It consists of peroxide of copper 49, arsenic acid 14, and not less than 35 of water. A second, copper mica, or the rhomboidal arseniate of copper of Phillips, is crystallized in hexaedral tables, beveled on the terminal planes. Its color is deep emerald-green, with considerable lustre and transparency. It is less hard and less heavy than the foregoing species, and consists of 58 of oxide of copper, 21 of

arsenic acid, and 21 of water. A third, the *right prismatic arseniate of copper*, as it is termed by Phillips, is crystallized in the form of an acute octoedron, the crystals being sometimes capillary, in some specimens appearing as delicate fibres, and sometimes in layers, flat or mammillated, and of a fibrous texture. The color in these is dark olive-green, passing into brown or yellow, or greenish-white. It is often transparent; it is harder than the preceding species, and is much heavier. It consists of 50 parts of oxide of copper, from 30 to 40 of arsenic acid, with, in some varieties, 20 of water. Another species occurs crystallized in triedral prisms, generally extremely small: they are of a beautiful bluish-green color, but, from decomposition, often black; when unaltered, they are transparent. It consists of 54 oxide of copper, 30 arsenic acid, and 16 water. All the foregoing species are found along with other copper ores in the English mines.

The sulphurets are the ores from which copper is usually extracted. The ore is roasted by a low heat, in a furnace with which flues are connected, in which the sulphur that is volatilized is collected. The remaining ore is then smelted in contact with the fuel. The iron present in the ore, not being so easily reduced or fused as the copper, remains in the scoria, while the copper is run out. It often requires repeated fusions, and, even after these, it may be still alloyed with portions of metals which are not volatile, and are of easy fusion. Hence the copper of commerce is never altogether pure, but generally contains a little lead, and a smaller portion of antimony. The carbonates of copper reduced by fusion, in contact with the fuel, afford a purer copper, as does also the solution of sulphate of copper which is met with in some mines, the copper being precipitated in its metallic state, by immersing iron in the solution. The precipitate which is thus formed is afterwards fused.—Copper, being ductile and easily wrought, is applied to many useful purposes. It is formed into thin sheets by being heated in a furnace, and subjected to pressure between iron rollers. These sheets being both ductile and durable, are applied to a variety of uses, such as the sheathing of the bottoms of ships, the covering of roofs and domes, the constructing of boilers and stills of a large size, &c. Copper is also fabricated into a variety of household utensils, the use of which, however, for preparing or preserving articles of food, is by no means free from danger, on account of the oxidizement to which copper is liable. It has been attempted to obviate this danger by tinning the copper, as above described. This method answers the purpose as long as the coating of tin remains entire. Copper may be forged into any shape, but will not bear more than a red heat, and, of course, requires to be heated often. The bottoms of large boilers are frequently forged with a large hammer worked by machinery. The bolts of copper used for ships, and other purposes, are either made by the hammer, or cast into shapes, and rolled. The copper cylinders used in calico printing are either cast solid upon an iron axis, or are cast hollow, and fitted upon the axis. The whole is afterwards turned, to render the surface true.

Copperas, or Green Vitriol, is a mineral substance, formed by the decomposition of pyrites by the moisture of the atmosphere. Its color is bright green, and its taste very astringent. A solution of it in water, dropped on oak bark, instantly produces a black spot. Copperas is occasionally found in grottoes, caverns, the galleries of mines, and other places. It is in much request with dyers, tanners, and the manufacturers of ink, and, for their use, is artificially prepared from pyrites. This mineral being moistened and exposed to the air, a crust is formed upon it, which is afterwards dissolved in water: from this the crystals of vitriol are obtained by evaporation. The principal use of vitriol is in dyeing woollen articles, hats, &c. black. It is the basis of ink, and is used in the manufacture of Prussian blue. If it be reduced to powder by the action of fire in a crucible, and mixed with powder of galls, it forms a dry, portable ink.

Copperplates. (See *Engraving*.)

Copt, a name given to the natives of Egypt belonging to the Jacobite or Monophysite sect, is a term of Arabic formation, manifestly a corruption of the Greek word Αἰγύπτιος, converted, by the Arabs, into *Kubti*, or *Kibti*, pronounced *Gubti*, or *Gybti*, by the Egyptians. The Jacobites, who were exclusively of pure Egyptian blood, and far more numerous than their adversaries, the Melkites (Greeks in faith as well as origin), having been persecuted as heretics by the Greek emperor, were willing to submit to the arms of Amru-Ibn el-âás, the Arabian commander, who granted to them immunities which they had not previously possessed, and protected their church from the encroachments of the Constantinopolitan see. But the Copts soon found that their privileges would be

of little avail under oppressive or fanatical princes. Their wealth, numbers and respectability rapidly declined; and, though rarely intermarrying with their conquerors, and preserving their features, manners and religion unaltered, they soon lost their language, which had resisted the influence of a Grecian court for so many ages. Their alphabetical characters, which, with a very few exceptions, were borrowed from the Greek, and probably first introduced towards the latter end of the 3d century, had contributed to preserve their language in its original form, while a desire of instructing the people had led the monks to compose many religious works in their vernacular tongue; but the poverty and ignorance, which soon sprung up from the oppression under which they labored, could not fail to cut them off from the use of such instructers, and accustom them to neglect a language which served only as an invidious distinction. In the lower, or northern provinces, it appears to have been little, if at all, spoken, as early as the 10th century, though used and studied, as a learned language, as late as the 15th century. In the Sàid, or Upper Egypt, which was less exposed to foreign influence, it prevailed much longer, and the peculiar dialect of that country was generally spoken by the people in the beginning of the 16th century. Vansleb, who was there in the latter part of the 17th century, saw the last of the Copts to whom this language could be said to be vernacular. It is an original tongue, having no distinct affinity with any other, though many Greek words have been introduced, unaltered, by Christian writers, and several terms appear to have been anciently borrowed from the Hebrew. The Coptic version of the New Testament is valuable on account of its antiquity, dating, according to several critics, as early as the 2d century, and not later than the 5th, at the lowest computation. As a relic of the ancient Egyptian, also, the Coptic language is deserving of attention; and the light which a study of the fragments written in it will throw on the history and antiquities of ancient Egypt has been clearly shown in the works of M. Quatremères and M. Champollion. In person and features, the Copts differ much from the other natives of Egypt, and are evidently a distinct race—an intermediate link in the chain which connects the Negro with the fairer tribes to the north and south of the tropics, strongly resembling the Abyssinians, who, though extremely dark, are much paler than the genuine Negroes. Dark eyes, aquiline noses and curled hair are the usual characteristics of both nations; and the mummies which have been examined show the resemblance of the modern Copts to their ancestors. (Blumenbach, in *Comment. Reg. Soc.* Göttingen, xiv, 38.) Reduced, by a long series of oppression and misrule, to a state of degradation, their number and national character have rapidly declined; so that, at the highest calculation, they do not now amount to more than between 400,000 and 500,000 souls: according to another account, their number does not exceed 80,000. They are chiefly employed as agricultural laborers. Many, in the larger cities, are engaged in manufactures and commerce, and most of the various kinds of business requiring much skill. In their hands, moreover, is the whole business of imposing and collecting the taxes. This they have managed ever since the Arabs made the conquest of Egypt. The Turks are generally ignorant, and little disposed to business. The beys and mamelukes, being taken from the class of slaves, cannot even read; and thus the care of the finances falls, almost necessarily, into the hands of the Copts, who make a mysterious science of their administration, which none can understand but themselves. They are quiet, industrious and saturnine, but are often represented, by travellers, as crafty, fraudulent and revengeful. All, however, allow that they show a capacity and disposition, which, under more favorable circumstances, would raise them to a respectable rank in the scale of civilized nations. The Coptic, of which the English Orientalist Woide has published a grammar and dictionary, has become a dead language. In modern times, however, it has been made pretty evident that the dialect of the modern Copts has much resemblance to that of their ancestors; and it has served as a key to the latter, as well as to the long hidden meaning of the hieroglyphics. The celebrated Champollion (q. v.) is said to be publishing a new grammar of the Coptic, which, within a short time, has become a highly important language. It is said that he expects to prove that Coptic is the language used in the ancient hieroglyphics. This indefatigable *savant* has also composed a Coptico-Egyptian dictionary, in three quarto volumes, comprising the three distinct dialects, viz.: the Thebaic, Memphitic and Heptanomic.

Copy comes from the Latin *copia*, abundance, because *copying* a thing is multiplying it. A copyist ought always to un-

derstand his original, whether this be a manuscript or a work of art, to avoid the numerous blunders which he will otherwise make in most cases in which copying is required. In ancient times, when the art of writing was less improved than it is at present, and, at the same time, the art of printing was not in existence in Europe, good copyists were much esteemed. With the Romans, they were slaves, and commanded very high prices. In the middle ages, when learning had fled from the world into the convents, the monks were busily engaged in copying the manuscripts of the ancient classics, and others of a later date; but very often they did not understand what they wrote, or did their work carelessly, because copying was often imposed upon them as a penance; so that great labor has been subsequently spent in correcting the errors of the manuscripts of the middle ages. At the time when copying was the only means of multiplying books, their price was, of course, very great; and this was the case even with common books, as the breviary. In the fine arts, much more talent is necessary to produce an exact copy of a masterpiece than is at first supposed. Without a reproduction of the original, in the mind of the copyist, his imitation cannot be perfect. He must have the power to conceive, and transfer to his own canvass, the living spirit of the piece before him. What an immense difference there is between the copy of an artist of genius and the literal exactness of a Chinese! This consideration leads us a step further, to the misconception of the character of painting and sculpture, which would confine the artist to a strict imitation of particular objects in nature. If this were the great aim of the arts, any view of a market would be better than a Teniers, and any landscape superior to a painting of Claude Lorraine. It is true that a cat so painted as to be hardly distinguishable from the living animal, or a drop of water which we try to wipe away, call forth our praise of the artist's skill; but they are only studies. It is the life which breathes throughout nature, and (in the higher branches of the fine arts) the ideals at which nature herself aims, which the artist must be able to conceive and to exhibit. It is with the above arts as with the drama. A drama would be an extremely dull, poor, and perhaps vulgar production, if all we could say of it were, that it is an exact copy of certain particular occurrences. As copies of the great works of art may convey, to a considerable degree, the same pleasure as the originals, it were to be wished that great sculptors would copy their own works, as Thorwaldsen did his beautiful Triumph of Alexander. The copy is on a reduced scale, and in *terra cotta.*

Copying Machines. The most convenient mode of multiplying copies of a writing is by lithography, and this mode is much used by merchants and others in preparing circulars; also in the different departments of government. In Mr. Hawkins's polygraph, two or more pens are so connected as to execute, at once, two or more copies. Mr. Watt's copying machine is a press, in which moistened bibulous paper is forced into close contact with freshly written manuscript. The writing is, of course, reversed, but, the paper being thin, the characters can be read on the opposite side. Doctor Franklin used to cover writing, while moist, with fine powdered emery, and pass the sheet through a press in contact with a plate of pewter or copper, which thus became sufficiently marked to yield impressions, as in the common mode of copperplate printing.

Copyright denotes the property which an author has in his literary works, or which any other person has acquired by purchase, and which consists of an exclusive right of publication. In some countries, in Europe, this right is perpetual; in others, as in England, France and the U. States, it is for a limited period. In England, the first legislative proceeding on the subject was the licensing act of 1662, which prohibited the publication of any book unless licensed by the lord chamberlain, and entered in the register of the stationers' company, in which was entered the title of every new book, the name of the proprietor, &c. This and some subsequent acts being repealed in 1691, the owner of a copyright was left to the protection of the common law, by which he could only recover to the extent of the damage proved, in case of its infringement. New applications were therefore made to parliament, and, in 1709, a statute was passed (8 Anne, 19), by which the owner of a copyright was required to deliver a copy of his book to each of nine public libraries, and severe penalties were provided for guarding the property of copyright against intruders for 14 years, and no longer. The delivery of nine copies is often a heavy tax, and was, for some time, evaded by publishers; but, in 1811, the university of Cambridge brought an action to enforce the delivery, and obtained a verdict; and, in 1814, an act was

passed confirming this claim on the part of the libraries. Notwithstanding the statute of Anne, it was, for some time, the prevailing opinion, in England, that authors had a permanent, exclusive copyright, at common law; and, in fact, it was decided, in 1769, by the court of king's bench, in the celebrated case of Millar *vs.* Taylor (4 Burr. 2303), that an author had a common law right in perpetuity, independent of the statute, to the exclusive printing and publishing of his original compositions. The court were not unanimous in this case. Lord Mansfield and two other judges were in favor of the permanency of copyright, in which they were confirmed by judge Blackstone: the fourth judge, Yates, maintained that the words of the statute were a limitation. A subsequent decision of the house of lords (1774) settled the question against the king's bench, by establishing that the common law right of action, if any existed, could not be exercised beyond the time limited by the statute of Anne; and that the exclusive right should last only 14 years, with a contingent renewal for an equal term, if the author happened to be alive at the end of the first period. The law continued on this footing till 1814, when the right was extended to 28 years, by rendering the last 14 years certain, instead of leaving them contingent; and, if the author were living at the end of that period, to the residue of his life. In the U. States, the jurisdiction of this subject is vested in the federal government, by the constitution (art. 1, sec. 8), which declares that congress shall have power "to promote the progress of science and useful arts, by securing, for limited times, to authors and inventors, the exclusive right to their respective writings and discoveries." By the acts of congress of May 31, 1790 (ch. 15), and April 29, 1802 (ch. 36), the authors of maps, charts, books, engravings, etchings, &c., being citizens of the U. States, or resident therein, are entitled to the exclusive right of publishing for 14 years, and, if the author be living at the end of that period, for an additional term of 14 years. The English law does not distinguish between resident and non-resident aliens, like the American law. In France, the law of copyright is founded on the law of 1793, which gave to authors a right in their works for life, and to their heirs for 10 years after their deaths. The decree of 1810 gave the right to the author for life, and to his wife, if she should survive him, for her life, and to their children for 20 years. A work, already published in a foreign country, may be published in France without the consent of the author. There is a disposition in France to enlarge the term of copyright; and propositions have been made, within a few years, to extend it to the legal representatives of the author for 50 years after his death. In Germany, the laws respecting copyright vary in the different countries; but, in general, there is no fixed time. The copyright is almost always given for the lifetime of the author. But the diet of the Germanic confederation has not, as yet, succeeded in agreeing upon a general law, and an author's works may be printed in any of the states in which he has not taken out a copyright. Austria is famous for piratical, incorrect, cheap editions; the government seeming to calculate according to the old maxim of political economy—if the book is pirated there, the cost of it does not go out of the country. There is one check, however, against pirated editions, viz., the Leipsic book-fair (q. v.), where the German booksellers meet to settle their mutual accounts, and where no member of the community would like to appear in the character of a piratical publisher. A copyright may exist in a translation, or in part of a work (as in notes or additional matter), with an exclusive right to the whole; but a *bona fide* abridgment of a book is not considered, in England and the U. States, a violation of the original copyright. So a person may use fair quotation, if, by its application, he makes it a part of his own work; but cannot take the whole, or a large part of a work, under the pretence of quotation. If an encyclopædia or review copies so much of a book as to serve as a substitute for it, it becomes liable to an action for a violation of property. An encyclopædia must not be allowed, by its transcripts, to sweep up all modern works. In Germany, abridgments are not protected as they are by the laws of England and the U. States, which tend greatly to the prejudice of the authors of original works, who are liable to have the most valuable fruits of their toils given to the public in the shape best fitted to command a rapid sale, for the benefit of others, while the original works are comparatively excluded from the market. Washington Irving, it is well known, was compelled to prepare an abridgment himself of his Life of Columbus, for his own protection. The time for which a copyright is allowed, in the U. States, is very short. It would seem but just to allow a man the exclusive property in his own book during his life, and even

to extend the same, for a given period, to his heirs, in certain cases; for the most valuable books are, in many cases, those which have the slowest sale. For a novel, which is forgotten within six months from its appearance, the term of copyright may be sufficiently long; but for a standard work in history or science, it is often much too short. While on the subject of the protection afforded to literary productions originating in the U. States, we may be permitted to remark on the expediency of removing all obstacles in the way of the introduction of the literature of other countries. With the exception of American books printed abroad, there seems to be no good reason for subjecting imported books to the payment of duties. In a government, the foundation of which is the intelligence of the people, it does not seem advisable to throw this obstacle in the way of intellectual improvement, for the sake of the very small accession of revenue thereby gained. The sums which have been paid for copyrights have varied with the nature of the work, the reputation of the author, and the liberality of the publisher. An original work, the author of which is unknown, and the success of which must depend on the taste and talents of the writer, and the taste and wants of the age, will stand little chance; while a book, suited to the market, for which the publisher can calculate the demand, may command a liberal price. A compilation or a dictionary may succeed, where the poems of a Milton, the philosophy of a Hume, or the histories of a Robertson could find no encouragement. Châteaubriand received for his complete works, from the bookseller L'Avocat, half a million of francs. Moore has a life annuity of £500 for his Irish Melodies. Sir Walter Scott received, in 1815, for his 3 last poems, 3000 guineas apiece. Campbell received for his Pleasures of Hope, after it had been published 15 years, 1000 guineas; for his Gertrude, after having been published 6 years, 1500 guineas. Byron received for the fourth canto of Childe Harold, £2100. Cowper's poems, in 1815, though the copyright had only 2 years to run, were sold for 8000 guineas. Cotta, a German bookseller, is said to have given Göthe, for his complete works, 30,000 crowns. In England, large sums are paid for books which promise a rapid sale: the same is true, in a less degree, of France and the U. States. Germany and Italy remunerate authors very poorly, only a few instances, such as Göthe, excepted. In Spain, the book-trade has been so crushed by a merciless censorship, that an author must publish his books, in that country, on his own account. For a long time after the art of printing was invented, no remuneration was paid to authors.

Coquetry; an undue manifestation, on the part of a woman, of a desire to attract admirers. The wish of woman to please gives rise to much that is amiable in the female character, and delightful in the intercourse of good society, and is blamable only when it is carried so far as to overstep delicacy. Its degrees are very different, and, in a French woman particularly, it is often united with much that is graceful and amiable. That which is nurtured by the system of the English boarding-schools has fewer redeeming qualities. It received its name in France. We learn from madame Scudery's *Histoire de Coquetterie*, which is to be found in the 2d volume of her *Nouvelles Conversations*, that this word was first introduced into the French language in the time of Catharine de Medici.

Coquimbo, or Serena; a jurisdiction in Chile. The fertility and beauty of the country have induced many families to reside here. The country produces corn enough to supply annually 4 or 5 vessels, of 400 tons each, for Lima. There are many mines of gold and silver.

Coquimbo; capital of a jurisdiction in Chile, the second town founded by Valdivia, about a quarter of a league from the sea, on a river of the same name; 10 miles S. W. of Rioja; lon. 71° 19′ W.; lat. 29° 55′ S. The population consists of Spaniards and people of color, with some Indians. The harbor is accounted one of the best on the west coast of South America, and is much frequented. The streets are built in a line from north to south, and east to west; well watered, and shaded with fig-trees, palms, oranges, olives, &c., always green. The number of houses is between 3 and 400.

Coral (*coralium*, Lat.; κοράλλιον, Gr.), in gem sculpture; a marine zoophyte that becomes, after removal from the water, as hard as a stone, of a fine red color, and will take a good polish. Coral is much used by gem sculptors for small ornaments, but is not so susceptible of receiving the finer execution of a gem as the hard and precious stones. Caylus has published an antique head of Medusa, sculptured in coral, of which the eyes are composed of a white substance resembling shells, incrusted or let in. He supposes it to have been an amulet, because the ancients, who were partial to a mystical anal-

ogy between the substance and the subject represented (see *Allegory*), supposed, as Ovid relates in his Metamorphoses, that Perseus, after having cut off the head of Medusa, concealed it under some plants of coral, which instantly became petrified, and tinged with the color of the blood which flowed from it, and from a green turned to a red color. Pliny and other ancient authors attribute many superstitious qualities to the coral; therefore it is no wonder that it was often taken for an amulet. Pliny also relates that the Gauls, and the people inhabiting the maritime parts of Italy, as well as other nations on the sea-coast, used it to form ornaments for their armor and household furniture.

Coran. (See *Koran.*)

Coray, Adamantios; a learned physician and scholar, born at Scio, or Chios, in 1748. After having studied the ancient and modern languages, and translated, while a boy, a German catechism into Greek, he went, in 1782, to Montpellier, to finish his education, where he studied medicine and natural history, and received the degree of doctor. In 1788, he settled in Paris. Since he has been naturalized in France, he has greatly contributed, by his learned works, to give a favorable opinion of the progress of improvement among the modern Greeks. He has always retained a great attachment to his native country; and we owe to him several excellent accounts of the intellectual progress of his countrymen. During the youth of Coray, a fondness for learning was revived among the modern Greeks by some ecclesiastics, who translated valuable books of instruction, principally from the German, and made them their text-books in their schools upon mount Athos. The wealth of several Greek commercial houses made them feel the want of skilful book-keepers and clerks, and they were desirous of taking them from among their own countrymen. Moreover, the Russian armies had destroyed the illusion of the invincible power of the sublime Porte, and the Greeks, being protected in their property by the influence of the Russian consuls, became active and industrious, and the knowledge which they gained by commerce with other nations helped to eradicate the superstitions and prejudices which had grown up in the long darkness of Turkish despotism. Coray has referred to these favorable circumstances which attended the time of his education, in his *Mémoire sur l'État actuel de la Civilisation dans la Grèce lu à la Société des Observateurs de l'Homme*, in 1803; and has offered, in his preface to a translation of Hippocrates upon Climate, Water and Locality, an apology for his nation. This, together with his preface to Ælian's *Historical Memorabilia*, in the Hellenic Library, in which he gives a history of the modern Greek language, belongs to the pieces called forth by the exaggerated praise and censure which his views have received. The improvement which Coray has given to the modern Greek language has by no means been universally acknowledged. He has chosen a style borrowed from every century, and deviating much from the style of the people, and the language of the patriarchs and Byzantines of latter times. H. Codrika, professor of Greek grammar and modern literature at a lyceum in Paris, has attacked him violently in several publications, asserting that his style is artificial, and has but little effect upon his nation. The imitators of his style are called *Coraists*. The critical editions which Coray has published of the ancient authors cannot be entirely trusted, for he often makes very bold alterations. They are, however, very useful for his own countrymen. They have been published in Paris since 1806, under the general title of *Hellenic Library*, embracing chiefly Ælian's various histories, Polyænus, Æsop, Isocrates, Plutarch's Lives, Strabo, Aristotle's Politics, &c. This venerable old man lives in Paris, devoted to literary labors, and has never answered the writings directed against him, satisfied with the respect that is continually paid him by many of his countrymen. A marble statue of him, executed by Canova, stands in the lecture-room at Chios. His old age has prevented him from joining in the struggle of his nation against their oppressors. The warmth and sincerity of his good wishes in their cause may be seen from his excellent introduction to Aristotle, which has been translated into German.

Corban (from the Hebrew *karab*, to approach). In the Scriptures, this word signifies an offering to the Lord. Jesus is represented as using this word in Mark vii. 11.

Corbière, James Joseph William Peter, one of the most active and obnoxious members of the Villèle ministry, born in the department Ille-et-Vilaine, was, in 1815 member of the *chambre introuvable.* (q. v.) He was the reporter of the law of amnesty (so called) of Jan. 12, 1816, and of the law of divorce. He was much opposed to the ministry of Decaze, and has at times assumed some liberality of

tone, with a view of resisting the ministers; but, substantially, he has ever been a violent royalist. In 1820, Corbière was appointed *chef de l'instruction publique*, and, Dec. 14, 1820, minister of the interior, was afterwards made a count, and loaded with orders, &c. As soon as he was installed, he put in execution the great system of purification (*système d'épuration*), mercilessly discharging every officer, from the *maire* to the lowest clerk, who did not entirely coincide with him in political sentiment, or ventured to show character and independence. Teachers were dismissed from the colleges on the ground of not being sufficiently religious. M. Corbière declared that all schools ought to receive a more religious character: the *écoles Chretiennes* were augmented, and those of mutual instruction were attacked by the ministerial papers. Corbière, who always had defended the liberty of the press before he became a minister, now subjected it to the most revolting censorship. He, who had once supported the law of Feb. 5, *pour rétablir les électeurs dans tous leurs droits, et de leur éviter les supercheries ministérielles*, now actively aided his colleagues, Villèle and Peyronnet, in rendering the elections subservient to ministerial influence. To complete his glory, after the dismission of so many eminent men, Corbière countersigned the ordinance dissolving the national guards. He fell with the Villèle ministry in 1829.

Corday d'Armans, Marie Anne Charlotte, the murderer of Marat, was born at Saint Saturnin, near Seez, in Normandy, in the year 1768. With the charms of her sex she united a rare courage. Her lover, an officer in the garrison at Caen, was accused by Marat as a conspirator against the republic, and assassinated by villains hired for that purpose. This excited Charlotte Corday to revenge. History had inspired her with a deep-rooted hatred against all oppressors, and she determined to free her country from Marat, whom she considered as the head of those monsters called *buveurs de sang* (the drinkers of blood). Another motive confirmed her purpose. Many deputies, such as Barbaroux, Louvet, Gaudet, and others, who were persecuted by Marat, and afterwards proscribed, May 31, 1793, to whose opinions she had attached herself, invoked the assistance of Frenchmen in behalf of liberty, now expiring beneath the horrors of the times. Charlotte then left home, entered Paris July 12, 1793, and went twice to Marat's house, but was not admitted. On the same evening, she wrote to him as follows: "Citizen, I have just now come from Caen. Your love for your country, no doubt makes you desirous of being informed of the unhappy transactions in that part of the republic. Grant me an interview for a moment. I have important discoveries to make to you." The following day came, and, with a dagger in her bosom, she proceeded to the house of Marat, who, just on the point of coming out of his bath, immediately gave orders that she should be admitted. The assemblies at Calvados were the first subjects of conversation, and Marat heard with eagerness the names of those who were present at them. "All these," he exclaimed, "shall be guillotined." At these words, Charlotte plunged her dagger into his bosom, and he immediately expired, with the words, "To me, my friend?" Meanwhile the maid remained calm and tranquil as the priestess before the altar, in the midst of the tumult and confusion. She was afterwards conducted as a prisoner to the *Abbaye*. A young man, who begged to die in her place, was also condemned to death. Her first care was to implore the forgiveness of her father for disposing of her life without his knowledge. She then wrote to Barbaroux as follows: "To-morrow, at 5 o'clock, my trial begins, and on the same day I hope to meet with Brutus and the other patriots in elysium." She appeared before the revolutionary tribunal with a dignified air, and her replies were firm and noble. She spoke of her deed as a duty which she owed her country. Her defender (Chaveau-Lagarde), full of astonishment at such courage, cried out, "You hear the accused herself! She confesses her crime; she admits that she has coolly reflected upon it; she conceals no circumstance of it; and she wishes for no defence. This unshaken calmness, this total abandonment of herself, these appearances of the utmost internal tranquillity, are not natural! Such appearances are to be explained only by political fanaticism, which armed her hand with the dagger. To you then, gentlemen of the jury, it belongs to judge of what weight this moral view may be in the scale of justice!" His words could make no impression on the minds of the judges. After her condemnation, she thanked her defender with these words: "I would willingly give you some token of the esteem with which you have inspired me. These gentlemen, however, have just informed me that my property is forfeited; but I have incurred some small debts during my imprisonment, and I hereby transfer

the obligation to you." She was conducted to the scaffold in a red mantle, and passed, with a smiling countenance, through the crowd by whom she was pursued with shouts of execration. She retained her presence of mind to the last. A voice from the multitude exclaimed, "She is greater than Brutus!" It was Adam Lux, a deputy from the city of Mentz, who, fired with admiration, wrote to the tribunal, requesting to die like Charlotte Corday. She was guillotined July 17, 1793.—Modern history presents many similar instances of individuals who have been driven, by a sense of duty operating on an excited imagination, to attempt the lives of important men. Sand, the murderer of Kotzebue, Louvel, who killed the duke de Berri, Staps, who attempted the life of Napoleon, and Löhning, a German student who attempted to destroy a political leader in Nassau, were all actuated by this motive, which has been, in late times, much oftener the occasion of such attempts than the desire of personal vengeance.

Cordeliers. This word originally signified an order of Franciscan monks: secondly, a society of Jacobins, from 1792 to 1794, were so called from their place of meeting. These were distinguished by the violence of their speeches and conduct. In this club of the Cordeliers, Marat and André soon began to raise their voices. The talents of Danton also procured it some reputation; and Camille-Desmoulins published a journal under the name of *The Old Cordeliers*, in which he at last took the field against the ultra-revolutionists, and endeavored to unmask the notorious Hébert and his associates. But when he was afterwards imprisoned and executed, with Danton, the society sunk, and, even before the abolition of the Jacobin clubs, fell into total oblivion.

Cordilleras. (See *Andes* and *Mexico*.)

Cordon, in a military sense; troops so disposed as to preserve an uninterrupted line of communication, to protect a country either from hostile invasion or from contagious diseases. In the first case, it answers its purpose badly, according to the new system of the military art, because a line which is far extended can be easily broken through by an enemy, and is not capable of an obstinate resistance.

Cordova, on the Guadalquivir; an ancient and celebrated town in Lower Andalusia, capital of a province of the same name, which was formerly a small Moorish kingdom. It contains about 35,000 inhabitants, and lies in 37° 52′ 13″ N. lat. It is built on the gentle declivity of a chain of mountains, forms an oblong quadrangle, and is surrounded with walls and lofty towers. A part of the town is of Roman, a part of Moorish origin; many of the buildings are in ruins, and a number of gardens occupy a great part of the inhabited space. The streets are narrow, crooked and dirty; the *plaza mayor*, the principal market-place, however, is distinguished for its size, its regularity, and the beauty of the colonnade by which it is surrounded. The remains of the residence of the Moorish kings now form a part of the archbishop's palace. The cathedral is a splendid building, originally a mosque, erected in the 7th century, by king Abderahman, strikingly ornamented with rows of cupolas, partly octagonal and partly round, which are supported by 850 pillars of jasper and marble, forming 19 colonnades. The bridge over the river rests on 16 arches. Cordova has always carried on considerable trade; and, even under the Moors, the leather exclusively manufactured there (cordovan) was exported in all directions. At what period the Romans laid the foundation of the town (*Colonia Patricia*, afterwards *Corduba*) is not known. In 572, it was conquered by the Goths, and, in 692, by the Moorish chief Abderahman, who afterwards renounced his allegiance to the caliph of Damascus, and made Cordova his royal residence.—The province of Cordova (3940 square miles, with 259,000 inhabitants) includes the fertile and beautiful valley of the Guadalquivir and the mountains of Sierra Morena, a part of which are constantly covered with snow.

Cordova; a province of Buenos Ayres, about 100 leagues in length and 70 in breadth, crossed by several chains of mountains, and watered by several rivers. The principal town is called by the same name, besides which there are some towns and villages. The inhabitants feed a great number of cattle and horses, which form their principal trade. Serpents are numerous: some of them are of an amazing size, and exceedingly dangerous; others are harmless. This province is but little known.

Cordova; a town of Buenos Ayres, and capital of the province of Tucuman, founded in 1550, by Nuñez Prado, and, about 20 years after, erected into a bishopric; 450 miles, by the common road, N. N. W. Buenos Ayres; lon. 65° 10′ W.; lat. 31° 20′ S.; population, according to Mr. Bland, about 10,000. It contains about 1500 Spanish inhabitants, with

about 4000 Negroes. It has a handsome cathedral and a spacious market-place. The college formerly belonging to the Jesuits is a large edifice, now appropriated to public purposes. The adjacent country is fruitful, abounding in excellent pasture.

Cordova, José M., accompanied the liberating army sent to Peru by Colombia, and commanded a division at the battle of Ayacucho. (q. v.) He was known as a meritorious officer during the whole period of the contest, after the year 1819 until its conclusion, but was particularly distinguished at Ayacucho, where his gallantry greatly contributed to the success of the patriots. Dismounting, and standing in front of his division, general Cordova ordered them to advance to the charge, with the emphatic exhortation, "*Adelante, paso de vencedores.*" Although the Spaniards prepared to receive his attack with a show of confidence, they could not withstand the onset. General Cordova received much praise for his conduct on this occasion, and was promoted on the field to the rank of general of division, at the age of 25 years. As general in chief, he remained with the auxiliary Colombian army in Bolivia. He continued in Upper Peru until 1827, when he returned to Colombia. In the changes which took place in the government of Colombia, in 1828, general Cordova took the part of Bolivar, and, in Sept., was made secretary of the department of war, and a member of the council of ministers. In Sept., 1829, after Bolivar had received almost unlimited power (see *Colombia*), Cordova set up the standard of revolt in Antioquia, but did not receive much support. He was attacked, Nov. 17, by general O'Leary, and slain, with almost all his adherents, 200 in number, after a desperate defence.

Cordovan; a fine leather, which took its name from the city of Cordova, where it was manufactured in large quantities. Much is now made in the Barbary states.

Corea; a kingdom of Asia, bounded N. by Chinese Tartary, E. by the sea of Japan, S. by a narrow sea, which parts it from the Japanese islands, and W. by the Yellow sea, which parts it from China; about 500 miles from N. to S., and 150 from E. to W.; between lat. 34° 16′ and 43° N., and lon. 124° 32′ and 130° 30′ E. It is a peninsula, being every where surrounded by the sea, except towards the north. This country consists of 8 provinces, in which are found 40 grand cities, called *kiun*; 33 of the first rank, called *fou*; 58 *tcheous*, or cities of the second rank; and 70 of the third, called *hien*; besides a great number of fortresses well garrisoned. The north part of Corea is barren, woody and mountainous, infested with wild beasts, and but thinly inhabited; but the southern division is rich and fertile, breeds great numbers of large and small cattle, besides fowl, wild and tame, and a great variety of game; it likewise produces silk, flax and cotton. The king of Corea pays an annual tribute to China, but in the interior administration is independent. The prevailing religion is that of Fo or Buddha. Population vaguely estimated at 6 or 8,000,000; square miles, about 88,000. Kingki-tao is the capital.

Corelli, Arcangelo, a celebrated performer on the violin, was born at Fusignano, in the territory of Bologna, in the year 1653, and was instructed in church music by Matteo Simonelli, a singer at St. Peter's in Rome, and in profane music by Bassano of Bologna. In the year 1706, he travelled into Germany, and was in the service of the elector of Bavaria during five years, after which he returned into his own country. He performed on the violin with great judgment and an incredible degree of accuracy. His execution was peculiarly characteristic, full of spirit and expression, and his tone was firm and uniform. Cardinal Ottoboni was his patron at Rome. Corelli formed and conducted, according to the original plan of Crescentini, the celebrated musical academy which met at the palace of the cardinal every Monday. By his sonatas on the violin, and by his concerts, he may be considered, as it were, the creator of a new species of harmony, especially for his own instrument. He died in 1713, and, besides a considerable fortune, left behind him a valuable collection of paintings, which became the property of cardinal Ottoboni. He was buried in the Pantheon.

Corfu (anciently *Drepanum*, then *Scheria*, and at last, *Corcyra*); an island in the Mediterranean, at the mouth of the Adriatic, near the coast of Albania; about 45 miles long, and from 15 to 20 wide; lon. 20° 20′ E.; lat. 39° 40′ N.; population, 60,000; square miles, 229. The climate is mild, but variable, the air healthy, the land fertile, and the fruit excellent. Oranges, citrons, the most delicious grapes, honey, wax and oil are exceedingly abundant. Some parts are mountainous and barren, and good water is scarce. Salt forms a great part of its riches. The cap-

ital has always borne the name of the island. Towards the end of the 14th century, it came into the power of the Venetians. It was afterwards taken by the French, and ceded to them by the treaty of Campo-Formio, in 1797. In March, 1799, it was taken from them by the Russians and Turks, and united with Cephalonia, Zante, &c., to form a republic, under the denomination of the *Seven Islands.* (See *Ionian Islands.*) Homer, in the Odyssey, describes the beauty of this island of the Phæacians, celebrating the climate and the gardens of Alcinoüs.

Corfu (anciently *Corcyra*); capital of the island of the same name; lon. 20° 17′ E.; lat. 39° 40′ N.; population, 15,000; the see of an archbishop. It is the seat of government of the Ionian Islands, is fortified, and defended by 2 fortresses; and has a good harbor and considerable trade. In 1818, a university was established here, under the auspices of the British government, by the earl of Guilford, who was appointed chancellor, and nominated Greeks of the first abilities to the different chairs. The number of students soon amounted to 150.

Coriander (*coriandrum sativum*, Linn.); an annual plant, native of Italy, and cultivated in other parts of Europe. The seed has, when fresh, a very unpleasant smell, like that of bed-bugs. It is, on the contrary, very agreeable and aromatic when dry. It acts in the same manner as aniseed, &c., and enters into several officinal compounds. Its infusion is occasionally employed as a sudorific. It is used, likewise, as a corrective of certain purgatives.

Corilla. (See *Improvisation.*)

Corinna; called the *lyric muse;* a poetess of Tanagra, in Bœotia, contemporary with Pindar, whom she is said to have conquered five times in musical contests, and therefore her image, crowned with the chaplet of victory, was placed in the gymnasium of Tanagra. According to Pausanias, who relates this fact, she was so beautiful that her charms may have influenced, in some degree, the opinion of the judges. It is probably owing to the tenderness and softness of her songs, that she received the surname of the *fly.* Sappho and Erinna were each called the *bee.* Of the numerous poems which the ancients ascribed to her, only a few fragments have come down to us. In Creuzer's *Meletem. e Disc. antiquit.*, vol. 2, p. 10 et seq., Welker has collected the accounts relating to her, and critically commented on them.—Madame de Staël has given the name of *Corinna* to the heroine of one of the most beautiful novels of our age; a work which exhibits, perhaps, more than any of her other productions, the extraordinary talents of this distinguished woman.

Corinth, a celebrated city upon the isthmus of the same name, which unites the Morea with Livadia, lat. 37° 53′ 37″ N., lon. 22° 24′ 5″ E., the inhabitants of which, some years ago, amounted to about 2000; but it has been taken and retaken several times during the late revolution, and the editor found it, in 1821, with hardly any occupants except soldiers. The houses were mostly torn down; and of the 13 columns of the temple, mentioned by Dodwell and several travellers before him, he found but 8. Only a few ruins remain to attest the magnificence of the ancient city; but much might, undoubtedly, be obtained by excavation. Capitals and bass-reliefs are found, in great numbers, in the houses of the bey and other Turks formerly residing here; the latter, however, are put to the use of ordinary pieces of marble, having the figured side turned inwards. The northern harbor, Lochæon, on the gulf of Corinth, is choked with sand, as is likewise the eastern harbor, Cenchrea, on the Saronic gulf. Of the shallow harbor Schœnos, on the north of the city, where was a quay in ancient times, there hardly remains a trace. All these harbors are now morasses, and corrupt the air of the city. The mosques and churches, and the palaces formerly belonging to Turks of high rank, are built partly out of the ruins of the ancient city. The Turks did nothing for the city or the harbors; they only paid a little attention to the Acrocorinthus. (q. v.) Corinth derived, in ancient times, great advantages from its situation on the isthmus, between two bays, belonging to what may be called two different seas, if we consider the poor state of navigation in ancient times; and a great exchange of Asiatic and Italian goods took place there. The duty paid on these goods afforded a great revenue to the state; and the citizens accumulated such wealth, that Corinth became one of the most magnificent, but, at the same time, most voluptuous cities of Greece. Venus was the goddess of the city, and courtesans were her priestesses, to whom recourse was often had, that they might implore the protection of the goddess in times of public danger; and a certain number of new priestesses were consecrated to her at the commencement of important enterprises Laïs (q. v.) and several other females of

the same profession were distinguished by their great accomplishments and beauty, and the high price which they set on their charms; hence the old proverb, *Non cuivis homini licet adire Corinthum.* The virtuous women celebrated a feast to Venus apart from the others. The famous Sisyphus was the founder of Corinth. His family was succeeded by the Heraclides (who were dethroned after several centuries), and the government intrusted to 200 citizens, called *Bacchiades.* Heeren thinks that they were, at least several of them, merchants. To this oligarchy followed a monarchical form of government, which was succeeded by a constitution approaching nearer to oligarchy than to democracy. In the sequel, Corinth became the head of the Achæan league, and was conquered and destroyed by the consul Mummius, 146 B. C. Julius Cæsar, 24 years later, rebuilt it; but its commerce could not be restored: the productions of the East now took the road to Rome. St. Paul lived here a year and a half. The Venetians received the place from a Greek emperor; Mohammed II took it from them in 1458; the Venetians recovered it in 1687, and fortified the Acrocorinthus again; but the Turks took it anew in 1715, and retained it until the late revolution of the Greeks, during which it was the seat of the *soi-disant* Greek government. Against any enemy invading the Morea from the north, Corinth is of the highest military importance. It is described at some length in the editor's Journal of his stay in Greece, in 1822 (Leipsic, 1823). The situation of Corinth is one of the most charming that can be imagined, surrounded as it is by the beauties of nature and the charms of poetic and historical associations. The Acrocorinthus, on its picturesque and beautiful cone, seems like an observatory for surveying the whole field of Grecian glory. The waters of two bays wash the olive groves, which border the city; and from every hill in it, you can survey the noble Helicon and Parnassus, or let your eye wander over the isthmus, where, in happier ages, the Isthmian games were celebrated, even to the mountains and shores of Megara and Attica. Nero began to dig a canal through the isthmus, but his successors were ashamed to complete a work which had been undertaken by such a monster, though it happened to be a good one. The luxury of ancient Corinth was greater than that of any other place in Greece. At the court of the Byzantine emperors, there were officers called *Corinthiarii*, who were keepers of the ornaments and furniture of the palace.—A certain mixture of various metals was called *Corinthian brass*, and was very dear. The story that it had its origin in the accidental melting together of different metals at the time of the conflagration of Corinth, when taken by Mummius, is a fable, the brass having been in use long before. (For further information on the political history of Corinth, see *Timoleon.*)

Corinthian, with some of the earlier English writers, was used to signify a person of a loose, licentious character, in allusion to the voluptuous and corrupt state of society in ancient Corinth. (q. v.) It has very recently been applied to express a person in high life, and of fashionable manners. This usage is drawn from the Corinthian capital in architecture, which is distinguished for its elegance and ornament. The latter usage, particularly when it is applied to a lady, is rather offensive to the ear of one familiar with the older application.

Corinthian Order. (See *Architecture*, and *Order.*)

Coriolanus; the name given to an ancient Roman, Caius Marcius, because the city of Corioli, the capital of the kingdom of the Volsci, was taken almost solely by his exertions. His valor in the victory over the Antiates was rewarded by the consul Cominius with a golden chain. Coriolanus, however, lost his popularity when, during the famine which prevailed in Rome 491 B. C., he placed himself at the head of the patricians, in order to deprive the plebeians of their hard-earned privileges, and even made the proposition to distribute the provisions obtained from Sicily among them only on condition that they would agree that the tribuneship should be abolished. Enraged at this, the tribunes commanded him to be brought before them; and, when he did not appear, they endeavored to seize his person, and, failing in this attempt, condemned him to be thrown from the Tarpeian rock. But the patricians rescued him; and it was finally determined that his cause should be brought before the tribunal of the whole people. Coriolanus appeared, and made answer to the complaints alleged against him by the tribunes (who accused him of tyranny, and of endeavoring to introduce a regal government), by the simple narration of his exploits, and his services towards his country. He showed the scars on his breast, and the whole multitude were affected even to tears. But, notwithstanding all this, he was unable to repel

the accusations against him, particularly that of distributing the spoils of war among the soldiers, instead of delivering them to the questors, as the laws of Rome required; and the tribunes were enabled to procure his banishment. Coriolanus now resolved to revenge himself upon his country, and immediately went to the Volsci, the bitterest enemies of Rome, and prevailed upon them to go to war with her before the expiration of the truce. He himself was joined with Attius in the command of their army, which immediately made itself master of the cities of Latium. The Volscian camp was pitched in sight of Rome before troops could be raised for the defence of the city. The envoys sent by the senate returned with the answer, that Rome could purchase peace only by the surrender of the territory taken from the Volsci. A second embassy was of no more avail; and at length, the priests and augurs having returned equally unsuccessful, the terror of the inhabitants was extreme. Valeria, the sister of Valerius Publicola, exhorted the women to try the effect of their tears on the resolution of Coriolanus. She immediately went to the house of Veturia, his mother, whom he highly honored, where she also found Volumnia, his wife, and besought both to go with the other women to make a last experiment upon the heart of the conqueror. The senate approved of this resolution, and the Roman matrons, Veturia and Volumnia with her children taking the lead, went towards the camp of Coriolanus, who, recognising his mother, his wife and his children, ordered the lictors to lower their *fasces*, and received them with tender embraces. He then urged them to leave the treacherous city, and to come to him. During this time, his mother never ceased entreating him to grant his country an honorable peace, and assured him that he never should enter the gates of Rome without passing over her dead body. At length, yielding to her entreaties, he raised her from the ground, and confessed that she had prevailed. He then withdrew his army from before Rome, and, as he was attempting to justify himself in an assembly of the Volsci, was assassinated in a tumult excited by Attius. The Roman senate caused a temple to be built to female fortune upon the place where Veturia had softened the anger of her son, and made her the first priestess.

Cork; a county of Ireland, formerly a kingdom, bounded N. by the county of Limerick, E. by the counties of Tipperary and Waterford, S. S. E. and S. W. by the sea, and W. by the county of Kerry; 99 English miles in length and 71 in breadth. The land is generally good. The principal towns are Cork, Kinsale, Youghal, Mallow, Donneraile and Bandon-bridge. Population stated, in 1813, at 523,936; by census, in 1821, 702,000. It is now above 730,000.

Cork; a city of Ireland, capital of the county of Cork, 162 miles S. W. Dublin; lon. 8° 28′ 15″ W.; lat. 51° 53′ 54″ N.; population, 100,658. It was originally built on an island formed by the river Lee, but is now greatly extended on the opposite banks of both branches of the river. It is 15 miles from the sea, and its harbor, or cove, 9 miles below the town, is celebrated for its safety and capaciousness. Its entrance, deep and narrow, is defended by a strong fort on each side. Cork is the second city in Ireland, and exports great quantities of salt provisions; and during the slaughtering season, 100,000 head of cattle are prepared. The other exports are butter, candles, soap, whiskey, hides, pork, rabbit-skins, linen, woollens, yarn, &c. Its manufactures are sail-cloth, sheeting, paper, leather, glue, glass, coarse cloth, &c. The approaches to the town were formerly two large stone bridges, to which three others have been added. The public buildings are generally of a plain exterior. The principal ones are a stately cathedral, exchange, market-house, custom-house, town-house, 2 theatres, several hospitals and churches, large barracks, &c. The Cork institution is an incorporated scientific establishment, in which lectures are delivered on chemistry, agriculture and botany. The houses of the city are generally old and not elegant. It sends two members to parliament.

Cork is the external bark of a species of oak (*quercus suber*) which grows in Spain, Portugal, and other southern parts of Europe, and is distinguished by the fungous texture of its bark, and the leaves being evergreen, oblong, somewhat oval, downy underneath, and waved. The principal supply of cork is obtained from Catalonia in Spain. In the collecting of cork, it is customary to slit it with a knife at certain distances, in a perpendicular direction from the top of the trees to the bottom; and to make two incisions across, one near the top, and the other near the bottom, of the trunk. For the purpose of stripping off the bark, a curved knife, with a handle at each end, is used. Sometimes it is stripped in pieces the

whole length, and sometimes in shorter pieces, cross cuts being made at certain intervals. In some instances, the perpendicular and transverse incisions are made, and the cork is left upon the trees, until, by the growth of the new bark beneath, it becomes sufficiently loose to be removed by the hand. After the pieces are detached, they are soaked in water, and, when nearly dry, are placed over a fire of coals, which blackens their external surface. By the latter operation, they are rendered smooth, and all the smaller blemishes are thereby concealed; the larger holes and cracks are filled up by the introduction of soot and dirt. They are next loaded with weights to make them even, and subsequently are dried and stacked, or packed in bales for exportation.—The uses of cork were well known to the ancients, and were nearly the same to which it is applied by us. Its elasticity renders it peculiarly serviceable for the stopping of vessels of different kinds, and thus preventing either the liquids therein contained from running out, or the external air from passing in. The use of cork for stopping glass bottles is generally considered to have been introduced about the 15th century. The practice of employing this substance for jackets to assist in swimming is very ancient; and it has been applied in various ways towards the preservation of life when endangered by shipwreck. The cork jacket, revived from an old German discovery by Mr. Dubourg, to preserve the lives of persons in danger of drowning, is constructed as follows:—Pieces of cork, about three inches long by two wide, and the usual thickness of the bark, are enclosed between two pieces of strong cloth or canvass, and formed like a jacket without sleeves; the pieces of cloth are sewed together round each piece of cork, to keep them in their proper situations; the lower part of the jacket, about the hips, is made like the same part of women's stays, to give freedom to the thighs in swimming; it is made sufficiently large to fit a stout man, and is secured to the body by two or three strong straps sewed far back on each side, and tied before; the strings are thus placed to enable any wearer to tighten it to his own convenience.—The floats of nets used for fishing are frequently made of cork. Pieces fastened together make buoys, which, by floating on the surface of the water, afford direction for vessels in harbors, rivers, and other places. In some parts of Spain, it is customary to line the walls of houses with cork, which renders them warm, and prevents the admission of moisture. The ancient Egyptians frequently made coffins of it. On account of its lightness, cork is used for false legs; and from its being impervious to water, it is sometimes placed between the soles of shoes, to keep out moisture. When burnt, it constitutes that light black substance known by the name of *Spanish black*. In the cutting of corks for use, the only tool employed is a very broad, thin and sharp knife; and, as the cork tends very much to blunt this, it is sharpened on a board by one whet or stroke on each side, after every cut, and now and then upon a common whetstone. The corks for bottles are cut lengthwise of the bark, and consequently the pores lie across. Bungs, and corks of large size, are cut in a contrary direction: the pores in these are therefore downward—a circumstance which renders them much more defective in stopping out the air than the others. The parings of cork are carefully kept, and sold to the makers of Spanish black.

Cormorant (a corruption of the French words *corbeau marin*); the trivial name of a genus of aquatic birds included by Linné under *pelecanus*, but properly removed thence by Brisson, to form a distinct genus, denominated *phalacrocorax*. This term is indicated by Pliny, as being the Greek name for the cormorant, though it is not employed by Aristotle, who called the bird *hydrocorax*, or sea-crow, whence the French name above-mentioned. The cormorants belong to the family *totipalmes* of Cuvier, *steganopodes*, Bonap. They are aquatic birds, having the great toe united to the others by a common membrane, and their feet are thus most admirably adapted for swimming; yet they are among the very few web-footed birds capable of perching on the branches of trees, which they do with great ease and security. The genus is distinguished by the following characters:—a moderate-sized, robust, thick, straight and compressed bill, having the upper mandible seamed, and rounded above, with the ridge distinct, unguiculated and hooked at the point, which is rather obtuse. The lower mandible is somewhat shorter, truncated at tip, osseous throughout, and furnished, at the base, with a small, naked, coriaceous membrane, which is continued on the throat. The nostrils, opening in the furrows, are basal, lateral, linear, and scarcely visible; the tongue is cartilaginous, very short, carinated above, papillous beneath, and obtuse. The occiput is very

protuberant; the face and small pouch are naked; the neck is rather short, and of moderate strength; the body is compressed. The feet are short, robust, and rather turned outwards; the legs are wholly feathered, and closely drawn towards the belly; the tarsus is naked, one third shorter than the outer toe, much compressed and carinated before and behind. The outer toe is the longest, and edged externally by a small membrane; the webbing membrane is broad, full and entire; the hind toe is half as long as the middle, and all are provided with moderate-sized, curved, broad, bluntish nails, the middle one being serrated on its inner edge, and equal to the others. The wings are moderate and slender, with stiff quills, of which the second and third primaries are longest; the tail is rounded, and composed of 12 or 14 rigid feathers.—About 15 species of cormorant are at present known, and are distributed over the whole world, engaged in the same office,—that of aiding to maintain the due balance of animal life, by consuming vast numbers of the finny tribes. Like the pelicans, to which they are closely allied in conformation and habits, the cormorants reside in considerable families near the waters whence they obtain fish. It is scarcely possible to imagine any animal better adapted to this mode of life, since they dive with great force, and swim under water with such celerity that few fish can escape them. When engaged in this chase, they not only exert their broadly-webbed feet, but ply their wings like oars, to propel their bodies forward, which, being thin and keel-shaped, offer the least degree of resistance to the water. They swim at all times low in the water, with little more than the head above the surface, and, therefore, though large birds, might easily be overlooked by one unaccustomed to their habits. Should a cormorant seize a fish in any other way than by the head, he rises to the surface, and, tossing the fish into the air, adroitly catches it head foremost as it falls, so that the fins, being properly laid against the fish's sides, cause no injury to the throat of the bird. This precaution is the more necessary, as the cormorants are very voracious feeders, and are often found not only with their stomachs crammed, but with a fish in the mouth and throat, which remains until the material below is digested, and is then passed into the stomach. When standing on shore, the cormorant appears to very little advantage, both on account of the proportions of its head, neck and body, and because of its awkward manner of keeping itself erect, being under the necessity of resting upon its rigid tail feathers. But, mounted in air, these birds are of swift and vigorous flight, and, when desirous of rest, alight upon the branches of tall trees or the summits of rocks, where they delight to spread their wings and bask for hours in the sun. They select similar situations for building their nests, though sometimes they make them upon the ground or among reeds, always rudely and with coarse materials. In them they lay three or four whitish eggs.—That the services of birds, which are such excellent fishers, should be desired by man, is by no means surprising; and we are informed that the Chinese have long trained cormorants to fish for them. This training is begun by placing a ring upon the lower part of the bird's neck, to prevent it from swallowing its prey. After a time, the cormorant learns to deliver the fish to its master without having the ring upon its neck. It is said to be a very interesting sight to observe the fishing-boats, having but one or two persons on board, and a considerable number of cormorants, which latter, at a signal given by their master, plunge into the water, and soon return, bringing a fish in their mouths, which is willingly relinquished. The male and female resemble each other in size and plumage; but the young, especially when about a year old, differ greatly from the adult birds. They change their thick, close, black plumage, or moult, twice a year, acquiring additional ornaments in winter. Four or five species of cormorants are known to be inhabitants or occasional visitors of the American continent; but, with the exception of *P. graculus*, which is very common, and breeds in Florida (though also abundant within the arctic and antarctic circles), they are rather rare, and only seen during winter in the U. States. In some parts of Europe frequented by species of the cormorant, they commit great depredations upon the fish-ponds, which are kept for the purpose of supplying the tables of the proprietors; and in Holland, they are said to be especially troublesome in this way, two or three of these greedy birds speedily clearing a pond of all its finny inhabitants. From their great voracity and entirely piscivorous regimen, it will readily be inferred that their flesh promises very little to gratify the epicure. It is so black, tough, and rankly fishy, that few persons venture upon it more than once, where

any thing else can be had. Nevertheless, naval officers, and others, condemned, by the nature of their service, to situations where they are long debarred from fresh provisions, sometimes have the cormorant served at their tables, after having taken the precaution to skin it, and endeavored, by the artifices of cookery, to disguise its peculiar flavor.

Corn; a hardened portion of cuticle, produced by pressure; so called, because a piece can be picked out like a corn of barley. Corns are generally found on the outside of the toes, but sometimes between them, on the sides of the foot, or even on the ball. They gradually penetrate deeper into the parts, and sometimes occasion extreme pain, and, from the frequency of their occurrence, hold a prominent rank among the petty miseries of mankind, and frequently exert no small influence upon the temper of individuals. A monarch's corns may affect the welfare of a nation. No part of the human body, probably, has been injured so much by our injudicious mode of dress, as the feet, which have become, in general, deformed; so much so, that sculptors and painters can hardly ever copy this part from living subjects, but depend for a good foot almost solely on the remains of ancient art. To this general deformity of the foot belong the corns, produced by the absurd forms of our shoes and boots. They appear, at first, as small, dark points in the hardened skin, and, in this state, stimulants or escharotics, as nitrate of silver (lunar caustic), are recommended. The corn is to be wet, and rubbed with a pencil of the caustic every evening. It is well to have the skin previously softened. If the corn has attained a large size, removal by cutting or by ligature will be proper; if it hangs by a small neck, it is recommended to tie a silk thread round it, which is to be tightened every day, until the corn is completely removed. In all cases of cutting corns, very great precaution is to be observed. The feet ought always to be bathed previously. Mortification has, in many instances, resulted from the neglect of this precaution, and from cutting too deep. Another simple and generally very efficacious means, is the application of a thick adhesive plaster, in the centre of which a hole has been made for the reception of the projecting part. From time to time, a plaster must be added. Thus, the surrounding parts being pressed down, the corn is often expelled, and, at all events, is prevented from enlarging. Paring with files, rubbing with fish-skin, &c., have been likewise found effective. In large cities, as London, Paris, &c., people make a business of curing corns.

Corn, Indian. (See *Maize.*)

Corn Laws. An adequate supply of bread stuffs is evidently of the very first importance to every country, and should be as regular as is possible, since sudden fluctuations in an article of so universal necessity are injurious, and scarcity, with the consequent high prices, brings distress upon the poorer classes, and is a fruitful cause of discontent and convulsions. The best means of securing a sufficient and steady supply of this article is a subject of some diversity of opinion, and the practice of governments has varied much at different times. One theory, urged by Adam Smith, but questioned by Mr. Malthus and most others, is, that the government should do absolutely nothing in the matter, on the ground that the farmers and corn-merchants, if unchecked, will always form correct views of their own interest, and that their interest will coincide with that of the community. But broad, sweeping theories of this sort are rarely adopted in the practical administration of affairs; and a government, in making regulations on this subject, as on every other, looks at its internal condition, the character and pursuits of its population, and its foreign commercial relations; and though it may not judge correctly of the best means of securing a steady and sufficient supply, this does not prove that a total neglect of the subject would be the wisest and safest policy in all countries and at all times. It is certain, however, that very unwise measures have often been resorted to, and sometimes such as tended to aggravate the evil rather than to provide a remedy. One way to guard against a scarcity is that adopted by the king of Egypt, in the time of Joseph—the purchasing of corn by the government, in time of plenty at home, or importing it from abroad, and storing it in public magazines, to be distributed as the public wants may demand. But this system is attended with great expense, and affords but an uncertain and inadequate provision. Most governments, accordingly, instead of making direct purchases, attempt to provide a remedy by the passage of laws. This subject of grain legislation is by no means entirely modern. The Athenians had laws prohibiting the exportation of corn, and requiring merchants who loaded their vessels with it in foreign ports, to bring their cargoes to Athens. The public provision and distribution of

corn was an important branch of administration at Rome, and very intimately connected with the public tranquillity. The regulation of the supply of corn and the trade in the article has been a fruitful subject of legislation in modern Europe. But it is to be observed, that the public solicitude and current of legislation take this direction only in populous countries, or at least those in which the population presses hard upon the means of domestic production of bread stuffs; for a country of which, like Poland, the staple export is corn, needs to take no measures for securing a supply; and as flour and Indian meal are great articles of exportation in the U. States, this country has had no occasion for laws to guard against a famine, since the ordinary course of industry and trade gives the greatest possible security, by producing a surplus of provisions, which a high price at home, in anticipation of any scarcity, will be sure to retain for the supply of domestic wants. In agricultural countries, the object of solicitude is to supply the want of arts and manufactures, as in populous and highly improved countries, it is to supply the want of food. But the laws directed to this object have been very various, and some of them contradictory; for as in Athens, so in England at one period, the laws prohibited the exportation of corn; whereas, at another period, and for a very long one in the latter country, a bounty was given on the exportation; and both these laws had the same object, viz. the adequate and steady supply of the article. For this purpose, the bounty is the measure undoubtedly calculated to produce the effect intended, and the permanent prohibition of exportation must aggravate the scarcity which it is intended to prevent. Such a bounty tends to stimulate a surplus production, and so to give a country, by this factitious encouragement, the same security, in respect to a supply, as results from the spontaneous course of industry and trade in Poland, the southern part of Russia, and the U. States. But the objection to the bounty is its great expense, requiring, as it does, the imposition of a tax, and, at the same time, raising the price of the article to the domestic consumer. To secure the advantages, and avoid some of the burthens of this law, Mr. Burke, in 1773, proposed the system of corn laws since adhered to in Great Britain, according to which no bounty is paid, but the exportation of corn is permitted when it is sold under a certain price in the home market. This price is determined by the average sales in certain specified places for a given time; and, when it rises above a certain other fixed price, the importation is permitted. By Mr. Burke's bill, wheat might be exported when the price was under 44 shillings the quarter, and imported when it was over 48 shillings. The home grower is, therefore, sure to be free from foreign competition at any price under 48 shillings, and this gives him confidence in pursuing this species of cultivation. The rates or prices at which exportation and importation have since been allowed, have varied, from time to time, very materially; but the principles of the laws and their effect are the same. This system is allowed by Mr. Malthus and many others, who are, in general, opposed to restrictions and encouragements of trade, to be the best system by which the home supply could be secured; and they further think, that Great Britain could not safely open its ports to a perfectly free trade in so essential an article, since the fluctuations of price and the occasional scarcity, in consequence of wars or other interruptions of trade with the countries depended upon for a supply, would produce great distress, and tend to breed disturbances and riots in the kingdom.

Cornaro, Ludovico, was descended from a Venetian family which had given several doges to Venice, and, in the 15th century, a queen to the island of Cyprus, who left that kingdom to the Venetian republic. He died at Padua, in 1566, aged 104 years, without pain or struggle. From the 25th to the 40th year of his age, he was afflicted with a disordered stomach, with the gout, and with slow fevers, till at length he gave up the use of medicine, and accustomed himself to extreme frugality in his diet. The beneficial effects of this he relates in his book entitled *The Advantages of a temperate Life.* Cornaro's precepts are not, indeed, applicable, in their full extent, to every constitution; but his general rules will always be correct. His diseases vanished, and gave place to a state of vigorous health and tranquillity of spirits, to which he had hitherto been an entire stranger. He wrote three additional treatises on the same subject. In his work upon the Birth and Death of Man, which he composed in his 95th year, he says of himself, "I am now as healthy as any person of 25 years of age. I write daily 7 or 8 hours, and the rest of the time I occupy in walking, conversing, and occasionally in attending concerts. I am happy, and relish every thing that I eat. My imagination is lively, my memory

tenacious; my judgment good; and, what is most remarkable, in a person of my advanced age, my voice is strong and harmonious."

Corneille, Peter, the founder of French tragedy, and the first, in point of time, among the great authors of the age of Louis XIV, was born at Rouen, June 6, 1606, at which place his father was advocate-general. In his later and more finished works, he showed how much the court intrigues, and the troubles which prevailed during the first years of the reign of Louis XIII, had influenced the formation of his character. A somewhat equivocal success with the mistress of his friend, to whom he was unsuspectingly introduced by her lover, first made him a comic writer. He related this adventure in verse, and brought it on the stage, under the name of *Mélite*, in the year 1629. Its great success encouraged him to persevere, and he soon produced *Clitandre*, *La Veuve*, and *La Galerie du Palais*, *La Suivante* and *La Place Royale*, the last of which appeared in 1635. The success of these pieces was so great, and the applause so universal, that a particular company of actors was established for their performance, and many of them, modernized in some respects, retain their place on the stage to this day. The neglect of nature was common to Corneille with his contemporaries. His *Medea*, produced in 1635, was imitated from Seneca, and written in the declamatory style of that author. At that time, cardinal Richelieu retained several poets in his pay, who were obliged to write comedies from plots furnished by him. Corneille was about to place himself in the same situation; but a change, which he took the liberty of making, in a plot submitted to him, offended the cardinal, and prevented the execution of this plan. He then withdrew to Rouen, where he met monsieur de Chalon, the former secretary of Mary of Medici, who advised him to turn his attention to tragedy, and recommended the Spanish writers as models. Upon this, Corneille learned the Spanish language, and, in 1636, produced the *Cid*, which confirmed the predictions of his intelligent friend. Cardinal Richelieu was the only person who did not join in the general admiration, and, mortified by the poet's open rejection of his offered patronage, induced the newly-established academy to decry the merits of the *Cid*. Chapelain, by whom the criticism was written, attempted to satisfy the founder, without too much offending the general opinion. The *Sentiment de l'Académie Française sur la Tragi-comédie du Cid* is, therefore, more creditable to the learning than to the taste of the French literati. Others hoped, by decrying the poet, to obtain the favor of the minister. But the works of Corneille were a sufficient answer to their attacks. In 1639, his *Horaces* made its appearance (the earlier editions had the title *Horace*, but the later ones have *Horaces*), whereby he refuted the reproach of a deficiency of invention; which was, however, repeated, when he brought out his *Heraclius*, in 1647, imitated from Calderon, and the *Menteur*, in 1642, after Pedro de Roxas. This objection, perhaps, was the cause of the poet's leaving modern subjects; for henceforward, he applied himself almost exclusively to the Roman; and the strict patriotism of the ancient, with the artful politics of the more modern Romans, as an ingenious critic says, now took the place of that chivalric honor and faith, the representation of which in the *Cid* shows him to participate in the spirit of the Spanish dramatic writers. The French critics are inclined to consider *Cinna*, which appeared in 1639, as his masterpiece; but foreigners will not place it above *Polyeucte*. The happy blending of the pathetic with the dignified gravity to which Corneille so much inclines, makes this piece more attractive than the others. In the *Mort de Pompée*, which appeared in 1641, the noble dignity of the piece cannot excuse its bombast. In his *Menteur*, nature and truth of description take the place of the artificial tone then prevalent; and a comparison of this piece with the Spanish original (*La Sospechosa Verdad*) may be instructive to the friends of dramatic literature. At length, the genius of this prolific poet seemed to have been exhausted. *Rhodogune*, the favorite of Corneille, produced in 1646, leaves a painful impression, and the artful combination of the accumulated terrors of the piece cannot redeem it. The later works of Corneille (e. g., *Heraclius*, which appeared in 1647, *Don Sanche d'Arragon*, *Andromède*, a piece with music, processions and dancing), are less known, and, according to the opinion of the French, less worthy of being so, with the exception of *Nicomède*, which appeared in 1652, and which was revived by Talma, and still maintains its place upon the stage. The disdainful scorn of fate, in the hero of this piece, is susceptible of very great effect; but that rhetorical antithesis prevails in it which is found in many of Corneille's pieces. *Pertharite*, in 1653, failed entirely. Becoming distrustful of his talents, Cor-

neille now wished to abandon dramatic writing, and applied himself, for six years, to the translation of the *De Imitatione Jesu Christi*, the first book of which he had previously finished in verse. At length, Fouquet entreated him to devote his talents again to the stage. *Œdipe*, in 1659, and *Sertorius*, in 1662, were received with the applause which had been given him in his best days, and he endeavored to secure the public favor by accompanying the exhibition of the piece with splendid scenery. But his subsequent pieces—*Otho*, *Agésilas*, *Attila*, and many others—proved the failing power of a poet who had formerly shown himself without a rival. Of 33 pieces which Corneille left, only 8 still retain their places on the stage. Time has established his fame, and the French, long ago, surnamed him the *Great*, though Voltaire, the editor of his works, and La Harpe, who followed in the steps of his great predecessor, do not pronounce an entirely favorable sentence upon his merits. A. W. Schlegel has criticised him in a masterly mode, and Lessing has pointed out, in a striking manner, the defects in the plots of many of his pieces. It is, indeed, sincerely to be regretted, that his great talents, which were displayed so brilliantly in the *Cid*, should have been so much checked in their developement by his inclination to the classic, or, rather, Roman forms. It was owing to the circumstances of the times, that he was induced to take political subjects as materials for tragedy. Voltaire remarked their influence upon the tragedy of *Cinna*, and did not fail to see that the interest, in many parts of *Polyeucte*, must have been increased by the Jansenist controversies, which may, in fact, have given occasion to the passages. Corneille had nothing captivating in his manners. His conversation was tedious, and by no means well chosen. Like Turenne, he was, in early years, considered as deficient in talent. In his external appearance, he resembled an inferior tradesman of Rouen, and it is very easy, then, to conceive that, with rather rude manners, and a high sense of his merits, he could not feel himself in his proper sphere at court. His profession and talents did not make him rich, and he lived with great frugality. During the year 1647, he was received into the French academy in the place of Maynard, and died Oct. 1, 1684, being the oldest member. A descendant of the eldest of his two sons lived till the year 1813, and was as little favored by fortune as the grandniece of Corneille, to whom Voltaire, by the edition of the works of her great-uncle, discharged the debt of his country. The latest views of the French concerning this great man, who did so much for the establishment of their theatre, are found in an *Éloge de Corneille, par M. Victorin Fabre*, which received the prize of the French academy in 1807, and which has since been republished. The most complete and correct edition of his works, enriched by the principal productions of his brother, by Voltaire's commentaries, and by a selection of Palissot's notes, was published by Renouard, Paris, 1817, in 12 volumes. Napoleon is described, in the memoirs of Las Cases, as having said, that, had Corneille lived in his time, he would have made him a prince. The emperor was fond of reading the works of this poet during his abode on St. Helena, whilst he treated with comparative neglect several other poets adored by the French nation.

Corneille, Thomas, brother of the preceding, was born at Rouen, Aug 20, 1625, and lived in the most friendly union with his brother Peter till the death of the latter. A comedy, which he wrote in Latin verse, while he was a scholar at the Jesuits' college, and which obtained the honor of a representation, as well as the success which attended the works of his brother, determined him to turn his attention to the drama. His first comedy, called *Les Engagements du Hasard*, which appeared in 1647, and was an imitation of Calderon, was successful. Many similar ones soon followed, also borrowed from the Spaniards. The number of his dramatic works is 42; yet most of them are now so little known, that even the catalogue of them in the records of the French academy will be found erroneous and incomplete. His comedies, however, at the time of their appearance, were received with greater interest, if possible, than those of the great Corneille, in imitation of whom Thomas applied himself to tragedy, and his *Timocrate*, which appeared in 1656, was received with such continual applause, that the actors, weary of repeating it, entreated the audience, from the stage, to permit the representation of something else, otherwise they should forget all their other pieces. Since that time, it has not been brought upon the boards at all. *Camma*, in 1661, produced an equal sensation. The spectators thronged in such numbers to witness the representation, that scarcely room enough was left for the performers. Of his dramatic works which now merit attention, are *Ariane*, which maintained a competition with Ra-

cine's *Bajazet*; *L'Inconnu*, a heroic comedy, in 1675, which, in 1724, was represented at a festival at the Tuileries, with a ballet, in which Louis XV and the young lords of his court danced; and, especially, *Le Comte d'Essex*, which he produced in 1678. This last piece, as well as *Stilicon* and *Ariane*, is sometimes represented at the present day. Thomas, according to the judgment of Voltaire, although inferior to his brother, stood second to none but him, and his style is more pure. In 1685, he succeeded his brother in the French academy, by a unanimous vote, and, after his election, immediately undertook the publication of the French Dictionary, which appeared in 1694. He then prefixed notes to Vaugelas's Remarks, and finally added a supplement to the *Dictionnaire de l'Académie*, in which he explained the terms of art and science. This may be regarded as the basis of the subsequent *Encyclopédie*. Thomas Corneille was also admitted into the academy of inscriptions, and was a diligent contributor to the *Mercure galant*, with his friend De Visé. In old age, he lost his sight, and died, highly honored by his contemporaries, and beloved for his social virtues, at Andelys, Dec. 8, 1709. In his conversation, he was lively and natural. He left two children; and Voltaire united the daughter of his son Francis in marriage with the count de la Tour du Pin. A selection of his dramas is commonly found annexed to the editions of his brother's works, and his remaining productions, for the most part superseded by better, are not collected.

Cornelia, the mother of the Gracchi, daughter of Scipio Africanus the elder, and wife of the consul Gracchus, was a noble-minded Roman matron, who lived about 130 years B. C. To her sons (see *Gracchus*) she gave an excellent education, and, being in company with a Roman lady who was displaying her jewels, and desired to see the jewels of Cornelia, presented her sons as her most precious jewels. At her death, the Romans erected a monument to her memory. Cornelia is one of those women for whom the history of Rome is distinguished before all others. In the history of no nation do we find so many examples of mothers and wives remarkable for nobleness of spirit.

Cornelian, or Carnelian (*cornaline*, Fr.; *corniola*, Ital.; from *carneus*, or *corneus*, Lat.); a precious stone, of a light-red or flesh-color, whence its name *carnaline*. It is much used for seals, bracelets, necklaces, and other articles of minute gem sculpture. Its name, *cornelian*, is derived from *corneus*, or horny, it being reckoned by mineralogists among the hornstones. It was known to the Romans, as we learn from Pliny, by the name of *sarda*, from being found originally in Sardinia. Cornelians are of various colors, from a light and fleshy red, opaque, and semi-transparent, with and without veins, to a brilliant transparency and color approaching the ruby, from which they are, however, known by sure distinctive marks. Winckelmann describes a cornelian of this latter sort, on which was engraved a portrait of Pompey. The cornelian is a stone well fitted for engraving in intaglio, or sinking as for seals, being of sufficient hardness to receive a fine polish, and wax does not adhere to it, as it does to some other sorts of stones which are used for seals, and the impression comes off clear and perfect. The number of the cornelians that were engraved by the ancients, and have reached our times, is very considerable, and nearly equal to that of all the other kinds of gems with which we are acquainted. From an ancient epithet—"cornelian of the old rock"—Pliny conceives that they were taken from a rock of that material near Babylon. He thinks they were clarified by being steeped in the honey of Corsica. The royal collection at Paris, and the British museum of London, have numerous ancient and beautiful engraved cornelians. Many of the latter were found in the field of Cannæ in Apulia, where Hannibal defeated the Romans.

Cornelis, Cornelius, a painter, born at Haerlem, in 1562, studied the rudiments of his art with Peter Ærtsens the younger, and afterwards worked at Antwerp, under Peter Porbus and Giles Coignet. In 1583, he returned to Haerlem, where his great painting—the company of arquebusiers—established his reputation. Descamps called it a collection of figures, sketched by the Genius of History. In 1595, with Charles van Mander, he instituted an academy for painting at Haerlem. His numerous pictures are rarely to be bought, on account of the great value which the Flemings set upon them. Cornelis painted great and small pieces, historical subjects, portraits, flowers, and especially subjects from ancient mythology. His drawing is admirable. He is a true imitator of nature, and his coloring is always lively and agreeable. The galleries at Vienna and Dresden contain some of his pieces. J. Müller, H. Golzius, Saenredam, L. Killian, Matham, Van Geyn, and many others, have imitated his manner. He died in 1638.

Cornelius Nepos, a Roman historian,

born in Cisalpine Gaul, lived in the golden age of the Roman language, in friendship with Catullus, Cicero and Pomponius Atticus, and died 30 years B. C. Of his numerous writings, only his Lives of distinguished Generals have come down to us. In this work, he gives, in a classical style, with great brevity and distinctness, 24 biographies of the most remarkable Grecian heroes of antiquity, together with the lives of some barbarian generals, and also that of Cato the elder, finishing his work with the life of Atticus. His characters are, in general, strikingly illustrated, though he does not always observe a just proportion in his relations, sometimes treating important subjects in too concise, and trifling ones in too prolix a manner; and, indeed, he does not always draw from the most trustworthy sources. On account of his brevity, he throws little new light on history; and it is generally believed that the book which has reached us is an extract from the works of Nepos, made by Emilius Probus, in the time of Theodosius. The edition of this author by Van Staveren (Leyden, 1773) is the most valuable. Other good editions, of a later date, are those of Fischer, Harles, Tzschucke and Bremi.

Cornelius, Peter, a native of Düsseldorf, was director of the academy of arts there, and, since 1824, has been director of the academy of arts at Münich. He formed himself at Rome, by the study of the masters of the old Italian and German schools, and is to be considered as the first living German painter. He has a true poetical spirit, and is, among painters, nearly what Thorwaldsen is among sculptors. The power and originality of his conceptions are recognised, even by those who find him deficient in strict accuracy of drawing, and sometimes in coloring in his fresco pictures. His spirited and carefully-finished drawings in ink are in much request among connoisseurs. His scenes from Göthe's *Faust*, engraved by Ruscheweih, as well as his plates to the Nibelungenlied (q. v.), show his spirited conception of poetic thoughts, in which respect, few living artists equal him. He was engaged in preparing his designs from Dante, to be executed in fresco, in the Villa Massimi, at Rome, when Louis, the crown-prince, now king, of Bavaria, employed him to paint the saloons of his *Glyptotheca* (q. v.), or museum of sculpture at Münich. For this purpose, Cornelius left Rome in 1819, and lived alternately at Düsseldorf and Münich, where he finished the cartoons which he had already in part sketched at Rome. The subjects of these frescoes are taken from the mythology of Homer, Hesiod, and the old heroic world. He is now settled at Munich. The paintings of Cornelius, in the *Glyptotheca* above-mentioned, form some of the grandest monuments of the fine arts of the present age.

Cornet; a wind instrument, now but little known, having, more than a century since, given place to the hautboy. There were three kinds of cornets—the treble, the tenor and the bass. The treble and tenor cornets were simple curvilineal tubes, about three feet in length, gradually increasing in diameter from the mouthpiece towards the lower end. The bass cornet was a serpentine tube, four or five feet long, and increasing in diameter in the same manner.

Cornet, in military language, is the third officer in a company, in England and the U. States. He bears the colors of the troop. In the Prussian army, the name *cornet* is abolished.

Cornu Copiæ; horn of plenty. (See *Acheloüs* and *Amalthea*.)

Cornwall; a post-town in Litchfield county, Connecticut, on the east side of the Housatonic; 10 miles N. W. Litchfield, 38 W. Hartford, 48 N. W. New Haven. A foreign mission school was established here in 1817, under the direction of the board of commissioners for foreign missions. The object of it is to educate heathen children, so that they may be qualified to instruct their countrymen in Christianity and the arts of civilized life. The number of pupils, in 1822, was 34; of whom 19 were American Indians, and 9 from the islands of the Pacific ocean.

Cornwall, a maritime county of England, forming the south-western extremity of Great Britain, is surrounded by the sea, except on the eastern side. Its superficial area has been found, by actual survey, to contain 758,484 statute acres, or 1407 square miles. It is divided into 9 hundreds, and 206 parishes. The general aspect of Cornwall is very dreary, a ridge of bleak and rugged hills stretching through its whole length. Comparatively little attention is paid to agriculture in Cornwall, and most of its operations are still conducted in a very rude manner. Its principal wealth is derived from its mines, of which, according to an accurate map made in 1800, it appears that there were then 45 of copper, 28 of tin, 18 of copper and tin, 2 of lead, 1 of lead and silver, 1 of copper and silver, 1 of silver, 1 of copper and cobalt, 1 of tin and cobalt, and 1 of antimony. Some mines of manganese have been opened since that time.

Of the minerals of this county, which are numerous, one of the most interesting is the soap-rock, particularly used in the manufacture of porcelain. The china-stone, which is raised in great quantities near St. Austell, forms a principal ingredient in the Staffordshire potteries. A great variety of fish frequent the coasts of this county: by far the most important of these are the pilchards, in the fishery of which a great capital is employed. Cornwall can boast of but few manufactures, except the preparation of its metals. Antiquities, generally supposed to be Druidical, abound. This county sends 42 members to parliament. Population, 262,600. The Scilly islands lie about 9 leagues W. by S. of the Land's End, and are supposed to have been formerly connected with Cornwall. The intermediate and surrounding rocks are innumerable.

Cornwallis, Charles, marquis of, was born in 1738, and received his education at Eton, and at St. John's college, Cambridge. Devoting himself to the profession of arms, he was appointed aide-de-camp to the king in 1765, and colonel of foot in 1766, and, after passing through all the various promotions, he obtained the rank of general. He represented the borough of Eye in parliament until the death of his father, in 1762, when he succeeded to the peerage. He did not distinguish himself in parliament, either by the frequency or the eloquence of his speeches; and, in the house of peers, he appears to have been favorable to the claims of the American colonies; notwithstanding which, he accepted a command in America, and distinguished himself at the battle of Brandywine, in 1777, and at the siege of Charleston, and was intrusted with the government of South Carolina. After obtaining the victories of Camden and Guilford, he formed the plan of invading Virginia, which failed; and he was made prisoner with his whole army. He laid the blame of this defeat on sir Henry Clinton, who had not given him the succor he expected; and several pamphlets were published between them, in which sir Henry blamed both the scheme and its conduct. Soon after his return to England, he was removed from his place of governor of the Tower of London, but was reappointed in 1784, and retained it until his death. In 1786, lord Cornwallis was sent out to India, with the double appointment of commander-in-chief and governor-general; and not long after, the government of Bengal declared war against the sultan of the Mysore, for an attack upon the rajah of Travancore, the ally of the English. The first campaign was indecisive; but in March, 1791, lord Cornwallis invaded the Mysore, and, in the year after, besieged the city of Seringapatam, and obliged the sultan, Tippoo Saib, to sue for peace, and to submit to such terms as he dictated. These were, to give up a part of his dominions, to pay a large sum of money, with a promise of a more considerable portion of treasure; and, as hostages for the performance of this treaty, Tippoo intrusted two of his sons to the care of lord Cornwallis. On the conclusion of this important war, lord Cornwallis returned to England, and, in 1792, was created marquis, appointed master-general of the ordnance, and admitted a member of the privy council. In 1798, at the time of the rebellion, he was appointed lord-lieutenant of Ireland, which office he filled until 1801, conducting himself with great firmness and judgment, united with a conciliatory disposition. In the same year, he was sent to France, where he signed the peace of Amiens. In 1804, on the recall of the marquis of Wellesley, he was again appointed governor-general of India, and, the following year, died at Ghazepore, in the province of Benares. His personal character was amiable and unassuming, and, if his talents were not brilliant, his sound sense, aided by his laudable ambition and perseverance, effected much. As a military man, he was active and vigilant, always giving his instructions in person, and attending to the performance of them.

Coro, or Venezuela, a town in Venezuela, the capital of the province or district of Coro; 80 leagues W. of Caracas; lon. 69° 40′ W.; lat. 11° 24′ N.; population, 10,000. It is situated on a dry, sandy plain, on an isthmus which separates the lake of Maracaybo from the Caribbean sea. The streets are regular, but the houses are mean. The port is indifferent, and the commerce of the town is inconsiderable.

Corollary (in Latin, *corollarium*); a conclusion from premises, or from a proposition demonstrated. Formerly, it was used to signify a surplus.

Coromandel, Coast of (*Dsholamandol*, country of millet); the eastern coast of Hindostan, along the *Carnatic*, so called, extending from cape Calymere, lat. 10° 20′, to the mouth of the Kistnah, lat. 15° 45′ N.; length about 350 miles. It contains many flourishing cities, but Coringa is the only one which affords a harbor. Madras is the English provincial city. From the beginning of October until

April, north winds blow along the shore, and, during the first three months, with such vehemence, that navigation, during this period, is very dangerous. This is called the *north-east monsoon*. In the middle of April, the south winds begin, which last until the month of October. During this time, vessels can approach the coast with safety. The wind, during the day, is often glowing hot, but, in the night, becomes cool again. The sandy soil of the whole coast is not favorable for the cultivation of rice; but cotton is produced in great quantity, and, in its raw as well as its manufactured state, is the source of wealth to the industrious inhabitants.

Coron; a fortress in the Morea, 17½ leagues S. W. Tripolizza, and 4½ E. of Modon, on the eastern shore of the gulf of Modon; situated on a mountain; lat. 36° 47′ 26″ N.; lon. 21° 58′ 52″ E.; population, 5000.

Coronation; a solemn inauguration of a monarch, with religious ceremonies, which, in ancient times, when the right of succession to the throne was more uncertain or disputed than at present, or when the right to govern could not be obtained without undertaking certain formal obligations, was deemed more necessary than in modern times. This act is not considered as necessary for establishing the rights and obligations of rulers and subjects; but it is very proper as a means of reminding both parties, in a solemn way, of the nature of their duties. The essential parts of the coronation are, first, the oath which the monarch takes, that he will govern justly, will always consult the real welfare of his people, and will conscientiously observe the fundamental laws of the state; and, secondly, the placing of the crown upon his head with religious solemnities (prayer and anointing). In England, kings have been anointed and crowned in Westminster abbey, even to the latest times, with great splendor, and the observance of ancient feudal customs, many of which are very singular. So also in France, where the church of the archbishop of Rheims has from ancient times enjoyed the privilege of the celebration of this ceremony. (*Histoire du Sacre de Charles X*, by F. M. Miel, Paris, 1825.) Splendid engravings of the coronations, both of king George IV of Great Britain, and of king Charles X of France, have made their appearance.* The coronation oath of Charles X ran thus:—"In the presence of God, I promise my people to defend and honor (*de maintenir et d'honorer*) our holy religion, as it becomes the most Christian king and the eldest son of the church; to cause justice to be done to all my subjects; finally, to govern in conformity to the laws of the kingdom, and to the charter, which I swear truly to observe; so help me God and his holy gospel." The coronation oath of the king of England is prescribed by 1 William and Mary, c. 6, modified by 5 Anne, c. 8 and 30, 40 George III, c. 67:—"'I solemnly promise and swear to govern the people of this United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and the dominions thereto belonging, according to the statutes in parliament agreed on, and the laws and customs of the same; to the utmost of my power to maintain the laws of God, the true profession of the gospel, and the Protestant reformed religion established by the law; to preserve unto the bishops and the clergy of this realm, and the churches committed to their charge, all such rights and privileges as by law do or shall appertain unto them or any of them.' After this, the king or queen, laying his or her hand upon the holy Gospels, shall say, 'The things which I have before promised, I will perform and keep; so help me God;' and then shall kiss the book." The coronation of the German emperor, by the pope, in former times, was the source of much disorder, as the emperor was generally obliged to go to Rome with an army. Napoleon crowned himself, and then put the crown on the head of his wife Josephine.

Coroner; an officer in England and some of the U. States, the chief part of whose duty is to inquire into the cause of the death of persons killed, or dying suddenly. In England, he inquires also into the cause of death of persons dying in prison. His examination is made, in all cases, with the aid of a jury, in sight of the body, and at the place where the death happened. In England, the coroner has also to inquire concerning shipwrecks, and certify, in any particular case, whether there be an actual wreck or not, and who is in possession of the goods; also to inquire concerning *treasure trove*; that is, gold or silver, which appears, when found, to have been purposely hidden, and remains unclaimed. Such treasure, in England, be-

* The English king at arms, George Naylor, has published the history of the coronation of George IV, in a work of 400 pages, with 70 copperplates, price 25 guineas,—the first official description of the ceremony in England, since the account of the coronation of James II, by Sandford, in 1687.

longs to the king. The coroner, in that country, is also the sheriff's substitute; and, when an exception can be taken to the sheriff, for partiality, process is awarded to the coroner. In those of the U. States where there are coroners, their principal duty is to inquire into the causes of violent or extraordinary death. In Connecticut, the duty is performed by a justice of the peace or a constable.

Coronet; an inferior crown, belonging to the English nobility. The coronet of an English duke is adorned with strawberry leaves; that of a marquis has leaves, with pearls interposed; that of an earl raises the pearls above the leaves; that of a viscount is surrounded with pearls only; that of a baron has only four pearls.

Corporal. This word is written in the same, or in a similar, manner in many languages, and, at first sight, would seem to be derived from *corps* (body); but it originates, in fact, from the French *caporal* and the Italian *caporale*, which are derived from *capo*, the Italian form of the Latin *caput* (the head). The change of the first syllable, *ca*, into *cor*, is of much antiquity. Du Fresne uses the Low Latin term *corporalis*. From this author it appears, that *corporal* formerly signified a superior commander; but, like *captain* and many other words, it has sunk in its dignity. A corporal is now a rank and file man, with superior pay to that of common soldiers, and with nominal rank under a sergeant. He has charge of one of the squads of the company, places and relieves sentinels, &c. Every company in the English service has three or four corporals. In armies in which privates may advance to the highest ranks, as in France, Prussia, &c., great care is taken in selecting corporals. In fact, they are officers of much importance, associating, as they do, with the privates, over whom their superiority of rank gives them much influence. The feeling of military honor, good morals, and emulation in the discharge of duty, are, in a great degree, to be infused into the mass by means of the corporals.—A corporal of a man of war is an officer who has the charge of setting and relieving the watches and sentries, and who sees that the soldiers and sailors keep their arms neat and clean: he teaches them how to use their arms, and has a mate under him.

Corporation. A corporation is a political or civil institution, comprehending one or more persons, by whom it is conducted according to the laws of its constitution. It is a conventional and artificial organ, of an integral or individual character, whether it embraces one or more members, and is invested with certain powers and rights, varying according to the objects of its establishment. Its acts, when done in pursuance of its powers, are considered those of the body, or organ, and not those of the member or members composing the corporation. In respect to the number of members, corporations are divided into sole, consisting of one person, and aggregate, consisting of more than one. A corporation does not lose its identity by a change of its members. Hence the maxim, in the English law, that the king never dies; for the regal power is considered to be invested in a sole corporation, which continues the same, though the individual corporator may die. The whole political system is made up of a concatenation of various corporations, political, civil, religious, social and economical. A nation itself is the great corporation, comprehending all the others, the powers of which are exerted in legislative, executive and judicial acts, which, when confined within the scope, and done according to the forms, prescribed by the constitution, are considered to be the acts of the nation, and not merely those of the official organs. Corporations are also either local or at large. A nation, state, county, town or parish, is a local corporation; stage-coach or navigation companies, charitable and many other associations, may be at large and transitory, that is, not restricted as to the residence of their members, or the place at which their affairs are to be conducted; but, whether local or ambulatory, their objects, powers and forms of proceeding must be defined, for by these the metaphysical abstract entity, called a *corporation*, subsists; and the persons by whom this artificial conventional engine is operated cease to act as corporators the moment they pass beyond the limits of the objects and powers of the institution. Corporations are created either by prescription or charter, but most commonly by the latter. The English government, and, indeed, most of the other governments of Europe, are corporations by prescription. All the American governments are corporations created by charters, viz. their constitutions. So private corporations may be established in either of these ways, and, whether by one or the other, they derive their powers and franchises, either directly or indirectly, from the sovereign power of the state. The improvements, among the moderns, in civil liberty, arts and commerce, took

their rise in private corporations. In the first volume of Robertson's Charles V will be found a very good historical view of the manner in which municipal corporations and communities contributed to the amelioration of the condition of the great mass of the population in the western part of Europe. The several governments, established after the dissolution of the Roman empire, had degenerated into a system of oppression, and the great body of the people were reduced to a state of actual servitude; and the condition of those dignified with the name of freemen was little preferable to that of the others. Nor was this oppression confined to the people inhabiting the country. Cities and villages found it necessary to acknowledge dependence on some powerful lord, on whom they relied for protection. The inhabitants could not dispose of the effects acquired by their own industry, either, during life, by deed, or, at their decease, by will. They had no right to appoint guardians to their children, and were not permitted to marry without purchasing the consent of their superior lord. If they once commenced a suit in the lord's court, they durst not terminate it by compromise, because this would deprive the lord of the perquisites due to him on passing sentence. Services of various kinds, no less disgraceful than oppressive, were exacted from them without mercy or moderation. The cities of Italy, being situated at a distance from their German superiors, whereby the ties of subjection were weakened, found it comparatively easy to extricate themselves from their political and commercial thraldom; and they were stimulated to the attempt by the excitement, revival of trade, and influx of wealth, occasioned by the crusades. The spirit which animated the Italian cities spread itself into Germany and France, where the dilapidation and exhaustion of the wealth of the sovereigns and nobles, occasioned by the repeated and obstinate prosecution of these religious wars, put it in the power of the towns to extort, or to purchase at a low rate, exemption from many species of military oppression, servitude and merciless exaction. In some stipulated composition, the sovereign or baron granted charters of community (see *Community*), guarantying certain privileges in regard to personal liberty, municipal government and judicial administration. These charters, though on a limited scale, were equivalent, in character, to what are called *constitutions* in the U. States; and the term is still retained, on the continent of Europe, in the same application: thus the limitations to which the Bourbons submitted, when restored to the throne of France, are called the *charter*. As the most important immunities and privileges granted in these charters were, in effect, limitations of the legislative and executive power of the sovereigns, they would very naturally attempt to retract them, when a favorable opportunity offered; and this they did, and sometimes with success; but the corporations had one great advantage, in resisting these encroachments, in consequence of the struggles between the sovereigns and nobles; for the free cities, being very useful allies to either side in these contests, were treated with greater forbearance, so that the general tendency was to the enlargement and establishment of the rights and privileges of the citizen, and the restraint and regulation of the power of the sovereign. This voluntary association of small communities, which proved so powerful an engine in rearing the present political fabrics in Christendom, is no less efficient as an engine of political revolution and demolition; and it may be used with equal success for the best or the most pernicious purposes, as every age and country has frequent opportunity of witnessing. Charters of incorporation for mere economical purposes, as the construction of roads and canals, and carrying on of banking, insurance, manufactures, &c., are more frequent in the U. States than in any other country. Corporations are erected for undertakings which are, in England, conducted by joint stock companies; and, in some of the states, the character of these bodies has been modified by the laws, where their object is the conducting of some branch of industry, so as to render them either limited or absolute copartnerships, in respect to the joint liability of the individual members for the engagements of the company, though they still retain the character of corporations, in respect to the capacity to conduct business, notwithstanding the decease of any members, which, in ordinary copartnerships, usually effects a dissolution.

Corporation and Test Acts. The corporation act, passed in the 13th Charles II, 1661, prevented any person from being legally elected to any office belonging to the government of any city or corporation in England, unless he had, within the twelvemonth preceding, received the sacrament of the Lord's supper, ac-

cording to the rites of the church of England; and enjoined him to take the oaths of allegiance and supremacy when he took the oath of office. The test act, 25 Charles II, 1673, required all officers, civil and military, to take the oaths, and make the declaration against transubstantiation, in the courts of king's bench or chancery, within six months after their admission; and also, within the same time, to receive the sacrament of the Lord's supper, according to the usage of the church of England, in some public church. The corporation act was principally directed against Protestant nonconformists; the test act against Roman Catholics. In the year 1828, they were both abolished.

Corposant, or Corpo Santo (*Italian*, holy body); the electric flame which sometimes appears on the tops of the masts of vessels, and is also called *Castor and Pollux* and *St. Elmo's fire.*

Corps (French for *body*); a word often used in military language, many of the terms of which are derived from the French, they having begun the organization of armies on the system which now prevails. The term is applied to various kinds of divisions of troops.—*Corps d'armée* is one of the largest divisions of an army (the German *Heeresabtheilung*).—*Corps de garde*; a post occupied by a body of men on watch; also the body which occupies it.—*Corps de reserve;* a body of troops kept out of the action, with a view of being brought forward, if the troops previously engaged are beaten, or cannot follow up their victory, or are disorganized.—*Corps volant* (a flying body) is a body intended for rapid movements. It is always rather small.—*Corps de bataille* is the main body of an army, drawn up for battle between the wings.

Corpulence; the state of the human body, when loaded with an excessive quantity of flesh and fat. The flesh forms the muscular system; and, its extent being limited by the form of the particular muscular parts, its quantity can neither exceed nor fall below a certain bulk. The fat is much less limited, and the production and deposition of it is confined to no such definite form. The formation of the muscular fibres, or the change of blood into flesh, takes place in the capillary system, formed by the minutest portions of the arteries at their termination in the muscles. (Concerning the production of fat, see *Fat.*) If blood is copiously furnished with nutritive matter, it is converted readily to muscular fibres and fat. The secretion of fat depends, in a certain degree, on the state of the health. Children and females have a larger proportion of it than adult men. It is promoted by rich diet, a good digestion, corporeal inactivity, tranquillity of mind, &c. There is, however, a certain diseased state of the system, which, independently of all these influences, will increase the production and deposition of fat. We see young people and men, even such as are intelligent, and continually engaged in active business, very corpulent. The enormous corpulence of many men appears to bear no proportion to their food, and is evidently a disease, as many other secretions in the body; for example, the preparation and secretion of the bile, saliva, &c., are augmented by disease. Sandiford mentions an unborn child, in which he observed a monstrous mass of fat. Tulpius saw a boy five years old, who weighed 150 pounds. Bartholini makes mention of a girl, aged eleven years, who weighed above 200 pounds. In the Philosophical Transactions, mention is made of an Englishman, named *Bright*, who weighed 609 pounds. Daniel Lambert, of Leicester, in England, was, probably, the heaviest man on record. He weighed 752 pounds. A Canadian, named *Maillot*, who exhibited himself in Boston, in 1829, weighed 619 pounds. Corpulency is often only the repletion of the cells of the cellular membrane with watery, gaseous and vaporized matter, arising from a marked tendency to disease, and often the commencement of actual dropsy. Moderate corpulence (*embonpoint*, in French) is consistent with health, and is not opposed to beauty, as it prevents angularity and unevenness in the surface of the body, and gives the parts rotundity. For this reason, moderately corpulent women and men preserve a beautiful and youthful appearance longer than lean persons. But if corpulence is excessive, it becomes troublesome, and, at length, dangerous. Water should then be drank instead of wine; milk, beer and brandy should be avoided; active bodily exercise should be taken, and employment provided for the mind. Anxiety soon takes off superfluous fat, though grief sometimes produces it. In what cases medicine is to be resorted to, and what kinds should be used, must be left to the judgment of physicians. People sometimes resort to violent and injurious means to rid themselves of superfluous flesh. Madame Stich, the best actress in the theatre at Berlin, took poison to reduce her person to the right

dimensions for performing Shakspeare's Juliet, and succeeded, though at the expense of her health. Instances of leanness as remarkable as those of corpulence are by no means rare. In 1830, a native of Vermont exhibited himself in the U. States. He called himself the *living skeleton*. His legs and arms were almost entirely deprived of flesh. The man was about 45 years old, and weighed 60 pounds.

Corpus Christi, or *corpus Domini Jesu Christi*, means the consecrated host at the Lord's supper, which, according to the doctrines of the Catholic church, is changed, by the act of consecration, into the real body of Jesus the Savior. This doctrine, which was prevalent even in the 12th century, caused the adoration of the consecrated host, which, as it was thought, should be worshipped as the true body of Jesus. On that account, the people in the Catholic churches fall upon their knees whenever the priest raises the host; and throughout all countries in which the Catholic religion is the only one tolerated, as Spain, Portugal, Italy, &c., the *viaticum* (the name of the host when carried to the house of a sick or dying man, that he may partake of it privately) is saluted with the same marks of adoration by every one who sees the priest pass with it, or who hears the bell of the boys of the choir, when they go by. All who are riding dismount or leave their carriages to exhibit this mark of respect. All business, conversation and amusement is interrupted until the *viaticum* has passed. The Catholic church has ordained, for the consecrated host, a particular festival, called the *corpus Christi feast*. It owes its origin to the vision of a nun of Liege, named *Juliana*, in 1230, who, while looking at the full moon, saw a gap in its orb, and, by a peculiar revelation from heaven, learned that the moon represented the Christian church, and the gap, the want of a certain festival—that of the adoration of the body of Christ in the consecrated host—which she was to begin to celebrate and announce to the world! On this account, the archdeacon James went to Liege (the same who afterwards became pope under the title of *Urban IV*) in order to ordain such a festival; and he was confirmed in his purpose by a miracle. In 1264, while a priest at Bolsena, who did not believe in the change of the bread into the body of Christ, was going through the ceremony of the benediction in his presence, drops of blood fell upon his surplice, and when he endeavored to conceal them in the folds of his garment, formed bloody images of the host. The bloody surplice is still shown as a relic at Cività Vecchia. This circumstance forms the subject of one of the beautiful pictures of Raphael, in the *Stanze di Rafaello*. Urban IV published, in the same year, a bull, in which he appointed the Thursday of the week after Pentecost for the celebration of the *corpus Christi* festival throughout Christendom, and promised absolution for a period of from 40 to 100 days to the penitent who took part in it. Since then, this festival has been kept as one of the greatest of the Catholic church. Splendid processions form an essential part of it. The children belonging to the choir, with flags, and the priests with lighted tapers, move through the streets in front of the priest, who carries the host in a precious box, where it can be seen, under a canopy held by four laymen of rank. A crowd of the common people closes the procession. In Spain, it is customary for people of distinction to send their children, dressed as angels, to join the procession; the different fraternities carry their patron saints, carved out of wood and highly adorned, before the host; astonishment and awe are produced, as well as feelings of devotion, by the splendor and magnificence of the procession, by the brilliant appearance of the streamers, by the clouds of smoke from the censers, and the solemn sound of the music. The festival is also a general holyday, in which bull-fights, games, dances and other amusements are not wanting. In Sicily, all the freedom of a masquerade is allowed, and passages from Scripture history are represented in the streets. The whole people are in a state of excitement. The festival is kept with more simplicity and dignity by the German Catholics. In Protestant countries, they merely go round to the churches in processions, and celebrate their worship with peculiar solemnities. (See *Sacrament*.)

Corpus Delicti (literally, the *body of the crime or offence*). It is a figurative expression, used to denote those external marks, facts or circumstances which accompany a crime, and without the proof of which the crime is not supposed to be established. We have no correspondent expression in English, and the preceding exposition is peculiar to the civil law of continental Europe. We should say, that certain proofs are indispensable to establish a crime, and that, unless they exist, there is no legal ground to convict the party; so that *corpus delicti* is equivalent

to the proofs essential to establish a crime. The following observations have reference to the jurisprudence of Germany. The marks of guilt, which constitute the *corpus delicti*, are, in many cases, perceptible in the traces remaining (*facta permanentia*); for instance, the wounds inflicted upon a man; a lampoon posted up; written or printed words; counterfeit writings: in other cases, such traces exist only in the memory (*facta transeuntia*); as words merely spoken, &c. A criminal trial must always rest upon a *corpus delicti* clearly substantiated. Unless the death of a man is fully proved, and shown to have been occasioned by the coöperation of another, no sentence of homicide can be passed. An inspection of the body, in case of murder, or the statement of the injured party, in less heinous offences, confirmed with an oath, &c., is, accordingly, the first condition of a criminal process. Entire deficiency of the *corpus delicti* can be supplied by no confession; and the latter remains without any effect; as, for instance, if a person should accuse himself of having stolen something from another, or of having killed some one, and no person could be found from whom such thing had been stolen, or who had been killed. In the cases where the *corpus delicti* cannot be discovered by means of immediate examination, because the doer has destroyed all traces of it (for instance, by a total burning of the corpse of a murdered person), other circumstances must be sought for, which can afford certain proof of the crime; and without them punishment cannot be legally pronounced by the court. It must further be ascertained, in a case of murder, that death has ensued in consequence of the wound; or, rather, that the wound inflicted was, in itself, a sufficient cause for the death. In this respect, the courts in Germany often go too far, by seeking for the most remote possibility, by which the *corpus delicti* may be rendered uncertain. In the famous trial of Fonk, in Cologne, it was one of the greatest faults, that the *corpus delicti* (the wounds in the head of the dead man, Cönen) had not been examined with sufficient medical accuracy, and that there was a search for a murderer before the murder was ascertained. It has happened more than once that a person has been executed as a murderer of a missing person, who, after some time, has reappeared. No reliance ought, in most cases, to be placed upon the circumstance, that several persons pretend to have seen the corpse of the individual believed to have been murdered, until the corpse has actually been discovered, or until infallible evidence of the murder has been adduced. In crimes which leave no traces, the whole possible proof rests on witnesses and confessions. Even a confession of guilt by an accused party must be supported by other circumstances; e.g., actions which have been observed by other persons, and which have a bearing on the crime, and render it probable. In the investigation of the *corpus delicti*, in a great many cases, the science of medicine must assist the law. Nevertheless, great uncertainty often remains, after all the aid which can be thus attained; for instance, in poisonings, and in cases where the point in question is, whether an infant was born alive or not. Frequently, questions are proposed to the physicians, which they cannot answer at all. In such cases, nothing is required of them but the declaration that nothing can be said with certainty. It is a very important question, whether preference ought to be given to the testimony of the physician who has attended the deceased till his death, or to the opinion of the physician of the court at the official examination.* In a famous case, in Germany, the inquest found traces of poisoning by arsenic, though not the arsenic itself, whilst the physician attending during the last illness of the deceased asserted that no symptom of poisoning had shown itself, and that the disease had taken its natural course. In another case, the physician declared that the deceased had died of the lock-jaw, occasioned by a wound, whilst the legal examiners maintained that the wound had been without influence upon his death.

Corpus Juris (*body of law*) is a name given to the Justinian code and collections, in the 12th century, when the separate portions began to be considered as one whole. Under this name are included the Pandects, in three parts; the fourth part, containing the nine first books of the Code; the fifth part, called the *Volume*, containing the Institutes, the Novels, or Authentics, in nine subdivisions or collations; in addition to which, the collections of feudal laws, and the modern imperial edicts, forming a tenth collation, and the three remaining books of the code, are

* In many parts of Germany, a physician, in the employ of the government, is attached to each district, who sees that proper health regulations are observed, makes reports respecting births, deaths, &c., inquires into the causes of deaths which are attended with suspicious circumstances, and is, *ex officio*, the medical adviser of the judicial courts.

comprised in the *Corpus Juris*. Some scholars have attempted to add the later edicts of the Romano-German emperors, as an eleventh collation. This, however, is not acknowledged, and the *Corpus Juris civilis* has been, since the time of Accursius, considered as completed. Those parts, even of the Justinian collection of laws, which were brought by the early commentators within the circle of their critical examinations, have not acquired, in the European courts of judicature, any legal authority, although they have been since received into the entire collection of the Roman law. With the canonical or papal laws, the same mode of proceeding has been adopted. From the old resolves of the councils, and the papal decrees, genuine and spurious, Gratian, in the middle of the 12th century, collected his *Concordantia discordantium Canonum*, afterwards called the *Decretum*. In the 13th century, a collection of still later papal decisions or decretals, in five books (compiled by order of Gregory IX, by Raymond of Pennafort, in 1234), was added. These decretals were considered as supplementary and additional, and were therefore described and cited by the name of *extra*. Boniface VIII (1298) allowed the addition of a sixth book. Clement V added the decrees of the ecclesiastical council of Vienne (1311), under the name of the *Clementines*, or the seventh book of decretals, which completed the *Corpus Juris Canonici*, although pope John XXII, about 1340, and a learned individual, about 1488, collected further decretals of the popes, which were added as supplements, under the name of the *Extravagantes*. The name of *Corpus Juris* has also been given to many other codes and private collections of laws. There is a *Corpus Juris Germanici Antiqui*, by Georgisch; a *Corpus Juris Feudalis*, and a *Corpus Juris Germanici, publici et privati, Medii Ævi*, by Senkenberg; a *Corpus Juris Militaris*, published at Leipsic, &c. An edition of the *Corpus Juris*, which may correspond to the improvements of the age, and the progress of knowledge, has, for a long time, been a desideratum. Lately, a very convenient edition for ordinary use has been undertaken by J. L. W. Beck, of which two volumes have already appeared (Leipsic). A complete critical edition has also been prepared by professor Schrader, of Tübingen.

Correa de Serra, Joseph Francis, a learned Portuguese scholar, was born at Serpa, in the province of Alentejo, in 1750. He commenced his studies at Rome, finished his education at Naples, under the care of the celebrated abbe Genovesi, and afterwards devoted himself to the study of the ancient languages and botany, at Rome. At the age of 27, he returned to his native land, with his friend, the duke of Lafoens. Correa was now actively engaged in the establishment of the royal academy of sciences at Lisbon, of which the duke of Lafoens was the founder, and the celebrated Pombal the patron. The former was appointed president of the academy, and Correa standing secretary. Both acted in concert, and their exertions established a cabinet of natural curiosities, a laboratory, &c., and particularly an important printing-office, which they succeeded in freeing from all restraints of the press. Correa prepared, with the assistance of the members of the academy, a collection of unpublished documents (*monumentos ineditos*), relating to the history of his native country. In his botanical researches, he investigated the physiology of plants with distinguished ability. But, being exposed to the danger of becoming a victim to intolerance, he was obliged to take a hasty leave of Portugal. He visited Paris in 1786. Here he associated with Broussonet (q. v.), the naturalist, on the most intimate terms. After the death of Peter III of Portugal, his enemies lost their influence, and he returned to Portugal. Subsequently, Broussonet, flying from the reign of terror, arrived in Lisbon, where his connexion with Correa procured for him a flattering reception from the duke of Lafoens. But the French emigrants, who could not forgive Broussonet, for the share which he had taken in the first movements of the French revolution, denounced him to the tribunal of the inquisition as a Jacobin and a freemason, and implicated even his friend Correa. Nothing remained for Correa but to seek safety in flight, as Broussonet had already done. At this time, the duke of Lafoens kept him concealed several days in the royal library. Correa then went to London, where sir Joseph Banks, president of the royal society, received him under his protection, and introduced him to the society, and he was elected a member. He enriched the memoirs of the society with dissertations on subjects of natural history. By the interposition of the count of Linhares, minister of the Portuguese marine, he was appointed counsellor of legation to the embassy at London. After the peace of Amiens, Correa resigned this post, and resided 11 years at Paris, where the institute

elected him a member. In 1813, his scientific zeal carried him to the U. States of North America. While here, the government of Portugal appointed him minister plenipotentiary to the U. States.

Correction of the Press. As it is of much importance for every one who appears in print to be able to correct the errors which occur in setting up the types, we have thought that a short account of the characters employed by printers for this purpose might be acceptable to many of our readers. The first impression taken from the types is called a *proof;* and almost always contains more or fewer errors. If the person who corrects these does not understand the various signs used in correcting by the printers, he is very liable to have his meaning mistaken; and many of the errors which occur in books are to be referred to this source. Of the printers' signs, the most important are those which follow:—When a wrong word or letter occurs, a mark is made through it, and the proper word or letter written in the margin against the line in which the error occurs. If a word or letter is omitted, a caret (ʌ) is placed under the place where it should have stood, and the omission is written in the margin. If a superfluous letter occurs, it is crossed out, and the character ⅆ, signifying *dele*, written in the margin. Where words are improperly joined, a caret is written under the place where the separation should be made, and the character # written in the margin. When syllables are improperly separated, they are joined by a horizontal parenthesis; as, du ty. This parenthesis is to be made in the margin, as well as at the break. When words are transposed, they are to be connected by a curved line, as, not is, when set up for "is not," and the character *tr.* is to be written in the margin. When a letter is inverted, the mistake is pointed out by such a character as ⅁ in the margin. When marks of punctuation are omitted, a caret is put where the mark should have been inserted, and the comma or period, &c., is placed in the margin, enclosed in a circle; as, (,). If a mark of quotation has been omitted, the caret is made as before, and a character of this sort ⅄ or ⅄ placed in the margin. Words which are to be printed in Italics are marked beneath with a single line; as, office: if in small capitals, with two lines; as, Greece: if in large capitals, with three; as, James. Where these marks are used in correction, the abbreviations *Ital.*, *small caps.* and *caps.* should be written in the margin. Where a word printed in Italics is to be altered to Roman letters, a line is to be drawn under it, and the abbreviation *Rom.* is to be written in the margin. Where a corrector, after altering a word, changes his mind, and prefers to let it stand, dots are placed under it, and the word *stet* is written in the margin. When a hyphen is omitted, a caret is made under the place where it should be, and such a character as this (-) placed in the margin. The omission of a dash is pointed out in the same way, only the enclosed line in the margin is made a little longer. When a break is made, so as to produce a division into paragraphs, where this was not intended, the end of the one and the beginning of the other paragraph are connected by a curved line ⌒, and the words *no break* are to be written in the margin. Where a new paragraph is to be made, a caret is inserted, and this mark ¶ placed in the margin. Where blemishes, such as crooked lines, &c., appear, it is sufficient to call the printer's attention by a dash of the pen to the place. It is always to be kept in mind, that the printer will not make any alteration in the text, unless his attention is drawn to it by characters in the margin. Persons correcting the press would do well to recollect, that no considerable amount of matter can be inserted into or taken from a page, without requiring the whole page of types to be deranged; and, as the length of the page is affected by the alteration, it must be adjusted at the expense of the next page, and so on; so that all the following pages may have to be disturbed. It is therefore very desirable, when an addition is made amounting to more than a few letters, to strike out something of about equal length in the vicinity; so, when an erasure of more than a few letters is made, it is desirable to introduce an addition, of about the same amount, near the place where it occurs.

In the early times of the art of printing, more attention was paid than at present to the correction of the press, the books then printed being comparatively few and important, and superintended by learned men in their progress through the press; while, in modern times, innumerable publications of temporary interest are sent forth in great haste. Some of the old presses are celebrated for great correct-

ness, and the works which have issued from them, therefore, are held in high esteem; e. g. the publications of the Aldus-es, the Stephenses, &c. It was not uncommon in those times for the proof-sheets to be hung up in some public place, that any body might have an opportunity of detecting errors. From this custom the proof-sheets are still called, in German, *Aushängebogen* (sheets hung out). Some modern presses have been distinguished; and, in the case of particular works, consisting wholly or in part of tables of figures, or of arithmetical calculations, a reward has been offered for every error discovered. In the preface to Vega's logarithmic tables, two louis d'ors are offered for every erratum detected. On the whole, however, more attention has been paid, in modern times, to elegance than to correctness of execution. Some of the English newspapers deserve much credit for their correctness, considering the rapidity with which much of their contents is printed, as in the case of parliamentary speeches, delivered late at night, perhaps after midnight, and given to the public early the next morning. The Germans, who are distinguished, in so many respects, for laborious accuracy, yet print with less correctness than the other great literary nations. Some of the editions of the works of their first authors have two or three pages of errata.

Correggio, Antonio Allegri, frequently called *Antonio da Correggio*, from the place of his birth, was born, in 1494, at Correggio, in the duchy of Modena, and was intended for a learned profession; but nature had designed him for an artist. It has not been ascertained how much he was indebted to his instructer, who was probably his uncle Lorenzo Allegri. His genius pointed out to him the way to immortality. It is related that once, after having viewed a picture of the great Raphael, he exclaimed, *Anch' io sono pittore* (I also am a painter); but it is not proved that Correggio ever was in Rome; and in Parma and Modena, where, according to D'Argensville, he might have seen works of Raphael, there were none at that time; so that this story wants confirmation. That Correggio, without having seen either the works of the ancient masters, or the *chefs-d'œuvre* of the moderns who preceded him, should have become a model for his successors, by the unassisted energies of his genius, renders him so much the more deserving of our admiration. Three qualities will always be admired in him—grace, harmony, and a skilful management of the pencil. There is a peculiar grace in the movements of his figures, and a loveliness in their expression, which takes possession of the soul. These attitudes and movements could not be executed by any artist, without his masterly skill in foreshortening, which not only gives greater variety to a piece, but is also favorable to gracefulness. Avoiding all roughness and hardness, Correggio sought to win the soul by mild and almost effeminate beauties. He strove to obtain this object also by harmony of coloring, of which he may be called the creator. He is unrivalled in the *chiar oscuro;* that is, in the disposition of the light; in the grace and rounding of his figures, and in the faculty of giving them the appearance of advancing and retiring, which is the distinguishing excellence of the Lombard school, of which he may be considered the head. In his drapery, he calculated with extreme accuracy all the effects of the *chiar oscuro.* He possessed the power of passing, by the most graceful transition, from the bright colors to the half tints. It was ever his object to make the principal figure prominent, that the eye, after gazing till it was satisfied on the bright colors, might repose with pleasure on the softer masses. He made a skilful use of this art in his Night (*la notte di Correggio*), which is to be seen in the gallery in Dresden, where there are seven pictures in which his progress in the art may be recognised. That this artist was imbued with the spirit of poetry, is proved by the allusions which he sometimes introduced into his pictures; for example, the white hare in the Zingara (*Gipsy*), in Dresden and Naples (a Madonna, which has received this name from the Oriental style of the drapery and head-dress); and the goldfinch, in the Marriage of St. Catharine, at Naples. By the nearness of these timorous animals, the idea of the innocence and purity of the persons delineated is strongly represented, and the stillness and repose of the scene is forcibly impressed on the mind. Among his best pictures, besides the Night, are, the St. Jerome, which has kindled the admiration of several distinguished painters to such a degree as to render them unjust towards Raphael; the Penitent Magdalen; the altar-pieces of St. Francis, St. George and St. Sebastian; Christ in the Garden of Olives (in Spain); Cupid (in Vienna); the fresco painting, in Parma; and, above all, the paintings on the ceiling of the cathedral, in the same city. He died in 1534. The story of his extreme poverty, and of his death in consequence of it, has been

long since disproved, yet Oehlenschläger has made it the subject of one of his best tragedies in German and Danish.

Corregidor, in Spain and Portugal; a magistrate; a police judge with appellate jurisdiction.

Corrèze; a French department, formed of a part of what was the Lower Limousin. (See *Departments.*)

Corridor (*Italian* and *Spanish*), in architecture; a gallery or long aisle leading to several chambers at a distance from each other, sometimes wholly enclosed, sometimes open on one side. In fortification, *corridor* signifies the same as *covert-way*, which see.

Corrientes, Las; a town of Buenos Ayres, in Santa Fé, at the union of the Parana and Paraguay, 440 miles north of Buenos Ayres; lon. 60° 36′ W.; lat. 27° 50′ S.; population, about 4500.

Corrosives (from *corrodere*, to eat away), in surgery, are medicines which corrode whatever part of the body they are applied to; such are burnt alum, white precipitate of mercury, white vitriol, red precipitate of mercury, butter of antimony, lapis infernalis, &c.

Corrosive Sublimate. (See *Mercury.*)

Corruption of Blood. (See *Attainder.*)

Corsairs (from the Italian *corso*, the act of running, incursion) are pirates who cruise after and capture merchant vessels. Commonly those pirates only which sail from Algiers, Tunis, Tripoli, and the ports of Morocco, are called *corsairs*. Those ships which, in time of war, are licensed by European or American governments to seize upon hostile ships, are called *privateers*. Lord Byron's Corsair, it is well known, derives its name from the character of the hero.

Corset; an article of dress, especially intended to preserve or display the beauties of the female form. Its name appears to have been derived from its peculiar action of tightening or compressing the body, and may be compounded of the French words *corps* and *serrer*.—The influence of female charms, among civilized people, has, in all ages, been extensive and beneficial, and the sex have always regarded the possession of beauty as their richest endowment, and thought its acquisition to be cheaply made at any expense of fortune. To this cause may be attributed the origin of the cosmetic arts, with their countless baneful and innocent prescriptions, for restoring smoothness to the skin, and reviving the delicate roses upon cheeks too rudely visited by sickness or time. The preservation or production of beauty of form, as even more admired than mere regularity of features, or from being, apparently, more attainable by art, received an early and ample share of attention, and has largely exercised the ingenuity of the fair aspirants for love and admiration. It is our office now to aid them to the utmost in attaining their wishes, by indicating the true principles upon which the corset should be constructed, and the attentions necessary to secure all the advantages of its application. Of the *abuse* of this instrument of the toilet, and the dire catalogue of miseries it often occasions, the writer has elsewhere spoken at large, and readers are referred thereto, who are desirous of ascertaining what great evils may flow from an apparently trifling cause.*—To prevent the form from too early showing the inroads of time; to guard it from slight inelegances, resulting from improper position, or the character of exterior drapery; to secure the beauteous proportions of the bust from compression or displacement; and, at once, agreeably to display the general contour of the figure, without impeding the gracefulness of its motions, or the gentle undulations caused by natural respiration, are the legitimate objects of the corset. For this purpose, it should be composed of the smoothest and most elastic materials, should be accurately adapted to the individual wearer, so that no point may receive undue pressure, and should never be drawn so tight as to interfere with perfectly free breathing, or with graceful attitudes and movements. It is obvious that such corsets should be entirely destitute of those barbarous innovations of steel and whalebone, which, by causing disease, have thrown them into disrepute, and which, under no circumstances, can add to the value of the instrument, when worn by a well-formed individual. Such hurtful appliances were first resorted to by the ugly, deformed or diseased, who, having no natural pretensions to figure, pleased themselves with the hope of being able, by main strength, exerted upon steel-ribbed, whaleboned and padded corsets, to squeeze themselves into delicate proportions. If, however, it be remembered that the use of corsets is to preserve and display a fine figure, not to *make* one, and that they are to be secondary to a judicious course of diet and exercise, it will be readily perceived that such injurious agents are utterly uncalled

* See an essay on the evils caused by tight lacing, appended to Godman's addresses delivered on various occasions, Philad. 1829.

for in their composition. By selecting a material proportioned, in its thickness and elasticity, to the size, age, &c., of the wearer, and by a proper employment of quilting and wadding, they may be made of any proper or allowable degree of stiffness. If it be then accurately fitted to the shape of the individual, and laced no tighter than to apply it comfortably, all the advantages of the corset may be fully obtained. But such, unfortunately, is not the course generally pursued. Ladies purchase corsets of the most fashionable makers, and of the most fashionable patterns and materials, regardless of the peculiarities of their own figures, which may require a construction and material of very different description. Hence it often happens that females, naturally endowed with fine forms, wear corsets designed for such as are disproportionately thick or thin, and destroy the graceful ease of their movements, by hedging themselves in the steel and whalebone originally intended to reduce the superabundant corpulence of some luxurious dowager. As no two human figures are precisely alike, it is absolutely requisite that the corset should be suited with the minutest accuracy to the wearer; and a naturally good figure cannot derive advantage from any corset but one constructed and adapted in the manner above indicated. Slight irregularities or defects may be remedied or rendered inconspicuous, by judicious application of wadding, or by interposing an additional thickness of the cloth. But it should be remembered that certain changes occur to the female frame, after the cares of maternity have commenced, which are absolutely unavoidable. Among these, the general enlargement or filling up of the figure is the most observable, but is never productive of inelegance, unless it take place very disproportionately. The undue enlargement of the bust and waist is most dreaded, and the attempt to restrain their developement by mere force has led to the most pernicious abuse of the corset. There is no doubt but that a judiciously fitted corset, whose object should be to support and gently compress, might, in such cases, be advantageously worn; but, at the same time, it must be thoroughly understood, that the corset can only be really beneficial when combined with a proper attention to diet and exercise. Thus many ladies, who dread the disfigurement produced by obesity, and constantly wear the most unyielding and uncomfortable corsets, lead an entirely inactive life, and indulge in rich and luxurious food. Under such circumstances, it is vain to hope that beauty of figure can be maintained by corsets, or that they can effect any other purpose than that of cramping and restraining the movements, and causing discomfort to the wearer. On the other hand, proper exercise, and abstinence from all but the simplest food, would enable the corset to perform its part to the greatest advantage. There is another error, in relation to corsets, as prejudicial as it is general, and calling for the serious attention of all those concerned in the education of young ladies. This error is the belief that girls just approaching their majority should be constantly kept under the influence of corsets, in order to *form* their figures. They are therefore subjected to a discipline of strict lacing, at a period when, of all others, its tendency is to produce the most extensive mischief. At this time, all the organs of the body are in a state of energetic augmentation; and interference with the proper expansion of any one set is productive of permanent injury to the whole. So far from making a fine form, the tendency is directly the reverse, since the restraint of the corsets detrimentally interferes with the perfection of the frame. The muscles, being compressed and held inactive, neither acquire their due size nor strength; and a stiff, awkward carriage, with a thin, flat, ungraceful, inelegant person, is the too frequent result of such injudicious treatment. The corset of a girl, from her 12th or 15th year till her 21st, should be nothing more than a cotton jacket, made so as rather to brace her shoulders back, but without improper compression of the arm-pits, and devoid of all stiffening, but what is proper to the material of which it is made. At this age, slight imperfections of form, or inelegances of movement, are especially within the control of well-directed exercise and appropriate diet: force is utterly unavailing, and can have no other tendency than that of causing injury. We may conclude what we have to say on the use of the corset, by imbodying the whole in a few plain, general rules:—1st. Corsets should be made of smooth, soft, elastic materials. 2d. They should be accurately fitted and modified to suit the peculiarities of figure of each wearer. 3d. No other stiffening should be used but that of quilting or padding; the bones, steel, &c., should be left to the deformed or diseased, for whom they were originally intended. 4th. Corsets should never be drawn so tight as to impede regular, natural breathing, as, under all circumstances, the improvement of

figure is insufficient to compensate for the air of awkward restraint caused by such lacing. 5th. They should never be worn, either loosely or tightly, during the hours appropriated to sleep, as, by impeding respiration, and accumulating the heat of the system improperly, they invariably injure. 6th. The corset for young persons should be of the simplest character, and worn in the lightest and easiest manner, allowing their lungs full play, and giving the form its fullest opportunity for expansion.—At this remote period, it is impossible for us to say whether the corset, in some form, might not have belonged to the complex toilet of the ancient Israelitish ladies. We find the prophet Isaiah, in chap. iii, inveighing against their numerous and useless decorations—"the bravery of their tinkling ornaments about their feet, and their cauls, and their round tires like the moon, the chains, and the bracelets, and the mufflers, the bonnets, and the ornaments of the legs, and the head-bands, and the tablets, and the ear-rings, the rings and nose-jewels, the changeable suits of apparel, and the mantles, and the wimples, and the crisping-pins, the glasses, and the fine linen, and the hoods, and the vails." This catalogue, at least, shows that the disposition evinced by the fair sex to adorn their persons, and render them more attractive, is not of modern origin, but most probably originated with our great mother Eve. The earliest and most delightful record we have of a contrivance like the corset, among Ethnic writers, is Homer's account of the girdle, or cestus, of Venus, mother of the Loves and Graces, which even the haughty Juno is fabled to have borrowed, in order to make a more profound impression upon her rather unmanageable husband, Jupiter. This girdle was invested by the poet with magical qualities, which rendered the wearer irresistibly fascinating:—

> "In this was every art and every charm
> To win the wisest, and the coldest warm—
> Fond love, the gentle vow, the gay desire,
> The kind deceit, the still reviving fire,
> Persuasive speech, and more persuasive sighs,
> Silence that spoke, and eloquence of eyes."
> POPE, *Iliad*, book xiv, line 247, &c.

This, after all, we are persuaded, was nothing but such a corset as we have described in the beginning, worn by an elegant form, to which it was accurately adapted. Even Venus herself could not look otherwise than awkward and repulsive in one of the armadillo, shell-like machines, which are sold as fashionable, without regard to their inelegance. The costume of the ancient Greek ladies was, in every particular, opposed to stiffness or personal restraint; and we find that the cestus, or girdle, to gather the flowing redundance of their robes around the waist, was considered sufficient for the display of their enchanting forms. The Roman ladies were great adepts in the mysteries of the toilet, though not possessed of the grace and elegance of the Grecian beauties. We find among them rudiments of the corset, in the bandages which they wore around the chest, for the purpose of preserving the shape of the bosom, and displaying it to advantage. They were commonly made of woollen or linen cloth, and are alluded to, in several instances, by the poets. Thus, in Terence, we find Chærea saying to his servant, concerning an unknown beauty who attracted his attention—"This girl has nothing in common with ours, whom their mothers force to stoop, and make them bind their bosoms with bandages, in order to appear more slender" (*Haud similis virgo est virginum nostrarum, quas matres student demissis humeris, vincto pectore, ut gracilæ sient*). TER., *Eun.*—A writer in the French Dictionary of Medical Sciences, in an article on *corsets*, which the reader may compare with the present, states that the whaleboned corset, dividing the female form into two parts, is a relic of the ancient German costume, which is still to be seen in some pictures of celebrated masters. We are not, however, prepared to retract our opinion, that such contrivances were first resorted to in cases of deformity; for, on inquiry, we find that the German females, as described by the Roman writers, wore dresses tight to the person, though no mention is made of artificial contrivances to give it a peculiar form. The dress of both sexes was similar, consisting of a *sagum* or cloak clasped at the throat, and a vest or tunic which fitted tightly, and showed all the form. *Tegumen fuit sagum, fibula si defuisset, spina confertum; locupletissimi distinguebantur veste*, non fluxa, *sed* stricta, *ac pene singula membra exprimente: idem feminis habitus qui et viris.* B. AUBAMUS, *De Morib. etc. omn. Gent.* It might prove interesting to inquire into the influence which the costume of the mailed knights, during the age of chivalry, had upon female dress, and whether much of the disposition to display the entire figure, as far as possible, did not arise from this display constantly made by the male sex, in their closely-fitting armor. It would lead us too far, however, to engage in such an examination here; neither shall

we attempt to copy M. de Jouy's account of the thoracic corset of the Bayaderes of India (a finely-woven net made of bark, which is worn about the bust, and never laid aside), as having but little relation to the objects we have in view.—Throughout our observations, we have spoken of a certain degree of display of the female form, as not incompatible with correctness of manners. But there is a limit which, we believe, cannot be exceeded without immediate detriment to public morals, and positive offence to delicacy. A spirit of rivalry and emulation to excel in dress has frequently betrayed females of unquestionable character into wearing costumes which their modesty would shrink from under ordinary circumstances. Perhaps a majority of them, exclusively intent upon their own adornment, do not reflect upon the consequences that may result from their appearance in public. It is certainly exacting a great deal of young men, in the full vigor of life, to expect them to behold, unmoved, the most seductive of forms displayed with all the allurements of dress, in such a manner as scarcely to leave any thing for the imagination; nor is it surprising, that their passions should be excited, and their principles shaken, when, in the street, in church, and, in short, every where, such exhibitions are constantly placed before them. It cannot be doubted, but that this cause daily operates to the deterioration of public morals; and it is full time that it should receive the serious attention of parents and guardians. There was a time when this mode of dressing to display every personal charm was peculiar to an unfortunate class of beings, regarded as lost to all the modesty and dignity of the sex; but it is a melancholy truth, that this distinction between the lost and the reputable no longer exists in our great cities, where leaders of fashion and celebrated beauties, claiming the highest rank and character, are most remarkable for the solicitude with which they prepare their lovely persons to be gazed at and admired, in all their proportions, by the passing crowd! We should not have alluded to this subject, did we not hope that a slight animadversion upon its evil tendency would help to produce its correction. It has an immediate influence in lowering the sex in the estimation of men, since it lessens their reverence for beings they would otherwise always look upon with deep respect; and surely the fair sex have not yet to learn, that modest reserve and retiring delicacy are among the most potent auxiliaries of their charms. That they should rush into the extreme we have deprecated, appears to result merely from inattention; and we sincerely hope that but a short time will elapse before they will strictly respect the boundaries established by good sense and good taste, united with the lovely purity inherent in their sex, remembering the exclamation of the poet—

"O! Beauty is a holy thing
When *veiled and curtained from the sight*
Of the gross world, illumining
One only mansion with her light."
Lalla Rookh.

Corsica, the third in size of the Italian islands, is separated from the northern coast of Sardinia by the straits of Bonifacio, which are 10 miles in breadth. It is about 50 miles distant from Tuscany, and 100 from France. It contains 3790 square miles, 18 large towns, of which 4 are seaports (with 3 harbors, capable of containing large fleets), 5 market-towns, 560 villages, including 63 *pièves*, or cultivated valleys, and 180,400 inhabitants. San Fiorenzo, which has fine roads for ships to anchor in, ought to be the capital, and to be fortified. A range of mountains, with numerous branches, traverses the whole extent of the island, and, near the middle, rises to such an elevation, that the snow remains on the summits during the greater part of the year. The *monte Rotondo* and the *monte d'Oro* (from 8 to 9000 feet in height) are covered with perpetual snows. This chain of mountains consists, in part, of precipitous rocks, and is, in part, overspread with forests. A number of small rivers, of which the Golo alone is navigable, flow easterly and westerly into the sea. Most of these frequently become dry in summer. The eastern coast is more flat than the western, on which are most of the inlets of the sea. The climate is mild, since the heat of the sun is rendered less oppressive by the high mountains and sea breezes. The air, in many parts of the island, owing to the many lakes of stagnant water, is unhealthy; and these districts have, consequently, become desolate. The soil is very fertile, particularly in the valleys and near the coast; for which reason the inhabitants, although very inattentive to agriculture, yet reap a sufficient supply of grain for their necessities (with the exception of oats, which are not produced there). The lower order of Corsicans subsist, commonly, on chestnuts, and seldom obtain wheat bread. Wine, which resembles the Malaga and French wines, notwithstanding the negli-

gent mode of cultivation, is obtained in abundance. The island also produces much flax, and oranges, which form an article of export, in perfection. It is covered with forests of chestnut and oak-trees, great quantities of olive-trees, fir-trees and birch-trees, which reach the elevation of from 120 to 130 feet. The breeding of cattle is carried on here to a great extent; but the horse, ass and mule are of a small breed: the horned cattle are, indeed, large, but very lean; and the wool of the sheep is coarse. The tunny, anchovy, and oyster fisheries afford the inhabitants one of their principal employments. The mountains contain various kinds of minerals; and yet the art of working mines is almost wholly unknown. The iron is celebrated for its good qualities.—The Corsicans are still nearly in a state of nature. The majority of them are Italians, and profess the Catholic religion. Industry is unknown. Even the most necessary mechanics are wanting: each one makes for himself almost every thing he has need of. Their habitations, furniture and clothing are miserable, and there is a great want of good seminaries for education. Valor, love of freedom, indolence, and desire of revenge, are the characteristics of the Corsicans. As late as the year 1822, the prefect of Corsica, in a pamphlet, urged the French government to legalize the practice of duelling there, because the quarrels of the inhabitants often became hereditary feuds. Until the first Punic war, the Carthaginians were masters of this island. They were succeeded by the Romans. In later times, Corsica was, for a long time, under the dominion of the Vandals, and afterwards passed successively into the hands of the Greek emperors and the Goths. In 850, the Corsicans were conquered by the Saracens, who held them in subjection until the beginning of the 11th century; at which time they fell under the dominion of Pisa. In 1284, this island submitted to the dominion of the Genoese, who had before, in 806, subdued it, but were unable to retain possession of it for a long time. Exasperated by the oppressions of the Genoese government during 400 years, the Corsicans took up arms, in 1729, and, since that time, have never submitted to the Genoese. Genoa called in the imperial forces in 1730, and the French, in 1738, to their assistance. In 1736, baron Theodore von Neuhof (see *Theodore*), a Westphalian, so won the affections of the Corsicans, that they elected him king, under the name of *Theodore I.* He left them, upon the landing of the French, to seek for foreign aid. The French evacuated the island, on the breaking out of the German war, in 1741, and another insurrection took place. In 1755, the Corsican senate appointed Pascal Paoli (q. v.) their general, who conducted their affairs with so much success, that the Genoese, even with the assistance of the troops of the French garrisons (after 1764), were able to retain in their possession only a few maritime towns, with the capital, Bastia, and renounced the hope of ever bringing the island again into subjection. They, therefore, in 1768, abandoned these places to France, by a treaty, which Spinola and the duke of Choiseul concluded at Paris, in which it was stipulated, that the king of France should reduce the island, and govern it until the republic should repay the expenses of the war. This convention was a mere subterfuge to deceive the English, and to save the senate from the reproach of a sale. The French thought that the subjugation of Corsica could be effected by a small military force; but Paoli, in the expectation of assistance from England, made so spirited a resistance, that the expedition soon cost the French 30,000,000 livres, although they had gained no important advantages. The number of the French troops was afterwards increased, so that they amounted to 30,000 men, under the marshal de Vaux. England still remained inactive; and, in several actions, the Corsicans were so unmindful of their duty, that Paoli, in despair, gave up all thoughts of resistance, and, in June, 1769, fled to England, where he was supported by a pension from the king. A partisan warfare was, however, maintained in the mountains until 1774. At the time of the French revolution, Corsica was incorporated with France, as a separate department, and sent deputies to the national convention. Paoli now returned to his native land; but the terrorists required his presence at Paris, where he would inevitably have been put to death. He therefore unfurled the banner of the Death's head (the old Corsican arms), and summoned his countrymen to his standard. With the assistance of the English, who landed Feb. 18, 1794, he reduced Bastia, May 22, and Calvi, Aug. 4. The Corsicans submitted to the British sceptre, in a general convention of deputies, at Corte, June 18, 1794. Corsica was constituted a kingdom, under the government of a viceroy (Elliot); the constitution and laws of England were adopted; and a parliament, such as

Ireland had, was established. But a large part of the people were averse to the English, whom they regarded as heretics, and the French party again appeared on the island, in Oct., 1796, under general Gentili. Sickness rendered the situation of the English very critical: their power was still further weakened by the reduction of the neighboring city of Leghorn, by the French, in 1796; and, in consequence, they evacuated Corsica. Since 1811, the island has formed a French department, of which Bastia is the capital. The revenue received from the island by France, in 1821, amounted only to 500,000 francs, while the administration of it costs the crown, yearly, the sum of 3,000,000 francs. (See *Memoirs of Napoleon, Fourth Part* (London, 1824), by count Montholon; *Sketches of Corsica in* 1823, *with Specimens of its National Poetry*, by Robert Benson (London, 1825, with 51 copperplate engravings); and Boswell's *Account of Corsica.*)

Corso. The Corso is one of the principal streets in Rome, and, like the chief streets in many Italian cities (Florence, for example), derives its name from the horse-races which enliven the evenings of the carnival. The Corso, at Rome, is nearly 3500 paces in length, and is enclosed by high and mostly splendid edifices; but its breadth is not proportionate; so that, in most parts, not above three carriages can go abreast. The higher class of citizens take the air in carriages, which form a very long row. This evening promenade, which, in all large Italian cities is splendid, and is imitated in very small towns (although it may have only a few coaches), attracts great numbers of spectators on foot. The carnival is the gayest of the festivals; and, at this time, the Corso appears in its greatest splendor. (See Göthe's description of the Roman carnival and the Corso.)

Cortes. The cortes was the old assembly of the estates in Spain and Portugal. In Spain, the cortes of Castile, which was composed of the nobility of the first rank, the superior ecclesiastics, the knights of the orders of St. James, Calatrava and Alcantara, and the representatives of certain cities, held the first rank during the time of the united Spanish monarchy. In early times, the king was very dependent upon them; indeed, they were invested with the power of making war, and frequently exercised it in opposition to the throne. In the original constitution of Arragon, the form of government was very remarkable. A supreme judge, called *el justizia*, selected from persons of the second class, presided over the administration of the government. He decided all questions and disputes between the king and his subjects, and confined the royal power within the constitutional limits. King Ferdinand of Arragon and Isabella of Castile succeeded in rendering themselves independent of the estates (*las cortes*); and afterwards, when the Castilians dared to resist an unconstitutional tax, at a meeting convoked at Toledo, by Charles, in 1538, the king abolished this assembly of the estates. After this, neither the clergy nor nobility were assembled: deputies from 18 cities were sometimes, however, convened, but this only in case subsidies were to be granted. Philip II restrained the liberties of the Arragonese in 1591. After the Spanish war of succession, Philip V deprived those provinces which had adhered to the Austrian party of the privileges that still remained to them. From that time, the cortes were convened only to pay homage to the king, or the prince of Asturias, or when a question respecting the succession to the throne was to be determined. But when Napoleon attempted to extend his influence over Spain (see the articles *Ferdinand VII*, and *Spain since* 1808), he convoked (June 15, 1808) a junta of the cortes at Bayonne. In their last session (June 7, 1812), a new constitution was adopted by them. The 9th article regulated the powers and duties of the cortes, and provided that they should consist of 25 archbishops, 25 nobles, and 122 representatives of the people. Napoleon afterwards attempted, by offering to restore the cortes to their ancient importance, to gain over the Spanish nobility, and, through them, the people, but failed. (In regard to the new cortes in *Spain* and *Portugal*, see those articles.) In 1828, don Miguel assembled the cortes of Portugal, in order to be acknowledged by them, and to give his usurpation an appearance of legitimacy.

Cortez, Fernando, the conqueror of Mexico, born in 1485, at Medelin, in Estremadura, went to the West Indies in 1504, where Velasquez, governor of Cuba, gave him the command of a fleet, which he sent on a voyage of discovery. Cortez quitted San-Iago, Nov. 18, 1518, with 10 vessels, 600 Spaniards, 18 horses, and some field-pieces. He landed in the gulf of Mexico. The sight of the horses, on which the Spaniards were mounted; the movable fortresses, in which they had crossed the ocean; the iron which covered

them; the noise of the cannon;—all these objects alarmed the natives. Cortez entered the town of Mexico Nov. 18, 1519. Montezuma, the sovereign of the country, received him as his master; and the inhabitants, it is said, thought him a god and a child of the sun. He destroyed the idols in the temples, to whom human sacrifices were offered, and placed in their room images of the virgin Mary and of the saints. In the mean time, he made continual progress towards getting possession of the country, forming alliances with several caciques, enemies to Montezuma, and assuring himself of the others by force or stratagem. On a general of Montezuma attacking the Spaniards, in obedience to a secret order, Cortez repaired to the imperial palace, had the commander and his officers burnt alive, and forced the emperor, while in chains, to acknowledge, publicly, the sovereignty of Charles V. The unhappy monarch added to this homage a present of a large quantity of pure gold, and a number of precious stones. But the jealousy of Velasquez was so much excited by the deeds of his representative, that he sent an army against him. Cortez, reinforced by fresh troops from Spain, advanced to meet it, gained over the soldiers who bore arms against him, and, with their assistance, again made war with the Mexicans, who had also revolted against their own emperor, Montezuma, whom they accused of treachery. After Montezuma, who had hoped to restore tranquillity by showing himself to the multitude, had fallen a victim to their rage, Guatimozin, his nephew and son-in-law, was acknowledged as emperor by the Mexicans, and gained some advantages over the Spaniards. He defended his crown during three months, but could not withstand the Spanish artillery. Cortez again took possession of Mexico, and, in 1521, the emperor, the empress, the ministers, and the whole court, were in his power. The unhappy Guatimozin was subjected to horrid cruelties to make him disclose the place where his treasures were concealed, and was afterwards executed with a great number of his nobles. The court of Madrid now became jealous of the power of Cortez, who had been, some time before, appointed captain-general and governor of Mexico. Commissioners were sent to inspect and control his measures; his property was seized; his dependants were imprisoned, and he repaired to Spain. He was received with much distinction, and returned to Mexico with an increase of titles, but a diminution of power. A viceroy had charge of the civil administration, and Cortez was intrusted only with the military command and the privilege of prosecuting his discoveries. The division of powers proved a constant source of dissension; and, though he discovered the peninsula of California in 1536, most of his enterprises were frustrated, his life imbittered, and he returned again to Spain, where he was coldly received and neglected. One day, having forced his way through a crowd round the carriage of his king, and put his foot on the step to obtain an audience, Charles coldly inquired who he was. "I am a man," replied Cortez, "who has gained you more provinces than your father left you towns." He passed the remainder of his days in solitude, and died Dec., 1554, near Seville, in the 63d year of his age, leaving a character eminent for bravery and ability, but infamous for perfidy and cruelty.

Cortona, a fortified town of Tuscany, contains 7 churches (including the cathedral) and 12 convents. It is a place of great antiquity. Population, 4000. It lies 45 miles S. E. Florence.

Cortona, properly *Pietro Berretini*, a painter and architect, was born in 1596. He was commonly called *Pietro di Cortona*, from the name of his native town, Cortona in Tuscany. He acquired the first rudiments of his art under his father, Giovanni, who was also a painter and architect, and afterwards studied with Andreas Commodi and Baccio Ciarpi at Rome. At the commencement of his studies, his awkwardness was so remarkable, that his fellow students called him *ass's head*. Nevertheless, he devoted himself to the study of the antiques, and of the great masters, Raphael, Caravaggio and Michael Angelo, and unexpectedly made his appearance as an artist, with the Rape of the Sabines. The Birth of Christ, in the church of Our Lady of Loretto, established his reputation. His painting, on the ceiling of the large saloon in the Barberini palace, representing the Triumph of Honor, is a very happy effort. Mengs declares it one of the grandest compositions ever executed by a painter. He afterwards travelled through Lombardy, the Venetian states and Tuscany, where he painted the ceilings of the Palazzo Pitti in Florence, and thence returned to Rome. During this journey, he was constantly employed as a painter and architect. He was subsequently attacked by the gout, and could not, in consequence, ascend the stagings: he therefore employed himself in the execution of easel pictures, which,

although of less value than his larger works, are held in great estimation: they are very rare. Alexander VII made him a knight of the order of the golden spur, as a reward for the embellishment of the colonnade of the church Della Pace. He died in 1669, and obtained an honorable burial in the church dedicated to St. Luke, at Rome, where he had immortalized himself by the design of the altar of St. Martina. Cortona sacrificed truth to pleasing effect. This object, however, he did not attain. The defects of his drawing, which is rather heavy, were redeemed by the fertility of invention, the attractive charms of his young female figures (although it is objected to them that they are too uniform), and the fresh coloring of his harmonious tints. This last quality is an excellence peculiar to him, and which no other artist has attained in an equal degree, either before or since his time.

Corundum, sometimes called also, from its hardness and peculiar lustre, *adamantine spar*, is of a grayish, greenish tint, occasionally reddish; more rarely blue, yellow and black. It is translucent or opaque. Its specific gravity varies from 3.975 to 4.161. In hardness, it ranks next to the diamond. It occurs, crystallized, in the form of the regular six-sided prism, and also in acute and obtuse hexaedral pyramids. It is also found granular and compact. It consists almost wholly of pure clay, or alumine, sometimes containing 4 or 5 per cent. of silex or lime. The blue variety, when transparent, goes by the name of the *sapphire*; the rose red or the violet, which is sometimes *chatoyant*, is called the *Oriental ruby*. Both of these rank, as gems, next to the diamond. They are found in the sands of rivers, and among alluvial matter in Ceylon. The common corundum is found in a granite rock in India, also at Mont St. Gothard, and in Piedmont. A granular variety of corundum, containing considerable iron, is called *emery*. It is found in the island of Naxos, in rolled masses, at the foot of primitive mountains. Its powder is well known in commerce, and greatly valued as a polishing substance.

Corunna, a seaport of Spain, in the province of Galicia, on the north-west coast, on a peninsula at the entrance of the bay of Betanzos. The streets of the upper town are narrow and ill paved. The lower town stands on a small tongue of land, and has tolerably broad and clean streets. The chief objects of interest are the royal arsenal, and an ancient tower, admired for its elevation and solidity. The harbor is spacious and secure, and is protected by two castles. About three miles from the harbor is a light-house. In 1809, the British were attacked at this place, previous to embarking, and their general, sir John Moore, was killed. Population, 4000. 30 miles N. W. Lago. Lon. 8° 20′ 23″ W.; lat. 43° 23′ 32″ N.

Corvée (*French*, from *cura viæ*, care of the road); the obligation of the inhabitants of a certain district to do certain labor, for the feudal lord or the sovereign, gratis or for pay. As the name shows, *corvée* originally meant compulsory labor on roads, bridges, &c., but it is applied also to other feudal services. Generally, of course, the payment for such services is much below the wages of ordinary labor. In some cases, however, the *corvées* have been considered as a privilege, and people have insisted on their right to perform the services, and to receive the pay for them; as the tenth part, for threshing, &c. In some parts of Germany, they still exist. In Prussia, they were abolished under Hardenberg's administration. In France, the revolution extirpated this relic of the feudal times.

Corvette (*French*); a vessel of war having fewer than 20 guns.

Corvey, in the Prussian province of Westphalia, 15 leagues S. E. of Minden, famous, in former times, as *Corbeia Nova*; a Benedictine convent on the Weser, which, with the convent of Fulda, was one of the first centres of civilization in Germany. It was built in the sixth century. The history of this interesting convent is important with reference to the history of the civilization of the middle ages. (See *Theatrum illustr. Viror. Corbeiæ Saxonicæ*, Jena, 1686, 4to.; and Leibnitz's *Introduct. ad Script. Brunsvic.*, vol. i, page 26 et seq.) Wittekind, the historiographer of the convent, and many other learned men, were educated here. From Corvey proceeded Ansgar, the "apostle of the North." In 1794, Corvey was made a bishopric. In 1802, the bishopric was abolished, and Corvey given to the prince of Nassau and Orange; in 1807, it was assigned to Westphalia; in 1815, to Prussia; in 1822, it was made a mediatised principality (106 square miles, 10,000 inhabitants). The magnificent cathedral contains many monuments. In 1819, Paul Wigand published a history of the abbey of Corvey.

Corvisart, Jean Nicolas, baron, a distinguished French physician, was born at Dricourt, in the present department of the Ardennes, Feb. 15, 1755. His father,

procureur to the parliament of Paris, wished to educate him for the law; but an invincible inclination for medical studies led him into a different career, in which he was soon distinguished for his intelligence and his extensive learning. He succeeded Rochefort as physician to the *hôpital de la charité*, and was the first professor of internal clinics in France. He was chief physician to the first consul (1802), and afterwards to the emperor (to whom he was faithfully attached, but with whom he had not, according to the *Mémoire* of him by baron Cuvier, any political influence, as some have asserted), professor in the *collège de France* from 1797, member of the imperial institute, &c. Corvisart's great merit was not overlooked after the restoration. The place of honorary member of the royal academy of medicine was conferred on him just before his death, which happened Sept. 18, 1821. Corvisart felt that the most distinguished practitioner of medicine has not performed his whole duty to his science, unless he leaves some memorial of his experience. He translated some important works, with commentaries, and was the author of several valuable treatises. His two principal works are a Treatise on Diseases of the Heart, and a Commentary on the work of Auenbrugger, a German physician, published in 1763, at Vienna. In 1770, it was translated into French, but so much forgotten, that Corvisart says, "I could have sacrificed Auenbrugger's name to my vanity, but I did not choose to do so: I only wish to revive his beautiful discovery." His place in the French academy of sciences has been filled by M. Magendie, and his chair in the college of France had been occupied by M. Hallé for several years before the time of his death.

Corybantes (*Curetes*, *Idæi Dactyli*, among the Romans, a peculiar order of priests called *Galli*) are said to have derived their origin from Corybas, son of Cybele and Jasion, who appointed them to perform religious service to his mother, the goddess Cybele, in the island of Crete and in Phrygia. According to much more ancient traditions, they were descendants of Vulcan. The story of their clashing together instruments of forged metal, when Rhea gave them the infant Jupiter, in order to prevent Saturn from hearing his cries, seems to have some connexion with this tradition. According to Apollodorus, the Corybantes were sons of Apollo and Thalia; according to others, of Apollo and Rhetia.

Cos, or Coos; an island in the Ægæan sea (now *Stanchio* or *Stincho*), on the coast of Asia Minor, opposite the towns of Halicarnassus and Cnidos (95 square miles, 4000 inhabitants); the land of Apelles and Hippocrates. Here was a celebrated temple of Æsculapius. In Cos was manufactured a fine, semi-transparent kind of silk, much valued by the ancients.

Cosel; a small, yet not unimportant fortified town, on the left bank of the Upper Oder, in Upper Silesia (197 houses and 3600 inhabitants); first fortified by Frederic the Great, after the conquest of Silesia. It has been several times besieged in vain.

Cosel, countess of; one of the many mistresses of the prodigal Augustus II, king of Poland and elector of Saxony. She was the wife of the Saxon minister Hoymb, who, well knowing the king's disposition, kept her far from court; but, on one occasion, when excited by wine, he praised her so much to the king, that the latter ordered her to be brought to Dresden. She was soon divorced from Hoymb, and appeared at court as the countess of Cosel, the mistress of the king. A palace was built for her, still called the *Cosel palace*, which was pre-eminent for magnificence and luxury. The furniture alone cost 200,000 Saxon dollars (150,000 Spanish). It must be remembered that the king had no income from Poland; on the contrary, the royal dignity was a source of great expense to the elector; thus the little electorate had to support, unaided, the enormous extravagance of its ruler. For nine years, the countess succeeded in preserving the king's favor, and exercised an arbitrary sway in affairs of government. At last, she fell into disgrace, and was dismissed from the king's presence. She retired into Prussia, and was afterwards arrested at Halle, at the request of Augustus, and carried to Stolpe, in Saxony, where she remained imprisoned 45 years, and died 80 years old. So much power had she over the king, when in favor, that dollars and florins were actually coined, bearing the stamp of the royal arms in conjunction with those of the countess. She is one among many similar instances of the advantages which legitimacy brings in its train, subjecting nations to the control of profligate monarchs, who are governed by equally profligate mistresses.

Cosenza (anciently *Cosentia*); a city of Naples, capital of Calabria Citra, situated on seven small hills, at the foot of the

Apennines; 145 miles S. E. Naples; lon. 16° 27′ E.; lat. 39° 22′ N.; population, 7989. The metropolitan is the only church within the walls; but there are three parish churches in the faubourgs. There are 12 convents. The environs are beautiful, populous and well cultivated, producing abundance of corn, fruit, oil, wine and silk. This town was anciently the capital of the Brutii, and a place of consequence in the second Punic war. Cosenza has frequently suffered from earthquakes, particularly in the year 1638.

Cosmetics (from κοσμέω, I ornament, beautify); means for preserving or increasing the beauty of the human body. Every one knows that such means are used by the most savage, as well as the most civilized, nations; that cosmetics have afforded a rich harvest to charlatans; and that it is very difficult to find good ones among the numberless bad ones.

Cosmo I of Medici. (See *Medici.*)

Cosmogony (from the Greek κόσμος, the world, and γόνος, generation), according to its etymology, should be defined the origin of the world itself; but the term has become, to a great degree, associated with the numerous theories of different nations and individuals respecting this event. Though the origin of the world must necessarily remain forever concealed from human eyes, there is, notwithstanding, a strong desire in the breasts of mortals to unveil it; so that we find hypotheses among all nations, respecting the beginning of all things. We may divide these hypotheses into three classes:—1. The first represents the world as eternal, in form as well as substance. 2. The matter of the world is eternal, but not its form. 3. The world had a beginning, and shall have an end. —I. Ocellus Lucanus is one of the most ancient philosophers who supposed the world to have existed from eternity. Aristotle appears to have embraced the same doctrine. His theory is, that not only the heaven and earth, but also animate and inanimate beings, in general, are without beginning. His opinion rested on the belief, that the universe was necessarily the eternal effect of a cause equally eternal, such as the Divine Spirit, which, being at once power and action, could not remain idle. Yet he admitted, that a spiritual substance was the cause of the universe; of its motion and its form. He says positively, in his Metaphysics, that God is an intelligent Spirit (νοῦς), incorporeal, eternal, immovable, indivisible, and the Mover of all things. According to this great philosopher, the universe is less a creation than an emanation of the Deity. Plato says the universe is an eternal image of the immutable Idea, or Type, united, from eternity, with changeable matter. The followers of this philosopher both developed and distorted this idea. Ammonius, a disciple of Proclus, taught, in the sixth century, at Alexandria, the coëternity of God and the universe. Modern philosophers, and also ancient ones (e. g., Xenophanes, according to Diogenes Laertius), went further, and taught that the universe is one with the Deity. Parmenides, Melissus, Zeno of Elea, and the Megaric sect, followed this doctrine.—II. The theory which considers the *matter* of the universe eternal, but not its *form*, was the prevailing one among the ancients, who, starting from the principle that nothing could be made out of nothing, could not admit the creation of matter, yet did not believe that the world had been always in its present state. The prior state of the world, subject to a constant succession of uncertain movements, which chance afterwards made regular, they called *chaos*. The Phœnicians, Babylonians, and also Egyptians, seem to have adhered to this theory. The ancient poets, who have handed down to us the old mythological traditions, represent the universe as springing from chaos, without the assistance of the Deity. Hesiod feigns that Chaos was the parent of Erebus and Night, from whose union sprung the Air (Αἰθὴρ) and the Day (Ἡμέρα). He further relates how the sky and the stars were separated from the earth, &c. The system of atoms is much more famous. Leucippus and Democritus of Abdera were its inventors. The atoms, or indivisible particles, say they, existed from eternity, moving at hazard, and producing, by their constant meeting, a variety of substances. After having given rise to an immense variety of combinations, they produced the present organization of bodies. This system of cosmogony was that of Epicurus, as described by Lucretius. Democritus attributed to atoms form and size, Epicurus added weight. Many other systems have existed, which must be classed under this division. We only mention that of the Stoics, who admitted two principles, God and matter, in the abstract, both corporeal, for they did not admit spiritual beings. The first was active, the second passive. —III. The third theory of cosmogony makes God the Creator of the world out of nothing. This is the doctrine of the Etruscans, Druids, Magi and Bramins.

Before idolatry was introduced into China, the people worshipped a Supreme Being, *Chang-Ti*, the Mover and Regulator of the universe. Anaxagoras was the first among the Greeks, who taught that God created the universe from nothing. The Romans generally adopted this theory, notwithstanding the efforts of Lucretius to establish the doctrine of Epicurus. The beginning of Ovid bears a striking resemblance to the beginning of Genesis. Clement of Alexandria therefore thinks that the Pentateuch was known in Greece and Rome before the time of Christ. It is not necessary, however, to adopt this conclusion, for the two systems of cosmogony might have had a common origin. The Indian cosmogony also bears much resemblance to that of Moses. It is well known to every reader, that the Mosaic cosmogony belongs to the class we are now describing. It is distinguished by its great simplicity. The *rationalists*, as they are called in Germany, regard it as an Asiatic tradition, and not as a revelation. Some of the most important sources of information respecting the different systems of cosmogony, besides the book of Genesis, are the works of Hesiod, Diogenes Laertius, Nonnus of Panopolis, Eusebius, Philo the Jew, Pliny and Diodorus. A very learned and ingenious treatise on the Mosaic history of creation is contained in a work full of learning—*Mythologus oder gesammelte Abhandlungen über die Sagen des Alterthums von Philipp Buttmann*, vol. i, Berlin, 1828.

Cossacks (*Casacks*); the tribes who inhabit the southern and eastern parts of Russia, Poland, the Ukraine, &c., guarding the southern and eastern frontier of the Russian empire, and paying no taxes, performing, instead, the duty of soldiers. Nearly all of them belong to the Greco-Russian church. Their internal administration, however, is independent of the Russian government. They form a military democracy. They must be divided into two principal classes, both on account of their descent and their present condition—the Cossacks of Little Russia (Malo-Russia), and those of the Don. Both classes, and especially those of the Don, have collateral branches. From those of the Don, who are the most civilized, are descended the Volgaic, the Terek, the Grebeskoi, the Uralian and Siberian Cossacks. To the other race belong the Zaporogians or Haydamaks, who are the wildest and most unrestrained. Writers are not agreed as to the origin of this people and of their name. Some derive both races from the province of Casachia, so called by Constantine Porphyrogenetes. In the Turkish, *cazak* signifies a robber; but, in the Tartar language, it signifies a soldier lightly armed, for rapid motion. Since the Cossacks came from the plains beyond the Volga, they may be the remains of the Tartar hordes who settled there at different times. Some suppose them to be of Russian origin. Their language is properly Russian, although, in consequence of their early wars with the Turks and Poles, they have adopted many words from these people. It is probable that both races of the Cossacks are descended from the united Russian adventurers, who came from the provinces of Novogorod. Their object was to collect booty in the wars and feuds with the Tartars, on the frontiers of the Russian empire. As they were useful in protecting the frontiers, the government granted them great privileges; and their numbers rapidly increased, more especially as grants of land were made them. Thus their power was augmented, and they became, by degrees, better organized and firmly established. Their privileges, however, have been very much limited since the year 1804. In the war of 1538, 3000 Cossacks of the Don made their first campaign with the Russians in Livonia. They then conquered Siberia, repulsed the Tartars from many Russian provinces, and assisted in defeating the Turks. During the frequent rebellions of the Cossacks of the Don (the last of which was conducted by the formidable Pugatscheff), quarrels arose among them, and the great family became divided into several parts. Thus a branch of the great tribe of the Don, consisting of about 7000 men, in order to escape the punishment of their offences, retired, in 1577, to the Kama and to Perm, and afterwards to the Oby. (See *Siberia* and *Stroganoff*.) They drove out the Woguls, the Ostiacs and Tartars, who were settled there. Their numbers having been much reduced by these contests with the inhabitants, and their leader being no longer able to maintain his conquest, they placed themselves under the protection of the Russian government, and obtained assistance. This branch of the Cossacks has since spread over all Siberia. The strength of the Cossacks is variously estimated. Archenholz makes the number of warriors 700,000; but not half this number is in actual service, and two thirds of those are employed only in the domestic service, and never enter Europe,

so that not many more than 100,000 men are at the disposal of the Russian government, in case of a war in Europe. During the seven years' war, the Russian army included but 10,000 Cossacks. According to the regulations of 1804, two out of three regiments do duty at home, and the third on the frontiers. But they are all liable to be called into the field, and they then receive pay and rations from the emperor. They form, in general (particularly those of the Don, who are the most independent), the irregular flying cavalry of the Russian army, being divided into separate troops. The Cossacks of Little Russia are more disciplined; they may almost be called regular troops. The Cossacks have no nobility among them. All are equal, and all may, without degrading themselves, alternately command and obey. Their officers are chosen by them from among themselves, only the commander-in-chief must be approved by the government. He cannot be displaced except by its consent. The commanders are always in the pay of the crown, but the common Cossacks receive pay only while they are on duty. Their regiments (*pulks*) are from 500 to 3000 strong, according to the size of the circle, and are commanded by a chief (*hettman*, q. v.; in their language, *ataman*). The commander of the whole corps is also called *hettman*. The officers under the colonel are without rank (with the exception of those of some particular regiments, who have an equal rank with the officers in the army), and, in case of necessity, may be commanded by the inferior officers of the regular army. Each Cossack is liable to do duty from the age of 18 to 50, and is obliged to furnish his own horse, and to be clothed in the Polish or Oriental fashion, although the texture and quality of his garments are left to himself. Their principal weapon is a lance from 10 to 12 feet in length: they have also a sabre, a gun or a pair of pistols, as well as a bow and arrows. The lances, in riding, are carried upright by means of a strap fastened to the foot, the arm, or the pommel of the saddle. Those who use bows carry a quiver over the shoulder. The *kantschu*, also, which is a thick whip of twisted leather, serves them for a weapon against an unarmed enemy, as well as for the management of their horses. Though little adapted for regular movements, they are very serviceable in attacking baggage, magazines, and in the pursuit of troops scattered in flight. Their horses are mostly small, and of poor appearance; but they are tough and well broken, and so swift, that, when they do not move in compact bodies, and carry little or no baggage, they can travel, without much difficulty, from 50 to 70 miles a day, for several days in succession. Each *pulk* has two or more silken banners, usually adorned with images of the saints. The Cossacks fight principally in small bodies, with which they attack the enemy on all sides, but principally on the flanks and in the rear, rushing upon them at full speed, with a dreadful hurrah, and with levelled lances. If they succeed in breaking through the enemy by a bold attack, they drop their lances, which are dragged along by the strap, and, seizing on their sabres and pistols, do great execution. If they meet with opposition, and find it impossible to penetrate, they immediately retreat, hasten to some appointed place, form anew, and repeat the attack until the enemy is put to flight, when they bring destruction on the scattered forces. In 1570, they built their principal *stanitza* and rendezvous, called *Tscherkask*, 70 wersts above Azoph, on some islands in the Don, 1283 miles from Petersburg, now containing 2950 houses and 15,000 inhabitants, the seat of the *ataman*. It may be called the *Tartar Venice*, for the houses rest on high wooden piles, and are connected with each other by small bridges. When the river is high, which is from April to June, the city appears to be floating on the water. Their churches are richly adorned with gold and precious stones. There is a regular theatre here. There are also many private libraries, and a school where French, German, geometry, history, geography, natural philosophy, &c., are taught. A great deal of business is done by the Greeks, Armenians, Jews, &c. As the city is rendered unhealthy by the overflowing of the island on which it stands, they have lately built New Tscherkask, on an arm of the Don, about four miles from the present city, to which all the inhabitants of the old city will remove, so that, perhaps, in 50 years, no vestige of the old town will remain.

Cossé, Charles de, more known by the title of *marshal de Brissac*, was son of René Cossé, who was lord of Brissac in Anjou, and chief falconer of France. He served with success in the Neapolitan and Piedmontese wars, and distinguished himself as colonel in the battle of Perpignan, in 1541. The first noblemen of France, and even the princes, received their military education in his school, while he com-

manded the French light cavalry. When the emperor Charles V attempted to besiege Landrecy, in 1543, Brissac repulsed him three times, and united himself, in spite of the superior numbers of the enemy, with Francis I, who lay, with his army, near Vitry. This monarch folded him in his arms, allowed him to drink out of his cup, and created him a knight of his order. After other great actions, he rose to the rank of grand master of the artillery of France, and Henry II sent him as ambassador to the emperor, for the purpose of negotiating a peace. Here he proved himself a good diplomatist, and obtained for his services the office of governor of Piedmont, and the baton of marshal of France, in 1550. He afterwards returned to France as governor of Picardy, and rendered that province important services. Brissac was small, but very well made. The ladies called him the *handsome Brissac*. It is said that the duchess of Valentinois regarded him with particular favor, and that Henry II appointed him lieutenant-general in Italy merely from jealousy. Brissac died at Paris, Dec. 31, 1563.

Costa Furtado de Mendoça, Hippolyto Joseph da; a Portuguese gentleman, distinguished for his talents, learning and adventures. He was tried and imprisoned at Lisbon, by the inquisition, for the pretended crime of free-masonry. The following are said to have been the circumstances of his escape from captivity:—The door of the cell in which Da Costa was confined opening into a hall, which was the centre of the prison, he had opportunities for remarking that the daily labors of his jailors terminated with throwing a bunch of keys on a table where a lamp was left burning. By patience and perseverance, though conscious of liability to espial through apertures in the walls and ceiling of his cell, he succeeded in forming, out of an old pewter plate, a key which would unlock his door. Upon making his final attempt, the bunch of keys proved to be a proper collection for threading the entire labyrinth of the prison, not excepting the outer gate. Besides the keys and lamp, there was a book, containing, among other records, the minutes of his own examinations. This he took with him, and, carefully closing and locking every door after him, he made his way, without interruption, to the outside of the prison walls; and, after remaining six weeks secluded and disguised in the neighborhood, he took his departure from Portugal, and reached England in safety, carrying with him the book and keys of the inquisitors, as trophies of his success. M. da Costa was the proprietor of the *Correio Braziliense*, a monthly magazine in the Portuguese language, printed in London, and discontinued a short time before his death, which took place in the beginning of 1824.

Costa Rica; the most eastern and most southern province of Guatimala; between lat. 8° 20′ and 11° 27′ N., and lon. 80° 27′ and 85° 49′ W.; bounded N. by Nicaragua, E. by the Spanish Main, S. E. by Veragua, and W. and S. W. by the Pacific ocean; 150 miles in length, and nearly as much in breadth. It is full of deserts and forests, thinly peopled, and ill-cultivated. A great part of the inhabitants live independent of the Spaniards. The principal commerce consists in cattle, hides, honey and wax. It has ports in each sea. Carthage is the capital.

Costa Rica; a river of Guatimala, which runs into the Escondida, five miles from St. Carlos, in Nicaragua.

Coster, Laurens (called *Jansoens*, that is, *son of John*), a wealthy citizen of Haerlem, was born in that city in 1370 or 1371. He was a member of the chief council in 1418, and by turns performed the duties of a judge and a treasurer. In 1421, or, according to some, in 1399, he was appointed to the office of sacristan (*Koster*) of the parochial church at Haerlem, and continued in this station; and from this office, which, at that time, was very honorable, he derived his surname. He died, probably, of the contagious disease which raged, in the latter part of 1439, in Haerlem. This is all that the contemporary city records have preserved of his history. More than a hundred years after his death, in the middle of the 16th century, traces of a tradition appeared, which assigned to the city of Haerlem the invention of the art of printing. At this time, Hadrian Junius produced (in a work entitled *Batavia*, written between 1562 and 1571, but not published till 1588, after his death), from the verbal information of some aged people, who, again, derived their knowledge from others, a complete history of the invention of the art of printing, in which Coster acted the chief part. During his walks in a wood near Haerlem (as Junius relates), he carved letters, at first for his amusement, in the bark of beech-trees. He persevered in these experiments, till he had finished entire lines, and finally proceeded so far as to cut out whole pages on the sides of boards. With blocks of this sort, he effected the impression of

the *Spegel onzer Behoudenisse*. After this, he improved his mode of printing by casting lead or pewter types. But a person by the name of John, whom he had employed as an assistant, stole his printing apparatus one Christmas night, and fled with it first to Amsterdam, and then to Cologne and Mentz, at which last place this theft occasioned the general diffusion of the art invented by Coster. In Holland, the people are so firmly convinced of the truth of this story, that a statue in honor of Coster was erected in 1622. His house, which fell down in 1818 through age, was shown with the greatest respect; and, in 1740, the jubilee of his invention of the art of printing was celebrated. This celebration was repeated in 1823, the justice of the claim of the Dutch being considered to be established by Meerman's *Origines Typographicæ* (1765), and Koning's *Verhandeling over het Oorsprong der Boekdrukkunst* (1816). The examination of the subject, in the last essay in the *Hermes*, by Ebert (No. xx), leads us to this result; that Coster, at a time at least as early as that of the invention of the art by the Germans, employed himself in experiments, the design and result of which was the invention of the art of printing. (See Ebert's article *Buchdruckerkunst* in the Encyclopædia by Ersch and Gruber.)

Costume, in the fine arts; the observance of propriety in regard to the person or thing represented, so that the scene of action, the habits, arms, proportions, &c., are properly imitated. The peculiarities of form, physiognomy, complexion; the dress, ornaments, habitations, furniture, arms, &c., should all be conformable to the period and country in which the scene is laid. The rules of costume would be violated by the introduction of a palm-grove and a tiger in a scene in Russia, by the representation of American Indians in turbans, or of Romans with cannons at the siege of Carthage, or an inhabitant of the East seated at table with a knife and fork. That the ancient painters, and even celebrated masters of the modern European schools, are often chargeable with deviations from propriety in regard to costume, is not to be denied; but nowhere have they been so glaring as on the stage, where Greek, Turkish and Peruvian princes used to make their appearance in long velvet mantles, embroidered with gold; Merope and Cleopatra were equipped in hoop-petticoats, Medea and Phædra in French head-dresses; peasant-girls were dressed out in whale-bone, and heroes emerged from the battle in stiff coats, not a fold of which was disordered. Le Kain and mademoiselle Clairon, it is said, were the first who introduced propriety of costume on the stage, under the patronage of the count de Lauraguais; but they excluded only the grosser absurdities: Scythians and Sarmatians were clothed in tiger-skins, Asiatics in the Turkish dress; but the old costume was retained in other respects. The scenery of the stage was as incongruous as the dresses. It is not long since Semiramis issued from a palace adorned with Corinthian columns, and entered a garden in which a whole American Flora was blooming; or perhaps she was seated on a throne, overshadowed with a canopy *à la Polonaise*. Those by whom she was surrounded were dressed in the Turkish style; while a master of horse, in the costume of the age of chivalry, offered her his hand. In Germany, the stage, at that time, was no better in this respect. It is not very long since the companions of Theseus made their appearance there with large perukes; and, in the *Clemenza di Tito*, Roman soldiers marched on the stage with stiff boots, and stiffer queues. The Germans, however, first made a thorough reform in these absurdities, and the national, now royal, theatre, in Berlin, in point of scenery and costume, is at present the most correct in the world. In France, Talma reformed the Parisian stage. What he did in this respect for the drama, David (who had, however, a predecessor in Vien) effected for painting, and his school is entitled to the honor of having strictly observed propriety of costume. The question, To what extent should truth be sacrificed to beauty? is answered in the best manner by an article on the subject of dramatic representation, in Müllner's Almanac for Private Theatres (*Almanach für Privatbühnen*, in two volumes, 1818). There, poetical correctness is distinguished from historical, and the cases are pointed out, in which the latter must yield to the former, partly on account of the harmony that must necessarily exist between the external appearances and the spirit of poetry, and partly for the sake of intelligibleness, and avoiding what would be offensive to the less informed spectators. That art may be permitted to idealize costume as well as language, cannot be denied. No perfect work on costume has as yet appeared. Dandré Bardon, in his Costumes of the most Ancient Nations, did not confine himself to the true sources of information. The *Traité des Costumes* of Lenz is a very

feeble production, and Martini's Commentaries have very little improved it. Spalart's Essay on the Costume of the most celebrated Nations of Antiquity, of the Middle Ages, and of Modern Times (*Versuch über das Costume der vorzüglichsten Völker des Alterthums, des mittlern Alters und der neueren Zeiten*, published by Ignatius Albrecht, Vienna, 1796—99, 3 vols.) is superior, but not entirely free from faults. The *Recueils des Costumes Antiques*, by Rocheggiani and Willemin, are more useful productions, but not sufficiently comprehensive. A new Essay on Antique and Modern Costumes, by Gironi, appeared in Italy, in 1819; and an Illustration of the Egyptian, Grecian and Roman Costume, in forty Sketches, with Descriptions, was published by Thomas Baxter, London, 1810. There is often no means of information for the artist but the original sources. For the costume of the ancients, he must have recourse to the engravings of antiquities; for the modern costume, he must resort to essays on painting in different ages, monumental figures, and treatises on costume; and in regard to the costume of foreign nations, he may derive information from books of travels: histories, antiquities and geographies, are indispensable guides in these inquiries. The costumes of modern times and foreign nations are described in the *Costumes civils actuels de tous les Peuples connus*, by St. Sauveur; and in a large work entitled *Collections of Costumes of various Nations* (London, 1800 et seq.); and in several publications on the costume of the theatre, viz., *Costumes et Annales des grands Théâtres de Paris;* Costumes of the Imperial Court Theatre in Vienna (*Costumes des K. K. Hoftheaters in Wien*), with colored plates (Vienna, 1812 and 1813); Costumes of the National Theatre at Berlin (*Theatercostumes des berliner nationaltheaters*) from 1816 to 1823—the old ones were given from 1789 to 1813.

Coté Droit, and Coté Gauche (*French;* signifying the right and left side in the French chamber of deputies). It would be, perhaps, desirable, in all national assemblies, that the seats of the members should be determined in such a way (either by lot or some other means) that the members of the same party should not be allowed to cluster together, and split up the assembly into hostile masses. Regulations of this kind are actually established in the congress of the U. States, and in most of the German states; but in the English and French parliaments, there are no rules of this nature. In the English house of commons, indeed, the first seats on the right of the speaker are appropriated to the members from London; but they occupy them only at the opening of parliament, and afterwards resign them to the ministers, about whom their adherents arrange themselves, on this side of the house. The members of the opposition party take their stations on the opposite seats. In France, this party is always arranged on the left side. The most violent members of the national convention occupied the highest benches on this side, and obtained, from this circumstance, the name of the *Mountain*. The more moderate members, and the partisans of government, took their places in front, on the lower seats, which were called the *plain*, the *belly*, and the *morass*. At the present time, the different parties in the French chamber of deputies arrange themselves in the same manner. The ministerial party take their places in the centre (see *Centre*), the most violent members of the different parties at the extreme right and left, while the more moderate occupy the intervening spaces. The right side of the chamber was the strongest from 1815 to 1828. A majority was secured to the ministry by means of new laws, regulating the elections, which gave to the great landholders alone the right of choosing a portion of the deputies, and of assisting in the election of the remainder. The operation of these laws has been increased by the reduction of land taxes, and by the exertion of an illegal influence at the elections by the ministers. In 1828, a reäction took place, and a majority of liberal men were chosen, in spite of ministerial influence. In the beginning of 1830, the left side obtained a complete victory, in consequence of which the chambers were prorogued. The left side accuse the ministerial party of a design to increase the power of the church, and restore to the priests the influence which they exercised in ages of ignorance; to reëstablish the feudal privileges of the nobility, and to encumber landed property with inalienability, indivisibility and the feudal tenures. They also accuse them of striving to exclude the commons from the higher offices of honor, and even of a desire to overthrow the *charte*, which, according to the right side, can be taken away by the same power which granted it. On the other hand, the right side accuse their opponents of aiming to make the present constitution of France more democratical, and to cramp the power of the king. They consider them, in fact, as wishing to dethrone the Bourbons.

In speaking of the political sentiments of a member of the house of deputies, it is generally said, he sits on the right side, on the left side, in the centre, &c.

Côte-d'Or; a chain of mountains in Burgundy, so called from the abundance of excellent wine which they yield. Their height varies from 1400 French feet to 1600. The chain runs from N.N.E. to S. S. W., and is about 36 leagues long, beginning at the *plateau* of Langres, and extending to the sources of the Bourbince and the Dheune.

Côte-d'Or; a department of France, formerly a part of Burgundy. (See *Department.*)

Coterie; a French word, now much used in English society. Originally, *coterie* was a commercial term, signifying an association in which each member furnished his part, and received his proportion of the profits, or bore his proportion of the loss. Thence it was used for small societies, in which certain individuals are in the habit of meeting, and each contributes his share of conversation and entertainment. A *coterie* consisting of ladies and gentlemen of talent, vivacity and agreeable manners, is one of the finest productions of modern society. It is from *coteries* that we derive a large stock of the most entertaining and instructive matter in the numberless French memoirs.

Côtes-du-Nord; a French department, formerly the northern part of Upper Brittany.

Côtes, Vin de; a Bordelais wine. (See *Bordelais.*)

Cöthen, Anhalt; one of the Anhalt principalities. (See *Anhalt.*) All the possessions of the prince of Anhalt-Cöthen amount only to 300 square miles, containing 4 towns and 33,500 inhabitants, furnishing 320,000 guilders of revenue, and burdened with 1,200,000 guilders public debt. The prince and his wife—a natural daughter of Frederic William II of Prussia—embraced the Catholic religion in Paris, Oct. 24, 1815, which caused some religious excitement in Germany. Cöthen, the capital, has 700 houses and 5500 inhabitants.

Cothurnus, with the ancients; a kind of shoes, laced high, such as Diana and her nymphs are represented as wearing. They are still worn by the hunters in Italy. They were particularly in use among the Cretans. Galen and Pollux describe them as reaching up to the middle of the calf, and laced tight by means of thongs, to protect the foot and ankle, without obstructing freedom of motion. The tragic actors also wore them, perhaps, at first, as commemorative of the expeditions of Bacchus; and, at a later period, in order to give additional height to the actors who played the part of heroes. Hence *cothurnus* is sometimes used figuratively for *tragedy.* The *cothurnus* used for this purpose differed from the hunting *cothurnus* in this respect, that it had a sole of cork, at least four fingers thick.

Cotin, Charles, counsellor and almoner of the king, and member of the French academy, was born at Paris, in 1604. He is indebted for his notoriety, in a great measure, to the satires of Boileau. He possessed a knowledge of theology and philosophy, understood the Hebrew and Syriac languages, and studied the Greek authors so diligently, that he could repeat large portions of Homer and Plato by heart. Among his poems are many which have much merit. It has often been supposed, that Boileau introduced the name of Cotin into his satires, because it furnished a convenient rhyme, and Moore refers to this in his Life of Byron, vol. 1. But Boileau had good reasons for complaining of Cotin, who had represented him, at the hotel Rambouillet, as a dangerous man. The ridicule of Boileau exasperated Cotin still more, and he attempted every means of silencing him. His influence at court, his title and wealth, appeared to give him the means of effecting this object; but, unluckily, his follies drew upon him a new enemy in Molière, who, in his *Femmes Savantes*, introduced him on the stage, and exposed him to ridicule, under the name of *Trissotin.* The sonnet to the princess Urania was composed by Cotin; and he engaged in a dispute respecting this poem with Ménage, in the presence of a select society, in which the disputants used the same kind of language which Molière places in the mouths of Trissotin and Vadius. Cotin died in 1682. His *Œuvres Mêlées* appeared in 1659, at Paris, and his *Œuvres Galantes*, in 2 vols., in 1665.

Cotopaxi; the most remarkable volcanic mountain of the Andes, in Quito; 35 miles S. S. E. of Quito, N. N. E. of Chimborazo; lat. about 0° 40′ S. It is the most beautiful of the colossal summits of the Andes. It is a perfect cone, which, being covered with an enormous layer of snow, shines with dazzling splendor at the setting of the sun, and stands forth in bold relief from the azure heavens. This covering of snow conceals from the eye of the observer even the smallest inequalities of the ground. No point or mass of rock penetrates the coating of snow and ice, or

breaks the exact regularity of the conical figure. The crater is surrounded by a small circular wall, which, when viewed through a telescope, appears like a parapet. Its height above the sea is 18,898 feet. It is the most tremendous volcano in Quito, and its explosions have been most disastrous, spreading destruction over the surrounding plains. Remarkable eruptions took place in 1698, 1738, 1742, 1744, 1766, and 1768; and one in 1803. In 1698, the eruption destroyed the city of Tacunga, with three fourths of its inhabitants, and other settlements. In 1738, the flames rose nearly 3000 feet above the brink of the crater; and in 1744, its roarings were heard as far as Honda, on the Magdalena, 600 miles distant. With respect to the explosion of 1803, Humboldt observes, "At the port of Guayaquil, 52 leagues distant, in a straight line, from the crater, we heard, day and night, the noise of this volcano, like continued discharges of a battery; and we distinguished these tremendous sounds even on the Pacific ocean." In viewing this volcano, every thing contributes to give it a most majestic and awful character. The pyramidal summits of Illinissa; the snowy ridges of the other mountains; the singular regularity of the inferior line of snow, and the luxuriance of the great plains, offer an unparalleled assemblage of the grand and picturesque features of nature. Humboldt found it difficult to ascend the mountain, in 1802, as far as to the limit of perpetual snow, and he pronounces it impossible, by any human art, to reach the summit.

Cotta, J. G., baron of Cottenberg; the most eminent living bookseller of Germany. Mr. Cotta, whose resources, in his youth, were but scanty, studied theology, and was, for some time, a private instructer. In 1798, he established, in connexion with some other persons, the *Allgemeine Zeitung* (q. v.), which soon became, through his efforts, the best political paper of Germany. Mr. Cotta then became a publisher of books; and his establishment still continues under the firm of *J. G. Cotta' sche Buchhandlung*, and is distinguished, not—like those of his contemporaries, Crapelet and some others—for the peculiar beauty and correctness of the publications which proceed from it, but for the great number, among which have been many of the best works of German literature. But the circumstance which probably renders Mr. Cotta's press unique, is the number of periodicals that he has succeeded in establishing, which embrace a very extensive circle of scientific and literary subjects. His *Allgemeine Zeitung* is a daily political paper; *Das Morgen-Blatt* is a daily paper, principally devoted to entertaining matter; *Das Kunst-Blatt* treats of the fine arts; *Das Ausland* gives information only respecting foreign countries; *Das Inland* is chiefly for Bavaria; *Das Polytechnische Journal* is devoted to the useful arts; *Die Politischen Annalen* is made up of long political treatises and documents; *Das Literatur-Blatt* is a daily paper containing short *critiques*, somewhat similar to the London Literary Gazette, but its contents are more valuable. All these different publications are carried on in Stuttgard, Tübingen and Augsburg. Some years since, Mr. Cotta purchased the barony of Cottenberg, in the kingdom of Würtemberg, whereby he became entitled to a seat in the chamber of the nobles of that state, where he has shown himself disposed to liberal sentiments. His *Allgemeine Zeitung* has likewise this character, as much as is possible in a country in which the conductor has been obliged already, three times, to change the place of its publication, in order to evade a strict censorship. It never contains matter professedly editorial. Mr. Cotta's wealth is very great, and he applies it liberally in procuring valuable contributions to the various journals published by him, which contain, for instance, much original correspondence from foreign countries.

Cottin, Sophie Ristaud, better known by the name of *madame Cottin*, the author of several novels and works of entertainment, was born in 1773, at Tonneins, in the department of Lot and Garonne, married, at the age of 17, a banker at Bordeaux, and went soon after to Paris, where, in a few years, she lost her husband. To relieve her sorrow, she gave herself up to intellectual pursuits. To divert her thoughts, she wrote down the fancies and reflections that strongly occupied her active mind, without supposing that they would be of interest or value beyond the circle of her immediate friends. In the ease with which she expressed her thoughts, she discovered a talent, which even those most intimate with her had not hitherto appreciated. Her first attempts were small poems, and a history of 200 pages. One of her friends having occasion for 50 louis-d'ors, in order to leave France, from which he was banished, madame Cottin, to assist the unfortunate man, published her *Claire d'Albe*, but kept her name a secret. The necessity which she felt of pouring out her feelings determined her to appear again as an authoress,

and she produced *Malvina, Amélie de Mansfield*, and *Elisabeth, or the Exiles of Siberia*. The eloquence and fervor with which she expresses the most secret feelings of the heart have been much admired, especially by her own sex. Her circumstances enabled her to devote the profits of her works to benevolent objects. A painful disorder prevented her from finishing a religious work which she had begun, and another on education. The latter was the only one of her works for which she was anxious to gain a favorable reception with the public; for, singular as it may seem, she disapproved, in general, of women's appearing as authors. She died, after three months' suffering, Aug. 25, 1807. Her works are contained in the collection *Œuvres complètes de Madame Cottin*, Paris, 1806.

COTTON is a soft, vegetable down, which is contained in the seed-vessels, and envelopes the seeds, of the cotton plant (*gossypium herbaceum*), which is cultivated in the East and West Indies, North and South America, and Egypt; in fact, in most parts of the world which possess a sufficiently warm climate. It is an annual plant. It grows to a considerable height, and has leaves of a bright green color, marked with brownish veins, and each divided into five lobes. The flowers have only one petal in five segments, with a short tube, and are of a pale-yellow color, with five red spots at the bottom. The cotton-pods are of somewhat triangular shape, and have each three cells. These, when ripe, burst open, and disclose their snow-white or yellowish contents, in the midst of which are contained the seeds, in shape somewhat resembling those of grapes. The fibres of cotton are extremely fine, delicate and flexile. When examined by the microscope, they are found to be somewhat flat, and two-edged or triangular. Their direction is not straight, but contorted, so that the locks can be extended or drawn out without doing violence to the fibres. These threads are finely toothed, which explains the cause of their adhering together with greater facility than those of bombax and several *apocyneæ*, which are destitute of teeth, and which cannot be spun into thread without an admixture of cotton. In the Southern States of the American Union, the cotton cultivated is distinguished into 3 kinds—the *nankeen cotton*, so called from its color; the *green seed cotton*, producing white cotton with green seeds; and the *black seed cotton*. The two first kinds grow in the middle and upper country, and are called *short staple cotton*; the last is cultivated in the lower country, near the sea, and on the isles near the shore, and produces cotton of a fine, white, silky appearance, very strong, and of a long staple. Cotton was found indigenous in America. There are two machines for cleansing cotton from the seeds; these are, the roller-gin and the saw-gin. The essential parts of the first are two small cylinders, revolving in contact, or nearly so. The cotton is drawn between the rollers, while the size of the seeds prevents them from passing. The saw-gin, invented by Mr. Whitney, is used for the black-seed cotton, the seeds of which adhere too strongly to be separated by the other method. It is a receiver, having one side covered with strong parallel wires, about an eighth of an inch apart. Between these wires pass a number of circular saws, revolving on a common axis. The cotton is entangled in the teeth of the saws, and drawn out through the grating, while the seeds are prevented, by their size, from passing. The cotton thus extricated is swept from the saws by a revolving cylindrical brush, and the seeds fall out at the bottom of the receiver. Mr. Whitney is an American. Arkwright, in England, is highly celebrated for the machinery which he has invented for the spinning of cotton. North and South America, Egypt and India, produce most of the cotton consumed, and the greater part is manufactured in England and the U. States. The export of cotton from the U. States, between October, 1828, and September, 1829, to Great Britain, amounted to 498,001 bales; the amount exported to France, was 184,821 bales; and to the other parts of Europe, 66,178; total, 749,000. The crop in 1824—5 was 569,259 bales; that of 1825—6 was 720,027 bales; of 1826—7, 957,281; of 1827—8, 720,593; of 1828—9, 870,415. Of this last crop, 130,000 bales are estimated to have been manufactured in the U. States. The whole amount of cotton imported into Great Britain, in 1824, was 149,380,122 pounds; in 1825, was 228,005,291; in 1826, was 177,607,401; in 1827, was 272,448,909 pounds. The value of cotton manufactured goods exported in 1824, according to the official rates, was £27,171,555; in 1825, £26,597,574; in 1826, £21,445,742: of cotton twist and yarn, in 1824, according to the official rates, £2,984,344; in 1825, £2,897,706; in 1826, £3,748,526.

Cotton Manufacture. The increase of the cotton manufacture, during the last half century, is one of the most interesting events in the history of commerce. The

earliest seat of the manufacture, known to us, was Hindostan, where it continues to be carried on, by hand labor, in all its original simplicity. Such, however, has been the power of improved machinery, in its recent application to it, that Europe and America are now pouring back upon Asia her original manufacture, and underselling her in her own markets. The first impulse in these improvements was derived from the inventions of Hargreaves and Arkwright, between 1768 and 1780. The improved machinery of which we speak consists of the cylindrical carding engine, by which the fibres of cotton are disentangled and separated from each other, and from all foreign substances, and delivered in a uniform, continuous roll; the drawing and roving frames, by which these rolls are repeatedly doubled and extended, until the fibres are drawn out into a regular and perfectly horizontal position; and the spinning frame, the most important quality of which is the causing the roving or preparatory yarn to pass through two or more sets of rollers, revolving with different velocities, by which the thread, at the moment of being twisted, is drawn out to any desired degree of tenuity; the rollers performing the delicate office of the thumb and finger. In addition to these, the power-loom was brought into general use about the year 1816, by which the laborious process of weaving is converted into the mere superintendence of two, and even three, of these machines; each one producing from 30 to 40 yards of cloth per day. In the printing of calicoes, equally important improvements have been made. Instead of the tedious process of impressing patterns from wooden blocks, the most delicate patterns are transferred from copper cylinders with astonishing rapidity; two, and even three, colors are, in this way, imprinted at one operation. In the richer and more expensive patterns, however, block-printing continues to be used, in addition to the impressions from the cylinders. The science of chemistry has contributed its share of improvement in the new process of bleaching by chlorine, and in innumerable new combinations of colors. In its present state, the entire manufacture, in its various departments, presents a greater combination of human skill than can be found in any other art or manufacture. In 1781, the quantity of cotton wool imported into Great Britain, was 5,000,000 pounds; in 1829, it cannot be estimated at less than 210,000,000; and, allowing 20,000,000 for export, 190,000,000 pounds will remain as the consumption of the kingdom. Of this, upwards of 40,000,000 pounds are exported in yarns, valued at £3,500,000 sterling. The value of all other manufactures of cotton, exported in 1828, was £13,545,638. Some estimates of the annual value of the cotton manufactured in Great Britain have been as high as £36,000,000 sterling; but this would seem to be an exaggeration. In the early periods of this manufacture, the profits must have been enormous. It has built up the cities of Liverpool and Manchester in England, of Glasgow and Paisley in Scotland, and has been estimated to give employment to a million of persons. After a long period of success, interrupted only by occasional and temporary fluctuations, the production, both of the raw material and of the manufactured article, seems to have outrun the consumption of the world, in that eventful year of overtrade, 1825. A long stagnation succeeded in 1826; an unprecedented reduction in the prices of cotton manufactures, and in the value of property engaged in it, spread a wide and general distress, throughout the districts devoted to this manufacture, which continued, with greater or less intensity, through the years 1828 and 1829. Although there is no diminution in the quantity of cotton consumed in Great Britain, there is abundant evidence, that neither the capital nor labor employed in it is now receiving (1830) a fair remuneration. The fall in the prices of cotton manufactures, from 1814 to 1826, would seem, by a comparison of the real or declared value of the exports with the official value, rated by a uniform list, to have been 55 per cent. The greatest export in value, of any one year, was in 1815, having exceeded £19,000,000 sterling.—In the U. States, the progress of this manufacture has partaken of the characteristic energy and vigor of the country. It is only since the introduction of the power-loom, that it can be considered as having been established on a permanent and useful basis: the scarcity of skilful weavers, and the high prices of weaving, had been found serious obstacles to its success, which was secured by this invention. The first successful experiment with this instrument was made at Waltham, Mass., in 1815, applied to the coarser fabrics; but so rapid has been the extension of the manufacture, that, besides furnishing the U. States with its full supply of the more staple productions, and a considerable export of coarse goods, the beautiful prints of Manchester and Glasgow are imitated in great perfection; and more than half the consump-

tion of the country, in this important branch, is supposed to be now furnished from native industry. The actual extent of this manufacture, in the U. States, at the present time (1830), is matter of estimate only; a very moderate one is believed to be the consumption of 35,000,000 pounds of cotton per annum, manufactured into 140,000,000 of yards of cloth, of which about 10,000,000 are exported, and upwards of 20,000,000 printed; the value, $12 to 14,000,000; and employing a capital of $25 to 30,000,000. Several improvements, originating in the country, have been introduced into the manufacture, and the whole process is believed to be performed to as great advantage as in any part of the world. The descriptions of cottons exported are mostly of a coarse fabric, which are taking the place of the cottons of India, and are known abroad by the name of *American domestics*. They have been extensively imitated by the English, and a competition is going on, between the manufacturers of the two countries, for the possession of the foreign markets. It is thought, that the possession of the raw material on the spot, and the use of the comparatively cheap moving power of water, instead of steam, with the proximity of the great markets of South America, are advantages, in favor of the U. States, more than sufficient to counterbalance some disadvantage in the higher cost of machinery, and, as is commonly supposed, in the higher wages of labor. But the labor in the cotton mills producing these goods, being wholly performed by females, has been ascertained not to be dearer than the same description of work in England; and, as it is not easily applicable to any other branch of industry, it would seem not improbable, that this country will be the future source of supply, in coarse cottons, for foreign markets. The great profits attending this manufacture have attracted to it, in a very short period, a great amount of capital, and produced a violent competition: the consequence has been a sudden reaction and great depression of prices, producing considerable embarrassment in those establishments operating with inadequate capital, and unable to meet the shock of impaired credit. But, although individuals may meet with heavy losses by imprudent speculations, there is no reason to distrust the eventual success of the manufacture, which must soon find relief, under the increasing consumption of the country. The price of coarse cottons, in 1829, was less than one third of the price in 1815. The largest establishments for the manufacture of cotton, in the U. States, at present (1830), are at Dover, N. H.; Lowell, Mass.; Pawtucket, R. I.; Patterson, N. J.; and in the neighborhood of Philadelphia and Baltimore. The increase of the production of the raw material is even more wonderful than that of the manufacture. In 1791, the whole export of the U. States was 64 bags, of 300 pounds each; the average of 1826, 7, and 8, is 235,000,000 pounds; and, if we include that consumed in the country, the average production is 270,000,000 pounds, valued at $27,000,000; the price having fallen to about one third of that of 1815. This reduction of price seems destined to cause a still further immense extension of the manufacture, which is rapidly taking the place of hempen sailcloth, and the different descriptions of coarse linens. In fact, this valuable material, at once delicate, strong and cheap, seems equally well adapted to every fabric, from the gossamer-like muslin of the ball-room to the coarse garment of the Negro slave.—As the subject of cotton manufactures is one of so much interest, we shall here give a detailed account of the process, and mention the most important machines by which each part is performed. After the cotton has been ginned (*see the first part of this article*), and picked or batted, that is, beat up and separated into a light, uniform mass, the first operation of the manufacturer is *carding*, which serves to equalise the substance of the cotton, and dispose its fibres in a somewhat parallel direction. The *carding-engine* consists of a revolving cylinder, covered with cards, which is nearly surrounded by a fixed concave framing, also lined with cards, with which the cylinder comes in contact. From this cylinder, called the *breaker*, the cotton is taken off by the motion of a transverse comb, called the *doffing-plate*, and passes through a second carding in the *finishing* cylinder. It is then passed through a kind of funnel, by which it is contracted into a narrow band or sliver, and received into tin cans, in the state of a uniform, continued carding. The next step in the process is called *drawing* the cotton. The machine employed for this purpose, called the *drawing-frame*, is constructed on the same principle as the spinning-frame, from which the idea of it was taken. To imitate the operation performed by the thumb and finger in hand-spinning, two pairs of rollers are employed; the first pair, slowly revolving in contact with each other, are placed at a little distance from the second pair, which revolve

with greater velocity. The lower roller of each pair is furrowed, or fluted longitudinally, and the upper one is covered with leather, to give the two a proper hold of the cotton. If a carding be passed between the first pair, it will be merely compressed by the pressure of the rollers; but if it be then passed through the second pair, moving with twice or thrice the velocity of the first, it will be drawn twice or thrice smaller than it was when it entered the first rollers. The relative velocity of the two pairs of rollers is called the *draught* of the machine. Several of these drawings are then passed together through rollers in the same manner, *plying* (coalescing) as they pass, and forming a single new drawing. The drawing and plying are several times repeated, and have the effect of arranging all the fibres of the cotton longitudinally, in a uniform and parallel direction, and doing away all the inequalities of thickness. In these operations, the cotton receives no twist. *Roving* the cotton, which is the next part of the process, gives it a slight twist, which converts it into a soft and loose thread, called the *roving*. The machine for performing this operation is called the *roving-frame* or *double speeder*. In order to wind the roving upon the bobbins of the spindles, in even, cylindrical layers, the spindle-rail is made to rise and fall slowly, by means of heart-wheels in the interior of the machine. And, as the size of the bobbins is augmented by each layer, the velocity of the spindles and of the spindle-rail is made to diminish gradually, from the beginning to the end of the operation. This is effected by transmitting the motion to both, through two opposite cones, one of which drives the other with a band, which is made to pass slowly from one end to the other of the cones, and thus continually to alter their relative speed, and cause a uniform retardation of the velocity. The bobbins are now transferred to the *spinning-frame*, which has a double set of rollers, like those described in the account of the drawing and roving-frames, and which, operating in the same manner as in those machines, extend the rove, and reduce it to a thread of the required fineness. The twist is given to this thread by flyers, driven by bands, which receive their motion from a horizontal fly-wheel, or from a longitudinal cylinder. The yarn produced by this mode of spinning is called *water twist*, from the circumstance of the machinery, from which it is obtained, having been, at first, generally put in motion by water. In 1775, the *mule-jenny* or *mule* was invented by Samuel Crompton, of Bolton. The spindles are mounted on a movable carriage, which recedes when the threads are to be stretched, and returns when they are to be wound up. The process of stretching is intended to produce threads of the finest kinds, and consists in forcibly *stretching* portions of yarn, several yards long, in the direction of their length. The purpose of it is to reduce those places in the yarn which have a greater diameter than the rest, so that the size and twist of the thread may become uniform throughout. Here ends the process of spinning, and that of weaving begins.—The following progress of a pound of cotton may be not uninteresting to our readers. It appeared, originally, in the English Monthly Magazine. "There was sent to London lately, from Paisley, a small piece of muslin, about one pound weight, the history of which is as follows: The wool came from the East Indies to London; from London it went to Lancashire, where it was manufactured into yarn; from Manchester it was sent to Paisley, where it was woven; it was sent to Ayrshire next, where it was tamboured; it was then conveyed to Dumbarton, where it was hand-sewed, and again returned to Paisley, whence it was sent to Glasgow and finished, and then sent, per coach, to London. It may be reckoned about three years that it took to bring this article to market, from the time when it was packed in India, till it arrived complete, in the merchant's warehouse, in London; whither it must have been conveyed 5000 miles by sea, nearly 1000 by land, and have contributed to reward the labor of nearly 150 persons, whose services were necessary in the carriage and manufacture of this small quantity of cotton, and by which the value has been advanced more than 2000 per cent."

Cotton, Charles, a burlesque poet of the 17th century, born in 1630, received his education at Cambridge, after which he travelled in France. Not being of a very provident disposition, he was subject to frequent embarrassments, and, at one time, was confined in prison for debt. He died at Westminster in 1687. His works are numerous, including *Scarronides*, or *Virgil Travestie*, being the first book of Virgil's Æneid, in English burlesque, and a translation of Montaigne's Essays. After the death of Cotton, a volume was published, entitled Poems on several Occasions (8vo.), which contains some pieces of considerable merit, chiefly of the light

and humorous kind. He also translated the *Horaces*, a tragedy of Corneille; and his pen was often employed to relieve his pecuniary difficulties.

Cotton, sir Robert Bruce; a celebrated English antiquary and collector of literary relics. He was born at Denton, in Huntingdonshire, in 1570, and, after having been at Westminster school, completed his studies at Trinity college, Cambridge. He then settled in London, devoting much of his time to antiquarian pursuits, and employing himself especially in collecting ancient deeds, charters, letters, and other manuscripts of various kinds, illustrative of the history of England. He was one of the earliest members of the antiquarian society; and he not only promoted the general objects of that learned association, but also assisted with his literary treasures, as well as with his purse, Speed, Camden, and other writers on British archæology. In the reign of James I, he was knighted; and, on the institution of the order of baronets, he was promoted to that rank. He died in May, 1631. He is chiefly memorable as the founder of the valuable Cottonian library, which collection was long preserved at Cotton-house, Westminster. In 1700, it was appropriated to the public use; and, after having been partly destroyed by fire in 1731, it was removed, in 1753, to the British museum, where it now remains.

Cottonian Library, in London, was collected by sir Robert Bruce Cotton (q. v.), secured to the public by a statute, in 1700, after which it was several times removed, and, after being injured by conflagrations and political disturbances, was at last placed in the British museum (q. v.), where it remains.

Cottus. (See *Briareus*.)

Cotys, or Cotytto; a goddess of debauchery, worshipped at Corinth and Chios. Her festival was called *Cotyttia*, or *Cotyttis*, and was celebrated during the night (in what way is easily to be inferred from the character of the goddess), at Athens, Corinth, Chios, in Thrace, &c. Cotys is probably the same with the goddess of the Edoni in Thrace.—Κοτυος θιασώτης, follower of Cotys; a common term for a profligate person.

Couching; a surgical operation, that consists in removing the opaque lens out of the axis of vision, by means of a needle constructed for the purpose.

Coucy, Renaud, Castellan of, was the hero of a tragical occurrence, which has been often celebrated in ancient ballads and songs. He is supposed to have been the nephew, or at least the kinsman, of Raoul, lord of Coucy, who accompanied Philip Augustus to the Holy Land, and with whom he has been sometimes confounded. A manuscript in French verse, in the royal library at Paris, entitled Romance of the Castellan of Coucy, and the Lady of Fayel, written about 1228, and a chronicle on the same subject, in 1380, in the possession of Fauchet, relate the following story: Renaud, castellan of Coucy, was smitten with the charms of Gabrielle de Vergy, lady of Aubert de Fayel. The castle of Fayel was situated not far from Coucy, in the neighborhood of St. Quentin. Renaud threw himself at the feet of Gabrielle, confessed his passion, and was at first repulsed, but not forever. The lovers often saw each other in private. Assurances of the most ardent love, and unceasing precautions against the jealousy of the husband, gave occasion to the songs of Renaud, of which a collection has been preserved to us, breathing the language of the most glowing passion. The happiness of the parties was interrupted by the summoning of Coucy to the crusade. He embarked with Richard of England at Marseilles. With him he fought at Cæsarea, and conquered at Ascalon. But, in defending a castle where the king was quartered, he was wounded by a poisoned arrow. The wound proved incurable, and Renaud requested leave to return to his country, which was granted. But, in a few days, he felt sensible that his end was approaching; and, giving to his faithful squire a silver casket, with the presents of his mistress, "Take it," he said, "and guard it well; when I am dead, enclose my heart in this casket, and bear the whole to the lady of Fayel." He also added a letter, which he was hardly able to sign. He died, and his faithful squire hastened to the castle of Fayel. He was surprised by the lord of the castle, who, suspecting his appearance, ordered him to be searched, and found on him the gifts and the letter of Coucy. Burning with rage, he determined on revenge. He ordered the heart to be served at table. It was done, and Gabrielle ate of it. "Have you found the dish to your taste, madam?" he asked. "Excellent!" answered his victim. "I doubt it not," he replied; "it must have been a dainty morsel for you, for it was the heart of the castellan of Coucy." In fearful confirmation of his words, he gives her the letter of the dying Renaud. The unhappy woman, after this horrible meal, refused all sustenance, and died of voluntary starvation. The love-songs of the

castellan of Coucy are in the *Mémoires historiques sur Raoul de Coucy*, Paris, 1781 (in the ancient dialect, with a translation subjoined, and old music). Uhland has made this story the subject of a fine ballad.

Cough, in medicine; a deep inspiration of air, followed by a sudden, violent and sonorous expiration, in a great measure involuntary, and excited by a sensation of the presence of some irritating cause in the lungs or windpipe. The organs of respiration are so constructed, that every foreign substance, except atmospheric air, offends them. The smallest drop of water, entering the windpipe, is sufficient to produce a violent coughing, by which the organs labor to expel the irritating substance. A similar effect is produced by inhaling smoke, dust, &c. The sudden expulsion of air from the lungs is produced by the violent contraction of the diaphragm and the muscles of the breast and ribs. These parts are thus affected by a sympathy with the organs of respiration, which sympathy springs from the connexion of the nerves of the different parts. The sensation of obstruction or irritation, which gives rise to cough, though sometimes perceived in the chest, especially near the pit of the stomach, is most commonly confined to the *trachea*, or windpipe, and especially to its aperture in the throat, termed the *glottis*. Yet this is seldom the seat of the irritating cause, which is generally situated at some distance from it, and often in parts unconnected by structure or proximity with the organs of respiration. Of the various irritations which give rise to cough, some occur within the cavity of the chest; others are external to that cavity; some exist even in the viscera of the pelvis. Of those causes of cough which take place within the chest, the disorders of the lungs themselves are the most common, especially the inflammation of the mucous membranes, which excites the catarrhal cough, or common cold. This disease is generally considered unimportant, particularly if there be no fever connected with it. But every cough, lasting longer than a fortnight or three weeks, is suspicious, and ought to be medically treated. Another common cause of cough, which has its seat in the lungs, is inflammation of those organs, whether in the form of pleurisy or peripneumony. (q. v.) These diseases do not differ very essentially, except in violence and extent, from the acute catarrh, but are more dangerous, and more rapid in their progress, and the constitution is excited to a highly febrile condition. Even after the acute state of inflammation may have subsided, a cough, attended with extreme danger, sometimes continues to be excited by collections of pus, or abscesses, which ensue in the substance of the lungs, and either terminate in consumption, or suffocate the patient by suddenly bursting; more rarely the pus is discharged gradually from a small aperture, and the patient recovers. In such cases, the fever, originally acute, is converted into a hectic, with daily chills, succeeded by heat and flushing of the face, night sweats, and emaciation. Another frequent origin of cough is the rupture of some of the blood-vessels of the lungs, and the consequent effusion of blood into the cells, which is expelled by the cough that its irritation excites, constituting what is technically termed *hæmoptoe*, *hæmoptysis*, or spitting of blood. When the vessels of the lungs are thus ruptured, they seldom heal readily, but degenerate into ulcers, which pour out a purulent matter; and, by this discharge, the vital powers are gradually worn down and destroyed. This is a common source of consumption, or *phthisis pulmonalis*. (See *Consumption*.) A cough is excited, and the same fatal disorder is also induced, by the existence of tubercles in the lungs. These are little tumors, which gradually inflame and ulcerate, and produce the same consequences as the ulcerations from *hæmoptysis*. *Calculi*, or stony concretions, are sometimes formed in the lungs, and the irritation which they produce necessarily excites a cough, which is liable to terminate in consumption. There is yet another source of irritation within the lungs, of which cough is an attendant, namely, an effusion of *serum* into the parenchymatous substance of the lungs, or into the cellular membrane, which connects the cells and blood-vessels together. This has been called *anasarca pulmonum*, or dropsy of the lungs, and is marked by great difficulty of breathing, with a sense of weight and oppression in the chest, occasioned by the compression of the air-cells and vessels by the accumulated water; hence also great irregularity of pulse, frightful dreams, imperfect sleep, &c., are among its symptoms. Inflammation of the heart, and of the *pericardium*, or membrane surrounding it, is also accompanied by cough, and other symptoms not easily distinguishable from those of pleurisy and peripneumony. Where a cough is excited by disorders of parts external to the cavity of the chest, it is generally dry, as the irritating cause is external, and not any obstructing

matter in the lungs themselves. Disorders of the viscera of the abdomen, especially of those which lie in contact with the diaphragm (the muscular curtain separating the cavities of the belly and chest), frequently induce a cough. A short, dry cough invariably attends inflammation of the liver, whether acute or chronic, and accompanies the various tubercular and other obstructions in that organ. Hence inflammation of the liver is not unfrequently mistaken for inflammation in the lungs; and, in some of the chronic diseases of the liver, the cough is occasionally complained of as the most urgent symptom. The presence of pain in the right side, shooting up to the top of the shoulder, the dryness of the cough, and pain, enlargement, hardness, or uneasiness on pressure below the ribs of that side, will afford the best means of distinguishing whether a disease of the liver is the origin of the cough. Disorders of the stomach are, also, often accompanied with a cough of the same dry and teasing nature, especially when that organ is over distended with food, or is in the opposite condition of emptiness. A short cough is, therefore, a frequent symptom of indigestion and hypochondriasis, or of that weakness of the stomach which is popularly termed *bilious*. In short, there is scarcely any one of the viscera, in the cavity of the abdomen, the irritation of which, in a state of disease, has not excited cough. Disorders of the spleen, pancreas, and even the kidneys, have all given rise to this symptom; and external tumors, attached to them, have had the same effect. Any distension of the abdomen, which, by its pressure upwards, impedes the descent of the diaphragm, and consequently the expansion of the lungs, occasions cough. Thus, in the *ascites*, or dropsy of the belly, the water—in tympanites, the air—in corpulency, the fat in the omentum—and, in pregnancy, the gravid uterus,—all have the effect of exciting cough in many constitutions. The variety of causes from which coughs may arise, must convince every reader of the absurdity of attempting to cure all kinds of cough by the same remedy.

Coulomb, Charles Augustin de; born 1736, at Angoulême; entered the corps of engineers; was sent to Martinique, where he constructed fort Bourbon. In 1779, his theory of simple machines obtained the prize offered by the academy; and, in 1781, he was unanimously chosen a member of that body. In all difficult cases of mechanics, his judgment was appealed to, and invariably proved correct. A plan had been proposed to the estates of Brittany for making navigable canals in their province, and Coulomb, as commissioner of the government, was to give his opinion of the scheme. Convinced that the ultimate benefit would by no means be proportioned to the immense cost of the work, he decided against it. As this interfered with the plans of certain of the ministry, he was obliged to do penance in the *Abbaye*. Coulomb requested permission to resign his office. His request was denied, and he was sent again to Brittany. His second decision was the same as the former, and the estates of Brittany honored his judgment by the present of a watch bearing the arms of the province. On the breaking out of the revolution, Coulomb was knight of the order of St. Louis, and lieutenant-colonel in the corps of engineers. He gave up all his offices to devote himself to the education of his children. This leisure was useful to the cause of science; for he was led, by experiments on the elastic force of bent metal rods, to discover the secrets of magnetism, and the principles of electricity, which he ascertained with the more precision from his habit of combining, in all his inquiries, calculation with observation. On the restoration of the institute, he was made a member, and appointed inspector-general of public instruction. He was actively employed in this department, which he was constantly elevating by his writings, and was in the enjoyment of much domestic happiness, when he died, Aug. 23, 1806.

Coumassie; a town in Upper Guinea, the capital of the kingdom of the Ashantees. Bowdich estimates its inhabitants at 18,000. Lat. 6° 39′ 50″ N.; lon. 2° 11′ 45″ W.

Council; an assembly: by way of eminence, an assembly of the church, called, also, *synod*. Provincial councils were held as early as the 2d century, that is, synods consisting of the prelates of a single province. The assembled bishops and elders deliberated on doctrines, rites and church discipline, and promised to execute the resolutions of the synod in their churches. These assemblies were usually held in the capitals of the provinces (metropolis), the bishops of which, who, in the 3d century, received the title of *metropolitans*, usually presided over their deliberations. The councils had no other legislative authority than that which rested on the mutual agreement of the members. After Christianity had become the established religion of

the Roman empire, in the beginning of the 4th century, the emperors summoned councils, which were called *œcumenical*, that is, universal councils, because all the bishops of the empire were invited to them. Among these, the most remarkable are, 1. the council of Nice (q. v.), in 325, by which the dogma respecting the Son of God was settled; 2. that of Constantinople (q. v.), 381, by which the doctrine concerning the Holy Ghost was decided; 3. that of Ephesus, 431; and, 4. that of Chalcedon, 451; in which two last, the doctrine of the union of the divine and human nature in Christ was more precisely determined. In the 4th century, the opinion arose, that the councils were under the particular direction of the Holy Ghost; hence the great authority which their resolutions obtained. Like the Roman emperors, the German kings exercised, at first, the right of assembling synods; in particular, Charlemagne, during whose reign the clergy of the Frankish empire held a council at Frankfort on the Maine, in 749, which condemned the worship of images introduced among the Greeks. In the middle ages, the popes maintained the right of summoning councils, which, however, cannot be considered as general councils, since the Western church was soon separated from the Greek. The principal of these Latin councils are that of Clermont (1096), in the reign of Urban II, in which the first crusade was resolved upon, and some later ones, in which a reunion with the Greeks was attempted. In consequence of the great schism towards the end of the 14th century, which gave rise to, at first two, and afterwards three, candidates for the papal throne, the council of Pisa was convened, in 1409, which declared that the popes were subordinate to the general council, and condemned the schismatic candidates. After the dissolution of the council of Pisa, without having terminated the schism, the council of Constance (q. v.) was held in 1414, the most solemn and numerous of all the councils, which revived the principle, that a general council is superior to the pope, adjusted the schism, and pronounced the condemnation of John Huss (1415), and of his friend Jerome of Prague (1416). The council of Bâle (q. v.), in 1431, asserted the same principle, and intended a reformation, if not in the doctrines, yet in the constitution and discipline of the church. At the time of the reformation, the Protestants repeatedly demanded such a council; even the emperor, and the states which had remained faithful to the old doctrine, thought it the best means for restoring peace to the church. But the popes, recollecting the decisions at Pisa, Constance and Bâle, so disadvantageous to their authority, constantly endeavored to evade it. At length the pope could no longer resist the importunities of the emperor and the states. He summoned a council at Trent (q. v.), which began its session in 1545, and labored chiefly to confirm the doctrines of the Catholic church against the Protestants. Since the council of Trent, there has been no council, in which all the Catholic states of the West have been represented; but there have been several national councils, particularly in France. The Lutherans have never settled their church concerns by councils; but in the Calvinistic churches, many particular synods have been held, among which, that of Dort (1618), which confirmed the peculiar opinions of Calvin on election, in opposition to the Arminians, is distinguished. The Protestant councils could never have the same authority as the Catholic in matters of doctrine, for the Protestants do not consider their clergy as constituting the church: moreover, in the Protestant countries of Europe, each monarch has assumed the station of head of the church of his country. The chief questions in regard to councils are, 1. What is their authority in matters of doctrine and discipline? 2. What is necessary to give them the character of œcumenical or general councils, and to which of those that have been held should this name be confined? 3. Who has the right to convoke councils, to preside over them, to be a member of them? 4. Whether their decrees are authoritative *per se*, or whether they require to be confirmed by some other power, as the pope, for instance? All these points are of vital interest to the Catholic church, and have occasioned violent contests. They involve too many considerations to be treated here, and we must refer the reader to Catholic works on this point. Among others, the *Dictionnaire de Théologie, par Bergier, extrait de l'Encyclopédie Méthodique*, Toulouse, 1817, contains a full article *Concile*.

Council, Aulic. (See *Aulic Council*.)

Council of State, in modern politics; a term of very vague meaning. In general, it means a council intended to assist the sovereign, and composed of members, whose chief business it is to discuss, advise, legislate or decide; it being the duty of the ministers to execute. Buillard's *Histoire du Conseil d'État* (Paris, 1718, 4to.),

and Guyot's *Traité des Droits des Dignités, et Offices du Royaume* (Paris, 1787), show the indefinite, vacillating and arbitrary character of the powers of the *conseil d'état*, in France, before the revolution. It judged cases of maritime prizes, often decided in civil and criminal processes, determined the authority of the papal bulls, &c. The abolition of such a body was an act of wisdom in the constituent assembly. It was succeeded by the court of cassation (q. v.), which is not only the court of ultimate appeal, but also defines the jurisdiction of different tribunals in case of conflict. The constitution of the year III established a council of state, under the direction of the consuls, *pour rédiger les projets de loi et de réglements, et pour résoudre les difficultés en matière administrative.* These extensive and vague powers of the council contained the seeds of mischief, particularly as that body was under the direction of the consuls. In 1802, the *conseil d'état* was constituted *juge des appels comme d'abus;* and this abuse still continues. The powers of the council were still further enlarged by *senatus-consultes*, and even by imperial decrees: thus it was empowered to annul the decisions of the *cour des comptes*, and still retains this dangerous authority. Under the Bourbons, the *conseil d'état* has been intrusted with powers of indefinite extent, and of all kinds, which are by no means vested in the executive, by the *charte*. Besides this, the members are appointed and removed at the will of the king. This council has, says Corménin (*Questions de Droit Administratif*, p. 5), *une juridiction tellement étendue, qu'on ne trouve rien de semblable ni en France dans les temps antérieurs à la révolution, ni dans les autres pays de l'Europe, telle enfin, qu'elle se mêle à presque tous nos intérêts, qu'elle affecte presque toutes nos propriétés, qu'elle touche à presque toutes nos personnes.* In Spain, when the constitution of the cortes was in force, a constitutional council of state existed. In Prussia, an assembly composed of the highest civil and military officers, with the princes, is called *Staatsrath* (council of state), but, of course, no power is vested in that body. They give their opinion on questions laid before them by the king. The prince royal is its president. In some of the U. States, there are councils, which the governors are obliged to consult upon executive business, and which have a negative upon their appointments to office.

Council, Privy, in England, is the principal council belonging to the king. In 1679, the number of members, having become inconveniently large, was limited to 30. It is now, however, again indefinite, but only such members attend as are summoned on each particular occasion. The lord president of the council is the fourth great officer of state. He is appointed, by letters patent under the great seal, during pleasure. Privy counsellors are nominated by the king, without patent or grant, and removable at his pleasure. The power of the privy council, in offences against the government, extends only to inquiry, and their committal is not privileged beyond that of an ordinary justice of the peace. But in plantation or admiralty causes, in disputes of colonies concerning their charters, and in some other cases, an appeal lies to the king in council. The privy council continues for six months after the accession of a new prince, unless he previously dissolve it. Proclamations, which, if consonant to the law of the land, are binding on the subject, are issued with the advice of this council.

Council and Session, Lords of; the supreme judges of the highest court of Scotland. (See *Scotland.*)

Council Bluffs; a military post belonging to the U. States, on the west bank of the Missouri, about 50 miles above the junction of the La Platte, and 650 above the junction of the Missouri with the Mississippi. Lon. 96° 42′ W.; lat. 41° 31′ N. It is an important station, the highest up the Missouri, that is occupied by the U. States as a military position. Before the U. States occupied this post, the Ottoes and Missouris held a council there, Aug. 3, 1814, which gave rise to the name. *Bluff* was originally a sea term meaning high land. (See Pickering's *Vocabulary of Americanisms.*)

Counsel; those who give counsel in law; any counsellor or advocate, or any number of counsellors, barristers or sergeants, as the plaintiff's counsel or the defendant's counsel. In this sense, the word has no plural, but is applicable, in the singular number, to one or more persons.

Counsellor, in law, is one whose profession is to give advice in questions of law, and to manage causes for clients. (See *Advocate.*)

Counsellor (in German, *Rath*). In Germany, the mania for titles is carried to a greater degree than in any other country in Europe. Almost every man is desirous of possessing one, and the title of even the lowest officer is reverently repeated, with a preceding *Mr.*, as often as the in-

dividual is addressed by persons of equal or lower rank; for instance, we have *Mr. Lieutenant*, nay, sometimes *Mr. Taxgatherer*, and even *Mrs. Taxgatheress* (*Frau Steuereinnehmerin*). The title *Rath* (counsellor), in particular, has been distributed with a most ridiculous profusion. In all branches of government, you meet counsellors in abundance. Every one is a counsellor who has passed through certain preparatory degrees, particularly in Prussia. In fact, the term, in Prussia, is as common as *mandarin* in China. The judges are not judges, but *court-counsellors*, which title, for the sake of precision, is amplified to *country*, or *city*, or *high-country-court counsellor* (*Oberlandesgerichtsrath*). There are also *Finanz-Räthe*, *Medizinal-Räthe*, *Regierungs-Räthe*, &c.; and, in all branches, *Geheime-Räthe*, as, *Geheime-Medizinal-Räthe*, *Geheime-Finanz-Räthe*, &c. Moreover, as it always happens that honors and titles gradually decline in value, new ones must be invented: thus, in Prussia, the title *Geheime-Rath* being given to persons who have nothing to do with the private deliberations of the government, it has been deemed necessary to give to the actual counsellors a new and distinguishing title: they are called *real-privy-counsellors*. And you find, therefore, in Prussia *Wirkliche-Geheime-Ober-Finanz-Räthe* (real-privy-high-finance-counsellors)! and so in all branches. And who are these real-privy-high &c.'s? You would think they were at least several degrees higher than the privy counsellors of England. They are, in fact, however, mere assistants of the minister. Besides this host of *Räthe*, who have actually official duties to discharge, there is another swarm, equally numerous, of people whose title of counsellor is a mere title of honor, like the Chinese peacock's feather. The title most generally bestowed in this way is *Hofrath* (counsellor of the court). *Hofräthe* and *Geheime-Hofräthe* are so common in Germany, that a traveller observes, if you spit out of the window on a crowd, it is ten to one that you hit a *Hofrath*. There are also *Bau-Räthe* (building-counsellors), *Steuer-Räthe* (tax-counsellors), *Universitäts-Räthe*, *Commerzien-Räthe*; and again the same titles, with the honorary term *Geheime* (privy) prefixed, as *Geheime-Bau-Räthe*, &c. The title of *Kriegs-Rath* (counsellor of war) is often given to men who have nothing military in their occupation or habits. The old proverb says, *Sat verbum sapienti*, but here we are tempted to exclaim, *Sat verbum stulto*.

Counsellor, Privy. (See *Council, Privy*.)

Count, Countee, or County (from the Latin *comes*), appears to have been first used, as a title of dignity, under the reign of Constantine. During the existence of the republic, the inferior officers, as *tribuni*, *præfecti*, *scribæ*, *medici*, *haruspices*, *accensi*, *præcones*, who accompanied the *proconsules* and *proprætores* into their provincial governments, were known as the *comites* or *cohors* of their principal. (*Cic. pro Rab. Post.* 6.) On the establishment of the imperial government, the name was applied to the court and household of the prince; and Dio (53) mentions a council of senators, selected by Augustus as his *comites*. (*Salmas. ad Sueton. Tib.* 46.) On the first distribution of his dominions, and the foundation of the new capital by Constantine, 10 out of 35 provincial generals received the title of *comes*. The civil officers, likewise, who were honored with this distinction, gradually became very numerous, and lists of them may be found in the *Cod. Theod.* vi, 12—20, in the *Notitia Imper.*, and in the glossaries of Spelman and Du Cange. After the fall of the Roman power, the title was retained by the conquerors; and, under Charlemagne, it denoted equally a military or civil employment. About the end of the 15th century, in Germany, and under the last princes of the Merovingian race in France, the title appears to have become hereditary in families, from the weakness of the crown, which was unable to recall the dignity which it had once bestowed. Selden, in his Titles of Honor, treats the origin and progress of the title at much length, and with his usual learning. Such is the account usually given of the origin of the counts of modern times. The institutions of the ancient German tribes may, however, have contributed much to the establishment of this class of nobles. In early times, before the existence of the Latin *comites*, the Germans had officers chosen, at least in some tribes, by the people. These were a kind of inferior judges. After the Franks became the ruling nation, they made a change in their character. The kings now appointed them, and they exercised jurisdiction over certain districts in the king's name, with the title of *Grafen*. The word has been derived very variously from *grau* (gray or venerable), from γράφω, to write (like the Gallico-Latin word *graffare*, whence *greffier*), &c., from *gefera*, signifying companion, and corresponding to the Latin *comes*; but there is little doubt that it is really from the Saxon *gerefa* (gatherer, and subsequently judge). These ancient officers

are, perhaps, as fairly entitled as the *comites* to be considered the root of the subsequent *counts*. The German title *Graf* corresponds to the title *count* in other countries of Europe. From the instructions given to these *Grafen*, which Marcalf has preserved, it is evident that they superintended the administration of justice, the police, and the taxes. After the time of the Carlovingian dynasty, the office and name remained, but different classes of counts or *Grafen* were formed; thus *Pfalzgrafen*, or *comites palatii*, the judges of the court, who decided whether a case should be brought before the king; *Markgrafen*, counts of the frontiers; *Holzgrafen*, counts of the forests, that is, inspectors, &c. These royal officers soon usurped power which did not belong to them, and treated the people so badly, that the emperors and kings were obliged to go themselves into the provinces, and hold courts, or to send particular officers for this purpose, called *Sendgrafen*. The capitularies of Charlemagne contain very precise instructions to these officers, on the subject of their duties. The sheriffs in England were originally the deputies of the English counts or earls, who correspond to the German *Grafen*. Their Latin title is still *vicecomes*. Their English title, derived from *shire* and *gerefa*, has the same origin with the German *Graf*. (See *Sheriff*.) In the German empire, the power of the counts increased with the progress of the nation, whilst the imperial government became weaker and weaker. They even began to transmit their titles to their children, as did also the dukes, and other officers, in those times of unpunished usurpation. In the 12th century, the division of counties, on the continent of Europe, was abolished, and thus the counts lost their jurisdiction, except on their own possessions. In point of rank, the English earls are considered as corresponding to the continental counts. (See *Earl*.)

Counterguards, in fortification, are small ramparts with parapets and ditches, to cover some part of the body of a place. They are of several shapes, and differently situated. They are generally made before the bastion, in order to cover the opposite flanks from being seen from the covert-way, and, in this case, consist of two faces, making a salient angle parallel to the faces of the bastion. They are sometimes made before the ravelins. The cost of building them is more than proportionate to their value, especially when they are small, and without cannon, in which case, particularly, they are called *couvrefaces*.

Countermark, in numismatics (from *counter* and *mark*). Antiquaries call by this name those stamps or impressions which are found on ancient coins or medals, and have been given since their first impress in the mint. These countermarks or stamps are often executed without any care, and frequently obliterate the most interesting portion of the original inscription. Thus they correspond with the *codices rescripti*. In performing this operation, the new mark was stamped upon the coin with a heavy blow of a mallet upon a punch, on which was engraved the countermark, of a round, oval, or square shape. The use of countermarks appears to have been first adopted by the Greeks, but it is impossible to say at what period of their history. Upon the Greek coins so altered, the countermarks are generally figures, accompanied by inscriptions. Those of Rome seldom contain any thing more than inscriptions and monograms. There have been various opinions respecting the cause of these countermarks; some antiquaries thinking that they were to indicate an augmentation of the value of the money upon which they were stamped; others, that they were vouchers for workmen; and, again, that they were only struck upon money taken or received from foreign enemies. Jobert, Millin, De Boze, Bimard, Mabudel, Pelleim, Florez, and other antiquaries, have exercised their conjectural skill on this subject. During the long war with revolutionary France, England stamped millions of Spanish dollars with small, oval countermarks of the head of George III upon the neck of the Spanish monarch. Many of them were completely restamped or countermarked in the mint, and both impressions were sometimes visible, the English head and reverse not completely destroying the Spanish head, armorial bearings and inscriptions.

Counterpoint signifies, in music, a part or parts added to a given melody. In ancient times, musical sounds were represented by certain letters of the alphabet. A great improvement was made on the old system by the celebrated Guido d'Arezzo, who substituted points or dots in the place of letters. The simple harmony of that period consisted of notes equal in length, and the term *contrapunctus*, or *counterpoint*, was applied to it in consequence of the points by which it was represented being placed under, or, as it were, against each other, on the staff. By *counterpoint*, we understand, therefore, the several parts which compose musical

harmony; and the science of counterpoint consists in a knowledge of the rules according to which those parts must be constructed. On this account, the term is frequently used for musical composition in general. When the notes employed are of equal length, the counterpoint is called *simple*. When notes of various length are used, the counterpoint is said to be *figurate* or *florid*.

COUNTERPROOF, in engraving; an impression taken from a newly-printed proof of a copperplate, for the purpose of a closer investigation of the state of the plate, as the proof is, in every respect, the reverse of the plate, while the counterproof has every thing the same way.

COUNTER-REMONSTRANTS (*Contraremonstranten*). (See *Remonstrants*, and *Gomarists*, under the article of *Reformed Church*.)

COUNTERSCARP, in fortification, is properly the slope or *talus* of the exterior side of a ditch, towards the field. The inner slope, on the side towards the place, is called *escarpe*. Sometimes the covert way and glacis are termed *counterscarp*.

COUNTY; originally, the district or territory under the jurisdiction of a count or earl; now, a circuit, or particular portion of a state or kingdom, separated from the rest of the territory, for certain purposes, in the administration of justice. It is called also a *shire*. (See *Shire*.) Each county has its sheriff and its court, with other officers employed in the administration of justice, and the execution of the laws. In England, there are 52 counties, and in each is a lord-lieutenant, who has command of the militia. The several states of America are divided by law into counties, in each of which is a county court of inferior jurisdiction; and, in each, the supreme court of the state holds stated sessions.—*County palatine*, in England, is a county distinguished by particular privileges; so called *a palatio* (the palace), because the chief officer in the county had originally royal powers, or the same powers, in the administration of justice, as the king had in his palace; but these powers are now abridged. The counties palatine, in England, are Lancaster, Chester and Durham. There is a court of chancery in each of the counties palatine of Durham and Lancaster. There are many privileges attached to these counties. In none of them are the king's ordinary writs of any force.—3 *Blackstone*, 79. (See *Count*.)

County Corporate, in England, is a title given to several cities or boroughs, which have extraordinary privileges, so that they form counties by themselves.

COUP (*French;* a blow). This term is used in various connexions, to convey the idea of promptness and force.—*Coup de main*, in military language, signifies a prompt, vigorous and successful attack.—*Coup d'œil*, in a military sense; a rapid conception of the advantages and weaknesses of positions and arrangements of troops. It is also used for a quick comprehension of all the points and bearings of any subject.—*Coup de théâtre;* a sudden and striking change in the action.—*Coup d'état* is a forcible and arbitrary political measure.

COURLAND (in Russian, *Kourliandia;* in German, *Kurland*); formerly a duchy, to which also belonged Semigallia. At present, they form together the Russian government of Mittau, containing 10,280 square miles, and 581,300 inhabitants. Courland lies on the Baltic. The Dwina forms its frontier to the east. It is situated between lat. 55° 40′ and 57° 45′ N., and lon. 20° 55′ and 27° 10′ E., and is generally flat. Morasses and lakes are numerous. The climate is cold. Though healthy in general, particularly on the coasts, yet fever, dysentery and gout are not uncommon. The soil is in general sandy, in some parts clayey, almost everywhere susceptible of cultivation, but not remarkably fertile. The principal productions are grain, flax and hemp. The forests are numerous, and some almost impenetrable. In some parts, the axe has never yet penetrated. There is little pasturage, and the cattle are small. Goats are numerous: swine and birds do not abound. The forests contain wild boars, bears, wolves, elks, and other game. The coasts, lakes and rivers abound with fish. The country contains mines of iron, quarries of gypsum, turf-bogs and mineral waters. Yellow amber is collected on the shores of the Baltic. The manufactures are few, comprising only those of paper, potashes, spirit distilled from grain, and bricks. The exports are grain, hemp, flax, flax-seed, linseed oil, timber, planks, skins, wax, honey, tallow, resin, and other raw products. The principal trade is carried on at the ports of Windau and Liebau. The roads are obstructed by forests and morasses. The population is composed principally of Lettonians, Livonians, Germans and Russians. There are also some Poles and Jews. The greater part of the inhabitants are Lutherans; about one fifth are Catholics. The nobility is composed of Poles, Russians and Germans, and possesses great privileges. Courland was anciently a part of Livonia, and, like the

latter, was conquered in the 13th century, by the knights of the Teutonic order. It was subsequently united with Semigallia, and, under the name of the *duchy of Courland*, the two provinces became a fief of Poland. The duchy, however, was governed by its hereditary dukes till 1737. The sixth duke, Frederic William, espoused, in 1710, Anna Ivanowna, princess of Russia, who, after his death, maintained possession of the duchy; but the government of it was intrusted to prince Ferdinand, brother of the deceased duke. On the death of Ferdinand, in 1737, the estates, in consequence of the influence of the empress of Russia, elected her favorite and grand chamberlain, Ernest John Biren, to succeed him, who was exiled to Siberia in 1740. In 1762, the emperor Peter of Russia recalled Biren, who, after some contest with prince Charles, son of the king of Poland, who had been placed over the duchy in his absence, was declared by the estates the only legitimate duke. In 1769, he transferred the duchy to his son, at whose death the estates of Courland solicited a union with the Russian empire. Catharine consented, and, by an edict of April, 1795, secured to the inhabitants all the privileges which they had enjoyed under their princes, and all the rights of her other subjects. Since this time, it has formed a government divided into five districts. In 1818, the emperor Alexander confirmed the charter of the nobility of Courland, which declared the peasants free, and regulated their relations to their former lords.

Court (*curtis*, *curia*, *aula*); the space enclosed by the walls of a feudal residence, in which the followers of a lord used to assemble, in the middle ages, to administer justice, and decide respecting affairs of common interest, &c. It was next used for those who stood in immediate connexion with the lord and master, the *pares curiæ*, the limited portion of the general assembly, to which was intrusted the pronouncing of judgments, &c. Finally, it came to denote the residence of a prince, with his family and highest officers. From this court (*aula principalis*), when the vassals began to take less part in the management of the public business, and this could no longer be transacted on the public court days (at Easter, Whitsuntide and Christmas), the different permanent state authorities were separated with independent powers, and the actual court, the residents and daily attendants of the prince, acquired a distinct character. The etiquette of the courts has been formed, in modern times, at first on the model of the old Spanish court (the Spanish fashion of wearing the cloak, Spanish reverences, or bending of the knee, &c., being adopted), and, subsequently, the less formal ceremonial of the French court, in the time of Francis I, Catharine of Medici, Louis XIV, which admits of a dress accommodated to the existing fashion, and requires a mere inclination of the neck. The obstructions in the way of presentation have been growing fewer and fewer, especially since the time of the French revolution. The court offices are, in part, the old hereditary offices, derived from the times of feudal services. Besides these, there are others of a more modern character, which are founded, however, in some degree at least, on the old distribution of services among such officers as the chief marshal, chamberlain, master of the horse, butler, &c. The modern court offices are now all personal, and have become very numerous.—*Court ladies* are noble ladies, composing the retinue of the princess. At their head stands the *dame d'honneur*.—*Court council* (*Hofrath—consilium aulicum*). (See *Aulic Council*.) This corresponds, in Germany, to the French *conseil du roi*. Similar authorities, called, in the smaller states, *Landesregierungen*, were established in Germany in the 16th century, in imitation of the imperial council, and, like this council, were, by degrees, intrusted with judicial functions, till they have finally become supreme courts, wherever no particular department is established, with the charge of presiding over the general administration of justice, and have, as in Prussia, resigned the name of *government* to the administrative authorities.

Courts of Justice. [The first part of this article, including all which precedes the extended account of the courts of England, is taken from the German *Conversations-Lexicon*, and was, of course, written by a German lawyer.] The essence of the judicial power consists in deciding according to existing law, and the facts of the case which have been brought before the court. The judge must follow scrupulously the existing laws, whether they agree with his own convictions or not. Every departure from them involves an overstepping of his own power, and an infringement upon that of the legislative body. Every decision, resting on a deviation from existing law, is invalid; and the purpose of correcting such deviations gave rise to the court of cassation in France, and to the writs of error in England. Still it cannot be denied, that a system of law

is developed far better by the higher courts than by express acts of the legislature; and the Roman, the most complete of all systems of law, is indebted for its perfection to this very circumstance, that its extension and improvement, with the exception of a few applications of the legislative power, were effected principally by the pretors or chief judges. (See *Civil Law.*) So also the English common law has been built up principally by the courts, who are guided mostly by precedents which their predecessors on the bench have established. The ancient French courts (parliaments and other *cours souveraines*) exercised a similar power. They decided contested points of law by *arrêts réglémentaires*, which were binding also upon the occurrence of similar cases; but, when the courts were reörganized, in 1790, not only was this privilege denied them (*Code Napol.*, art. 5), but they were not even permitted to apply the universal principles of right to cases not provided for by express law. On the contrary, they were obliged to refer such cases to the national assembly. These questions, however, soon multiplied to such a degree, that the right of deciding according to general principles and the analogy of previous cases, was restored to the courts, and they were even menaced with punishment, if they refused to make such decisions, under the pretence that the laws were obscure. (*Code Napol.*, art. 4.) A similar course has been pursued in Prussia; and it will forever be the duty of courts, in the explanation and application of the laws, to take for their guidance those higher and eternal principles of right which are the same in all ages and nations; not, indeed, making them take the place of positive law, but explaining the positive laws with reference to them. Many peculiarities, in ancient and modern constitutions of government, are explained, when we reflect that every command (*imperium*) is, in itself, distinct from the judicial power (*jurisdictio*). The courts in Germany are clothed with the power of carrying into effect their own decisions; but this was not always so, nor is it now the case in other countries. In all civil processes in England, the original writ is first issued from the chancery of the kingdom, except in trifling cases, where the sum in dispute is less than 40 shillings. The original writ is put into the hands of the sheriff, and contains an order to hold the defendant to do what the plaintiff requires of him, or to show cause to the court why he should not (an order styled in England a *præcipe*, in Germany a *mandatum cum clausula*); or, without giving the defendant such a choice, the writ orders the sheriff absolutely to bring him before a court of justice as soon as the plaintiff gives security for prosecuting his suit (this order is called a *pone*, or *si te fecerit securum*). The various writs receive names from the initial Latin words, as all the judicial proceedings in the English courts were in Latin till 1730. The case is somewhat similar in France, where the officers of the court (*huissiers*) execute the first summons, like the officers of government, without receiving a commission from the court. Sentences, in criminal cases, are executed in France solely by the advocates of the crown, and not by the judges; in England, by the sheriffs of the counties. The judicial power should not be accused of a defective organization, because the courts have no power to execute their sentences. The constitution must provide for such an execution; but, strictly speaking, the judicial power has completed its duty in deciding between right and wrong. The sentence of a court of justice can never affect the person of a sovereign prince, and, even in regard to his immovable property, there are difficulties in the way of its execution. The remedy of the English nation, in this case, is stated in the article *England*. In Germany, executions could formerly be obtained against the princes in the imperial courts, and they were to be carried into effect by the circles of the empire; but, with the dissolution of the imperial constitution, this power has ceased. The German confederation can carry into effect, against the states composing it, its own decrees, and the decisions of the court appointed to arbitrate between different states (the *Austragal Instanz*), but cannot take cognizance of the complaints of a private individual against a sovereign power, whether the one to which he is himself subject, or that of another state.

The above distinction between the proper business of courts, to decide on what is right in particular cases, and the powers of the executive in regard to the administration of justice, often appears in the organization of courts, and the officers of government concerned in the administration of justice. In the first place, this is observable in cases where the object is not so much to settle contested points, as to carry into effect the undisputed claims of one party on another, or to settle temporarily the relations of the parties (as, for instance, in regard to the possession of

certain property), with a view to a final decision of their rights at a future time. Acknowledgments of debt made before a public officer, and containing an order for their execution in the name of the government (*guaranda*, or *guarantigia*, resembling the French notarial documents), and, in general, all indubitable claims, were not anciently esteemed subjects of judicial examination, in a proper sense, in Germany; and this view of the subject is one of the sources of the participation of the executive in the administration of justice in that country. Another arises from the ordinances of the Italian cities. In the second place, the duties of the higher branches of the ministry of justice are founded on the same distinction. Nothing belonging properly to legal decisions falls within the department of a minister of justice.* His duty is to provide that the tribunals are properly filled, and that they perform their duties. He issues mandates enjoining them to administer justice (*mandata de promovenda justitia*). He hears complaints respecting the delay or non-performance of justice; but, in case of a wrong decision, on the part of the court, the minister has no right to alter it. To obtain this object, appeal must be made to higher courts. The establishment of these courts of appeal was an important improvement in the civil constitutions of Germany. These various gradations of courts were unknown to that country in the middle ages. The decision of every court was final, except that sometimes important cases were referred to a higher and more experienced tribunal (the high court); and, after the territorial jurisdiction of the feudal lords had become better settled, a denial of justice in a lower court could be remedied by carrying the complaint to the court of the feudal superior; and, when the judges of the lower courts had decided wrongfully, they were personally responsible to the higher court, where right and wrong were often decided by an appeal to God in single combat. But, even after regular courts of appeal had been established, from the lowest rank up to the imperial, royal, &c. tribunal, and the ancient tribunals which succeeded the prince's court (*aula principalis*) had attained a fixed seat and permanent judges (in England, by *Magna Charta*, 1215, in France, 1305, and in Germany, 1495), there were still cases in which the lower courts might be accused of obvious injustice in their decisions, and attempts were made to procure their abolition, and the higher authorities were very ready to avail themselves of the opportunity. An excellent work on the history of this relation between the executive (*conseil privé*) and the judicial power in France is that of Henrion de Pansey, entitled *De l'Autorité Judiciare en France* (On the Judicial Authority in France) Paris, 1818, 4to. This mixture of the executive and judicial authorities in France, which had become an object of universal detestation on account of the egregious abuses to which it led (such as infringement upon the power of the judicature by means of commissions, by the cassation of legal decisions, by *lettres de cachet*), was abolished by the institution of the court of cassation. (q. v.) By this means, the gradations of tribunals were reduced to two; and the number of district courts (*tribunaux de première instance*) and the high courts (*cours d'appel*) was diminished. In Germany, probably to the advantage of the country, the ancient number of three gradations, proceeding from the baronial or municipal, the princely and the royal tribunals, has been retained. (See *Appeal, Courts of.*) For a general history of the constitution of courts, we are indebted to a celebrated jurist, of the Jewish religion, J. D. Meyer—*Esprit, Origine et Progrès des Institutions Judiciaires des principaux Pays d'Europe*, published in 1819—1822, 6 volumes. The subject, however, is by no means exhausted. The secret courts of Westphalia, in Germany, are unique, and have never yet received a full explanation, notwithstanding the labors of learned lawyers, such as Kopp, Eichhorn and Wigand. It might be made a question, whether their establishment, which is dated in the 13th century, had not some connexion with that of the inquisition, founded about the same time.

As it is an object of high importance to fix the limits of the judicial power, with respect to the executive and legislative, it is equally important to ascertain those limits with respect to the law of nations. In this, too, there is a great confusion, both in theory and practice, which it is highly important to settle by particular treaties between nations. While it remains, it not only throws obstacles in the way of intercourse between different states, but also tends to destroy the confidence of the subjects in the justice of rulers by the striking inconsistencies which it presents. —France, as far as we are informed, is the

* The states of Germany have a particular department of government, which superintends the administration of justice, in the same manner as the U. States have departments of state, of the treasury, &c.

only state which extends its jurisdiction to every country; and permits its citizens to bring foreigners before a French tribunal, although they have neither residence nor property in the realm; and no delay of trial takes place in favor of a foreigner, residing in his own country, if accused before a French tribunal by a citizen of France. (*Code civil*, art. 14.) This course is the more dangerous for foreigners, as it is possible for them to be summoned before the court, and condemned, without the slightest knowledge of what is going on. The summons is delivered to the state attorney, to be sent to the minister of foreign affairs, who transmits it through the diplomatic authorities to the accused. If the summons is delayed or miscarried (examples of which are known to have taken place) the trial still goes on; and the proceedings of the court, and the sentence it passes, lose nothing of their validity. If the stranger comes to France, or has property there, he may be immediately arrested and imprisoned, though a Frenchman could not be. (*Law of Sept.* 10, 1807.) The double injustice of this system appears from the fact, that the French do not acknowledge the jurisdiction of foreign tribunals in the case of their own countrymen, even though this be based on the universal principles of right. It is, therefore, very desirable that all governments should protect their subjects by strictly maintaining the law, that no one shall be accused except before his proper judges. This universal rule has been acknowledged by France only in relation to Switzerland, by various treaties, old and new, and, finally, by that of Sept. 27, 1803.—With this subject is connected the authority allowed to the decisions of the courts of foreign countries. The imperial constitution in Germany, under which all the states considered themselves as members of one whole, accustomed them to regard foreign judicial decisions, in private causes, as binding; and the tribunals were held bound to carry into effect such decisions whenever required to do so. The same custom prevails in England as to chattels, but in regard to real estate, no foreign jurisdiction is acknowledged. In France, since 1629, the decisions of foreign courts have had no force. If a judicial process is carried on against a French citizen, it is required to be reviewed before a French court, at least as to its most essential features, unless the French party chooses to go over the whole again from the beginning (*comme entier*); and, if both parties are foreigners, a petition for the attachment of the property of the debtor, in France, is never granted. (Sirey's *Journal de la Cour de Cassation*, viii, 453, and xviii, 58.) Similar laws were established in the kingdom of Westphalia and some of the German states; for example, Bavaria began to refuse all authority to the decisions of foreign courts; but it soon became evident that such a system would introduce great confusion, as there was so lively an intercourse between the different German states, and the old rules were in a great measure restored. (A decree of the Bavarian government, dated June 2, 1811, gives authority to the decisions of foreign courts, in civil causes, only when no property can be found on which to levy execution in the state where the suit has been carried on, and where no equal or superior claims exist to the property of the debtor in Bavaria. This system, however, is by no means free from objection.) As the relations of the German states, as members of the empire, have ceased, and the unconditional admission of the validity of the decisions of foreign courts would be attended with many disadvantages, it is highly desirable that a uniform rule on this subject should be introduced throughout the German confederacy.—The authority to be given to sentences of foreign courts, in criminal cases, is a subject of great delicacy, and involves the difficult question, how far states are required to deliver up accused persons who have fled to them for protection. The law of nations, on this point, is nearly uniform. The substance of it is, that, in criminal cases, one country has nothing to do with the sentences of another, either for or against the accused. The confiscation of property, in particular, which is decreed in one state, is absolutely disregarded in every other.—The punishment of crimes committed in foreign lands is a matter still more disputed. The various theories on penal law present each a different view of the subject. It should always be remembered, in discussing this question, that the administration of the penal law has a higher object than the acquiring or securing an advantage to the state, and a better foundation than the caprice which threatens this or that action with punishment, and which would suffer the most infamous crimes to pass unpunished if they are inadvertently omitted in the penal code. The penal laws, more than any other branch of legislation, should have regard to those eternal principles, which are older than any laws. They intimately concern all mankind; they are the great

support of moral order: every state, therefore, should lend to others all the assistance, in executing these laws, which accords with its convictions of right. A state which tolerates a criminal in its bosom unpunished, wherever his crime has been committed, partakes of his guilt. He should be punished according to the laws of the land (for each state must regard its own penal laws as the most just); but only for acts which are criminal in themselves and universally; such as murder, robbery, fraud, violence, which may be styled *crimes against the law of nature* (*delicta juris gentium*). Acts which are prohibited by particular states for particular reasons, and violate no universal laws of morality and justice, are to be viewed simply as violations of the peculiar organization of certain states; and no other state has good reason to punish them; for, before this can properly be done, it must first be decided, that the prohibitory laws of the states supposed accord with the higher demands of justice, and a different state has neither the means nor the right to make this decision. For this reason, it is the universal practice of nations to pass over crimes which merely infringe the positive regulations of other states (*delicta juris positivi*); such as violations of financial laws, laws against contraband trade, police regulations, ecclesiastical ordinances, &c. In fact, one state could not, consistently, punish such offences against the laws of another; for foreign states often encourage such transgressions of positive law to advance their own political views. But if a subject of one country, while abroad, commits an offence of this class against the laws of his own country, he is properly liable to punishment on his return. The citizens of a country, while they are abroad, are subject to the laws of their native land. This is the rule in England, France (*Code d'Instruct. crim.* art. 5), Prussia (*Allgemeine Landrecht*, ii, 20, sect. 12—15), Austria (*Strafgesetzbuch*, s. ii, sect. 30). In this case, as in those before mentioned, France extends its jurisdiction beyond the proper bounds. It assumes the right of punishing strangers who violate the laws of the state abroad (*Code d'Instruct. crim.* art. 6); and, on the other hand, it refuses to punish crimes committed by its own subjects in foreign lands against foreigners (*Code d'Instruct. crim.* art. 7, 24). As offences committed abroad are not to be considered as an immediate violation of the penal code of the country where they are brought to justice, the punishment inflicted on a foreigner ought not to be severer than that provided by the laws of the country where the offence took place; and, as the punishment cannot be more severe than that imposed by the laws of the country where it is inflicted, the milder rule should be followed. This is in accordance with the statutes of Prussia (*Allg. Landr.* ii, 20, sect. 15). To adopt the punishment imposed by the laws of the country where the act took place, without regard to circumstances, is contrary to all correct theory, and would lead to the greatest inconsistencies. This would require the application of the most absurd laws that were ever framed—the penal laws of England, for instance, where death is the punishment for cutting down a tree, or wearing a mask in a wood; and the religious laws of Spain are equally severe. If the liberty of selection, among the punishments imposed by foreign laws, be allowed, this would lead to the most pernicious uncertainty and caprice.

Courts. [In the following article, we shall give, at some length, a view of the courts of England, followed by an account of the courts of the U. States.] Courts of England. *Inferior Courts.* In describing the courts of England, it will be sufficient to take a cursory view of those of inferior and limited jurisdiction; among the most inconsiderable of which is the *pipowders* court, which is commonly said to derive its appellation from words signifying the *dusty foot*, either in allusion to the suitors who frequented it, or, as some say, because justice was as speedily done in this court as the dust could be shaken from the feet. Barrington, however, derives the name from the old French *pied-pouldreaux*, a pedlar, because the chapmen frequented these courts. The *pipowders* court is incident to fairs and markets, having two branches, one held by the lord of the franchise or his steward, the other by the clerk of the market. In this court are settled all disputes respecting contracts made, and all suits for injuries and offences committed during the fair. An appeal lies from this court to those of Westminster hall. The *pipowders* court has fallen very much into disuse.—Courts of *manors and hundreds.* The lord of every manor is entitled to hold a court, not of record, called a *court baron*, by himself or his steward, having a civil jurisdiction. A *hundred* court is similar, only embracing a wider district.—The *coroner's* court is held by a coroner, who assembles a jury to inquire concerning the death of any person, wherever any violence is suspected. (Coroners hold similar courts in

the U. States).—The *sheriff's* court. The sheriff of each county formerly held a court, called the *sheriff's tourn* or *torn*, twice a year, in each hundred of his county, at which every person over 12 years of age, and not specially privileged, was obliged to attend, for the reformation of common grievances and nuisances, the trial of offences, and the preservation of peace and good government. It has also a considerable jurisdiction in civil suits. Though the jurisdiction of this court remains, its business has, it seems, long since ceased, except in regard to actions of replevin, which, professor Wooddeson says, are frequently commenced in the *sheriff's torn*, and almost as frequently removed into a superior judicature.—The court *leet* has the same jurisdiction, in particular districts, that the sheriff's court has in the county, and, like the sheriff's court, is now almost obsolete.—*Justices'* court. The jurisdiction of justices of the peace has superseded that of most of the small courts. These officers are now the conservators of the peace, scattered in every town and parish of the kingdom. We have a minute account of the qualifications and powers of these officers in Burn's Justice. A justice of the peace is required to have a yearly income, clear of all encumbrances, of £100, or property estimated to be equivalent. The justices are commissioned by the king, their appointment being made through the lord chancellor. A justice is a judge of record, and causes are removed from his court to the superior courts by *certiorari*. The justices of each county hold quarterly sessions; but any justice is empowered to hold a court at any time for the examination and committing of offenders, and also for the trial of such actions as come within his commission.—The *quarter sessions*, as well as the individual justices, are instituted for the suppression and punishment of offences, and their power extends to the committing to prison for trial for crimes, with but few exceptions. Two justices may determine the settlement of a pauper, but an appeal lies from their decisions to the quarter sessions.

Assizes. Courts of assize and *nisi prius* are treated at length under the article *Assizes.* (q. v.) These courts are branches of those of Westminster hall, the great centre of the judicial administration in England, according to the forms of the common law.—Besides the above courts, there are others of a limited and special jurisdiction; namely, three in London—1. the *hustings* court, which has a jurisdiction in civil actions, and at which some of the city elections are held (among others, that of members of parliament from that city), and from which an appeal lies to certain justices of the city; 2. the *sheriffs'* courts; 3. a court of *conscience*, of summary jurisdiction in actions under 40 shillings, held by the lord mayor:—the court of *commissioners of sewers*, to provide for the repair of sea-walls, ditches, sewers, &c.:—the court of *stannaries*, for the tin mines in Cornwall and Devonshire, for the trial of suits in which the tinners are parties:—courts of the *forest*, having jurisdiction over the royal forests:—the court of the *royal franchise of Ely*, belonging to the bishopric of that name, but held by justices, not by the bishop himself, and having jurisdiction of causes arising within the bishopric:—courts *palatinate*, of the counties palatine of Durham, Chester and Lancaster, which are courts of record, of superior jurisdiction, commensurate with that of the courts of Westminster, from which writs do not run into these counties palatine:—the court of the *Marshalsea* and of the *palace*, still held weekly at Southwark, whose jurisdiction embraces a circuit of 12 miles about the king's palace, for the determination of causes arising among the servants of the king's household; and the court of the *earl marshal*, authorized by the statute of 13 Richard II, chap. 2, to take cognizance "of deeds of arms and war out of the realm, which cannot be discussed by the courts of the common law:"—besides the *ecclesiastical* courts and those of *admiralty* and *chancery*, of which a more particular account will be given.

The *Superior Courts* of Westminster hall are the courts of *exchequer*, *common pleas*, and *king's bench*. These three courts, and also that of *chancery* and the *house of lords*, are the remains and successors of the great court established in the Norman period, under the title of *aula regis*, which was divided, very naturally, into several departments, for the trial of different kinds of pleas; and, at length, these several branches of one jurisdiction became so many distinct courts.

The *king's bench* is considered as the most direct successor to the *aula regis*, in Westminster hall. In this court, the sovereign is, by a fiction, supposed to preside in person, and the writs are, accordingly, made returnable "before the king, wherever he may be in England," because the court formerly followed the king to different parts of the kingdom, and was once held, in the 21st year of Edward I, at Roxburgh, in Scotland; but, for many centuries, its sittings have been held in Westminster hall, and the king never pre-

sides at its sittings. Sir Edward Coke says, if he were present, still justice could be administered only by the justices, in the same manner as if he were absent; and sir William Blackstone says, when James II sat there, he was told by the judges that he must not give his opinion. The three courts of Westminster hall, at the time when they were constituted out of the *aula regis*, had jurisdiction of distinct kinds of actions; the king's bench having cognizance of criminal suits, the common pleas of suits between party and party respecting land titles and on contracts, and the exchequer in matters of revenue. These courts have also a jurisdiction in respect to the person, and not resting wholly on the kind of action. Every one, for instance, has jurisdiction of suits in which its own attorneys, or some other of its officers, are parties; and through this right of jurisdiction, in relation to the person, the king's bench has drawn to itself cognizance of actions of almost all descriptions, in which the proceedings are at common law, except real actions; nor does this exception much abridge its jurisdiction, for title to lands, in England, as in the state of N. York, is tried in personal suits, between the parties to a real or supposed lease of the lands in dispute. This general jurisdiction was acquired upon the principle that no other court could bring before it a person imprisoned by the king's bench; and, in respect to every such person, therefore, suits must be brought against him in that court, or there would be a failure of justice, as long as he should thus continue to be imprisoned. A defendant being, accordingly, once arrested and imprisoned, in an action brought before this court, might, while so in custody, be sued in any civil action, in the same court. By taking one step farther, the jurisdiction was made general in such actions, namely, by adopting the fiction that the defendant was imprisoned by the court. The great mass of the present business of this court, which fills the reports of its proceedings, is brought under its cognizance by this fiction. It has also supervision of all the inferior courts of common law throughout the kingdom, from all which a writ of error lies to this court. It may also punish magistrates and officers of justice for wilful and corrupt abuses of their authority. This species of supervision has, in some cases, been extended to other than civil and judicial officers, as in the case mentioned by Noy, where the court issued a *mandamus* to the bishop of Exon to allow the sacred unction and baptismal oil to the people of a certain parish, to whom they had been denied by him. This power of supervision is frequently exercised by ordering officers of corporations to discharge the duties incumbent upon them. This court does not take cognizance of any civil action in which the amount in dispute is less than 40 shillings. Actions are brought from the common pleas to this court, and are also carried from the king's bench to the exchequer chamber or the house of lords by writ of error.

The *common pleas*, originally having jurisdiction of civil causes, between party and party, was, like the king's bench, ambulatory, moving with the king wherever he went in the kingdom. But, by the 11th chapter of *Magna Charta*, it was ordained that it "should not follow the court, but be held in some certain place." This court is still distinguished by some of the characteristics of its original constitution, for it has the jurisdiction of real actions, and has no jurisdiction in felony and treason. Like the king's bench, it may issue writs of *habeas corpus*, which may be issued by the whole court or any one of its judges, to bring up a person imprisoned, and inquire into the cause of his imprisonment, and set him at liberty if he is confined without lawful cause. A writ of error lies from it to the king's bench. It consists of a chief-justice and three justices.

The court of *exchequer*, having jurisdiction of that part of the general business of the *aula regis* which relates to the revenue, derives its name from a chequered cloth (*exchequier*, a chess-board, or chequer-work) on the table. There are reckoned 7 courts in the exchequer; viz., 1. of *pleas*; 2. of *accounts*; 3. of *receipts*; 4. of *exchequer chamber* (where all the 12 judges of England assemble to consult on difficult matters of law); 5. of *exchequer chamber* for errors in the exchequer; 6. for errors in the king's bench; 7. of *equity*. The court of equity is held by the lord treasurer, the chancellor of the exchequer and four barons of the exchequer. The four barons, in fact, are the regular and constant judges of this court, in which is transacted the business originally belonging to the exchequer, namely, the calling the king's debtors to account, on bills being filed against them by the attorney-general, and the recovering lands, chattels or profits belonging to the king. A court of common law is also held by these four barons. And, in both these courts, civil actions, in general, may be brought, under pretence or on the fiction that the plain-

tiff is the king's debtor, and the less able to discharge the dues to the king, because his own debtor, the defendant, neglects to make the payment or do the act demanded; the fact whether the plaintiff is, as he alleges in his writ, the king's debtor, being never inquired into. One of these courts of exchequer chamber is merely an assembly of all the judges of the three superior courts, for consultation in matters of law. The court of exchequer chamber, for the correction of errors in the common law courts of exchequer, constituted by the statute of the 31 Edw. III, chap. 12, consists of the lord chancellor, the lord treasurer, and the judges of the king's bench and common pleas. The other court of exchequer chamber, for the correction of errors in the king's bench, in certain cases, is constituted by the statute of 27 Elizabeth, chap. 8, and consists of the judges of the common pleas and the barons of the exchequer. We have seen that the three courts of king's bench, common pleas and exchequer have, all of them, by means of the fictions above mentioned, concurrent jurisdiction of civil actions in general; and, if there were no higher tribunal for the supervision and correction of their decisions, they might diverge into different principles of adjudication, so that what was law in one would not be so in another, and thus uncertainty might be introduced into rights and obligations of every kind. Accordingly, every community requires to have one ultimate tribunal of appeal on all questions of the same description; and the judicial system of Great Britain is constituted upon this principle. The king's bench may, on writ of error, revise the decisions and correct the errors of the common pleas; the exchequer chamber, consisting of the judges of the common pleas and court of exchequer, may revise those of the king's bench; and the court of exchequer chamber, consisting of the lord chancellor and lord treasurer, with the judges of the king's bench and common pleas, may revise those of the common law courts of exchequer; and from all these, as also from the court of chancery, the equity side of the court of exchequer, and from the superior courts of Scotland and Ireland, actions may be carried, by writ of error or appeal, to the house of lords, the highest judicial tribunal in the kingdom.—The judges of each of the courts of king's bench, common pleas and exchequer are usually four; and this number is so well established by usage, that the expression the "twelve judges of England" is used to signify the court of exchequer chamber already mentioned, including all the judges of these courts. But the number of these judges has, as we learn from Mr. Wooddeson, sometimes been five, and again, at others, less than four, there having been but two in the beginning of Trinity term, 1655, in Cromwell's time, in the king's bench, then called the *upper bench*. The judges anciently held their office during the pleasure of the king; but now, by the statutes of 12 and 13 of William III, chap. 2, and 1 George III, chap. 23, during good behavior; and their commissions do not expire on the demise of the crown. When the judges of either of the courts are equally divided, a meeting of the twelve judges is held in the exchequer chamber, to consult on the matter.

The *house of lords*, in its character of a judicial court, is the highest tribunal in the kingdom, to which civil actions are carried, by writ of error, from the two courts of error already mentioned, as held in the exchequer chamber, and from the court consisting of the twelve judges; also from the king's bench, from which latter court some actions may be carried, as we have already seen, to the court of exchequer chamber; but the party aggrieved by the judgment of the king's bench has his election, in actions of that description, to go immediately to the house of lords, if he so chooses. So civil actions may be brought before this court by appeal from the chancery and the equity side of the exchequer, and by writ of error or by appeal from the highest courts of Scotland and Ireland. Actions were formerly brought, in the first instance, before the *aula regis*, to which, of all its surviving successors, the house of lords bears the greatest resemblance; and petitions continued to be presented to the house of lords, from the reign of Edward I to that of Henry VI, to take cognizance of suits in the first instance; but the lords uniformly referred the petitioners to the other courts; and they entertain no civil action except on appeal or writ of error. The practice of bringing cases, by writ of error, from the courts of common law, has prevailed ever since the establishment of those courts; but appeals from the court of chancery are of later date, having commenced in the latter part of the reign of Charles I, after the court of chancery had succeeded in establishing its present extensive jurisdiction against the opposition of the common law courts. The reason commonly given in favor of this right of appeal is, that it ought not to be left to the chancellor to bind the whole property of the kingdom, by his de-

crees, without any power of revision. The house of lords, also, exercises a very important original criminal jurisdiction, in respect to the person; for all peers, including all the Scotch nobility, whether of the 16 who are members of the house or not, and the queen, duchesses, countesses and baronesses, are exempt from a trial by jury, for treason or felony, being liable to be tried for those crimes only by the house of lords; and they are not only entitled to this mode of trial for these crimes, but are bound to it, and cannot waive it, and put themselves upon trial by jury. In case a peer marries a woman not of noble blood, she is to be tried only by the lords for the above offences; but if she afterwards lose her rank by marrying a commoner, she ceases to be entitled to this mode of trial. The question does not seem to be fully settled, whether bishops, who have a seat in the house of lords, must be tried by that body, or are subject to be tried for treason or felony by jury. It has always been customary, in all capital trials, in the house of lords, for the bishops to withdraw before the taking of the vote of guilty or not guilty; and it is made a question whether they have a right to vote upon that question; and Mr. Wooddeson seems to be of opinion that they have not this right. The reason for this distinction between them and the temporal peers is, that the character of their profession ought to exclude, as well as excuse, them from taking a part in the final decision of a question of life and death. The proceeding of which we have been speaking is by indictment before this tribunal as a court of judicature, during the session of parliament; and, during the recess of parliament, such trials take place before a court of peers, summoned by the lord high steward, consisting of not less than 35 peers, who formerly might be summoned at the discretion of that officer; but, to avoid the abuses to which such a power might be liable, the statute of 7 and 8 William III, chap. 3, provides that all the peers shall be summoned to attend. A majority of 12 is necessary in order to a conviction in this court. The last trial before this court, up to the present time (1830), was that of lord Delamere, in the reign of James II. There is still another form of proceeding before this tribunal, as a court of judicature, namely, that by impeachment by the house of commons, which suggested the trial before the senate of the U. States, on impeachment by the house of representatives, and similar trials by the senates in the separate states. Impeachments may be made, in Great Britain, against any person and for any misdemeanor, though it is a mode of accusation ordinarily adopted only against public officers in relation to some abuse of their trusts; as the trial of Warren Hastings, for alleged maladministration as governor of India, which lasted for seven years. As all these judicial proceedings, both civil and criminal, are analogous to those of other courts, they are not dissolved by the prorogation or dissolution of the parliament; and though, in the ordinary business of legislation, any peer may vote by proxy, he cannot so vote in his judicial capacity. At the first view, it would seem to admit of a question whether a body constituted like that of the house of lords would be the best calculated to act as the judicial tribunal of ultimate jurisdiction; but it is to be considered, that the chancellor, who is necessarily one of the ablest law officers of the kingdom, presides in all the civil trials, and in those and all other cases, the judges of the superior courts and the attorney-general are present, and their opinions are taken on all difficult questions. The court, therefore, combines the collected wisdom, talent, learning and dignity of the kingdom. Bills of attainder, and of pains and penalties, an anomalous kind of jurisdiction, is also exercised by parliament, as constituted for the ordinary purposes of legislation, consisting of the king, lords and commons, who, by their concurrent voices, have occasionally acted as judges, in particular cases, at the same time making the law, if they choose, and punishing the offence (already committed) for which the law is made. This is one kind of *ex post facto* law prohibited to congress by the constitution of the U. States; the abuses to which this power has been subject, having impressed upon the framers of that instrument the strong necessity of guarding against its exercise. When a bill of this description was introduced into the house of lords, in 1820, against the queen, Mr. Brougham commenced the defence by urging objections to this mode of proceeding in any case. Though such a bill is passed like any other in parliament, yet witnesses may be examined, and the party heard by counsel, as in any trial before a judicial tribunal.

Admiralty Courts. The *admiralty* court, in England, is coëval at least, perhaps anterior, to the others in its origin, as we meet with it in the most remote periods of the judicial history of the country. This court formerly maintained a long

and arduous, and, in some respects, an unsuccessful struggle for jurisdiction against the common law courts, in which strife it was encumbered with the disadvantage of being allied, in its forms of proceeding, to the ecclesiastical courts; since both these descriptions of judicial tribunals, as well as the chancery, borrow their forms of process from the civil law; and they, therefore, had formerly to encounter the prejudices of the nation, which set very strongly against the civil law, as associated with the papal usurpations. By a comparison with the French courts, we shall see how much the jurisdiction of the British admiralty has been curtailed. The French code assigns the jurisdiction of prize questions to a distinct court. The tribunals of commerce have jurisdiction of all disputes relative to engagements and transactions between merchants, traders and bankers, and all commercial contracts or affairs, viz., purchases of goods for the purpose of selling them, either in the same state or after labor done upon them, and agreements for hiring the use of chattels; all undertakings in manufactures for commissions, or for transportation by land or water; all agreements for supplying provisions, and for agencies; all those relating to sale by auction; all operations of banking, exchange and brokerage; all those of the public banking companies; all obligations between merchants, traders and bankers; all bills of exchange, or remittances of money between whatever persons; all agreements for the purchase, building, sale or resale of vessels, used either in foreign or domestic trade; all maritime undertakings; every purchase or sale of rigging, apparel or provisions for vessels; agreements for freight or charter-party; loans on bottomry, or *respondentia;* contracts of insurance, or other contracts respecting marine commerce; every contract with seamen in regard to their services on board of merchant vessels. The boundaries of the jurisdiction of the corresponding courts in England and the U. States are much narrower, and the reasons and principles on which its extent has been settled, are, as stated in the reports, involved in the greatest confusion, obscurity and contradiction, as is fully shown in the learned and profound investigation of the subject by judge Story, in the case of De Lovio against Boit, in the 1st volume of Gallison's Reports. The judge of the high court of admiralty in England holds his office by two commissions. (See the article *Admiralty Courts.*) It does not appear that the English admiralty ever had a jurisdiction commensurate with that of the present French tribunals of commerce; but it does appear that a part of that which it formerly enjoyed has been extorted from it by the common law courts. In a great part of what now remains to it, the common law courts have a concurrent jurisdiction. As a prize court, the admiralty has retained its jurisdiction unimpaired; and it is in the administration of this branch of the jurisdiction, for the most part, that sir William Scott (since lord Stowell), has shed so much splendor upon his court, and given so many profound and luminous expositions of the law of nations and of commerce. In regard to the other branches of its jurisdiction, all piracies, robberies and felonies committed on the high seas, are exclusively within its cognizance, and they are tried, not according to the forms of the civil law, but, by the statute of the 28th year of Henry VIII, in the same manner as similar offences committed on land are tried by the courts of common law. In respect to minor offences, it has a concurrent jurisdiction with the common law courts. In matters of commerce, these latter courts have, in the most important subjects, a jurisdiction exclusive of the admiralty; as, for example, over bills of exchange, promissory notes, charter-parties, bills of lading, and policies of insurance. In others, the jurisdiction is again concurrent, as in respect to victualling and repairing ships, mariners' wages, hypothecation of the ship or goods by instruments of bottomry, or *respondentia.* In matters of salvage, or the recovery, at sea, of lost goods, the jurisdiction is in the admiralty; and so are also questions of seamen's wages; and it is resorted to for the purpose of enforcing liens against the ship, as in bottomry or suits for mariners' wages. It has also jurisdiction of all stipulations made by the parties to a suit in reference to the subject of dispute in a case pending in the court; as, for example, where the goods, which are the subject of controversy, are delivered to one party on his agreement, in the nature of a recognizance, to answer for their value in case the opposite party prevails; in which case execution is forthwith issued on the stipulation. The admiralty jurisdiction of the courts of the U. States is adopted into the American from the English laws.

Court of Chancery. (See *Equity*).

Ecclesiastical Courts. There are still subsisting in England divers ecclesiastical courts, of which the most important jurisdiction remaining is that relating to the

goods of persons deceased, which belongs to the prerogative courts of the archbishops of Canterbury and York, if the deceased leaves goods to the amount of £5 (*bona notabilia*) in two different dioceses; otherwise it belongs to the court of the bishop of the diocese. But much of the business of administering upon and determining the distribution of the estates of persons deceased passes into the court of chancery, under its jurisdiction of trusts; a large amount of property in Great Britain being put in trust under grants and wills.

COURTS OF THE U. STATES. By the constitution of the U. States, which went into operation in the year 1789, a limited extent of judicial power was confided to the government of the union, the nature of which will be best explained by quoting the very words in which it is given. The third article of the constitution declares, 1. that "The judicial power of the U. States shall be vested in one supreme court, and in such inferior courts as the congress may, from time to time, ordain and establish. The judges, both of the supreme and inferior courts, shall hold their offices during good behavior, and shall, at stated times, receive for their services a compensation, which shall not be diminished during their continuance in office." 2. "The judicial power shall extend to all cases in law and equity arising under this constitution, the laws of the U. States, and treaties made, or which shall be made, under their authority;—to all cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction;—to controversies to which the U. States shall be a party;—to controversies between two or more states; between a state and citizens of another state; between citizens of different states; between citizens of the same state claiming lands under grants of different states; and between a state, or the citizens thereof, and foreign states, citizens or subjects." 3. "In all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls, and those in which a state shall be a party, the supreme court shall have original jurisdiction. In all the other cases before mentioned, the supreme court shall have appellate jurisdiction, both as to law and fact, with such exceptions, and under such regulations, as the congress shall make." It is observable, that this enumeration of the various classes of cases to which the judicial power may extend, does not make it imperative upon congress to vest the whole jurisdiction in courts created by the general government; but leaves much to the discretion of congress, as to the establishment of courts, and the jurisdiction with which they shall be clothed. In point of fact, congress has never legislated to the extent of the judicial power authorized by the constitution. Some branches of it remain undisposed of; and the courts of the several states are left to act upon them as matters not exclusively confided to the courts of the U. States. At the first session of congress, under the constitution, the organization of the judicial establishment was made, which has substantially remained in force ever since. By a statute passed Sept. 24, 1789, a supreme court was created, consisting of a chief justice and five associate justices, since increased to six; and two classes of inferior courts, viz., circuit courts and district courts, were also created. All the judges of the courts of the U. States are appointed by the president, by and with the consent of the senate of the U. States, and cannot otherwise be appointed.—We will now proceed to give a summary view of each of these courts, beginning with those which are the lowest in point of rank, and of the first instance.

1. *The District Courts.* Each state in the confederacy constitutes at least one judicial district, and the states of New York, Pennsylvania and Virginia are divided into two districts by certain local limits. In each district, a court is appointed to hold sessions, consisting of a single judge. The district courts possess criminal jurisdiction, exclusively of the state courts, of all crimes and offences against the U. States, where the punishment of whipping, not exceeding 30 stripes (which is now generally abolished), or a fine not exceeding $100, or a term of imprisonment not exceeding 6 months, is to be inflicted. It also possesses civil jurisdiction of all civil causes of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction; that is, of suits upon maritime contracts and maritime *torts*; of seizures *in rem*, and of suits *in personam* for penalties and forfeitures incurred under the laws of the U. States; of all causes where an alien sues for a tort only, in violation of the law of nations, or a treaty of the U. States; of all suits at common law, where the government of the U. States sue, or any officer thereof sues, under the authority of any act of congress, whatever may be the matter in dispute; and of all suits against consuls and vice-consuls. The district courts also possess the jurisdiction of circuit courts in those districts where no circuit courts are held, and also certain limited authorities under special laws.

2. *The Circuit Courts.* The U. States are now divided into seven circuits, in each of which a court is held, called a *circuit court.* It consists of two judges, one of whom is a justice of the supreme court of the U. States, and the other is the district judge of the particular district in which the court sits. The court may be held by either judge in the absence of the other; but the district judge cannot try causes brought by appeal from his own decisions. Each circuit consists of at least two states, and some of three states, and one of four states. There are six states in which no circuit court sits; and there the like duties are performed by the district judges. The circuit courts possess original jurisdiction in all civil suits at common law, or in equity, where the matter in dispute is of the sum or value of $500, or upwards, and the U. States are plaintiffs; or where an alien is a party; or where the suit is between a citizen of the state where the suit is brought, and a citizen of another state. They also possess jurisdiction in cases of patents for useful inventions, and of copyrights for books, &c. They have also exclusive jurisdiction of all crimes and offences against the U. States, not cognizable in the district courts; and concurrent jurisdiction with those courts of all crimes and offences cognizable therein. They have appellate jurisdiction of all final judgments and decrees of the district courts, in all cases where the matter in dispute exceeds $50. Civil suits can be brought in the circuit and district courts, by original process, against an inhabitant of the U. States, only in the district whereof he is an inhabitant, or in which, at the time of serving the process, he may be found; and, in cases of negotiable securities for money, except foreign bills, these courts cannot, by any transfer or assignment of such securities, maintain jurisdiction, unless their jurisdiction could have attached independent of such transfer or assignment. If a suit is commenced in a state court against an alien or citizen of another state, and the matter in dispute exceed $500, it may be removed into the circuit court, which sits in the same state, and tried there according to certain regulations prescribed by law; and a like removal may take place where, in a suit in the state court, the parties claim title to lands under a grant thereof from different states, that is, where one party claims title under the state in which the suit is brought, and the other under another state.

3. The *Supreme Court* consists of seven judges, as above stated. It sits annually at the seat of government, on the 2d Monday of January. It possesses exclusive original jurisdiction of all controversies of a civil nature, where a state is a party, except between a state and its citizens, and except, also, between a state and citizens of other states and aliens, in which latter case it has original but not exclusive jurisdiction. It possesses also, exclusively, all such jurisdiction of suits and proceedings against ambassadors, and other public ministers, or their domestics, or domestic servants, as a court of law can have or exercise consistently with the law of nations; and original, but not exclusive jurisdiction of all suits brought by ambassadors, or other public ministers, or in which a consul or vice-consul is a party. It possesses, also, appellate jurisdiction from the final judgments and decrees of the circuit courts, and of the district courts exercising circuit court powers, in all civil cases where the matter in dispute exceeds $2000 in value or amount, and the causes were originally brought in or removed into such circuit or district courts. It has also jurisdiction in cases brought by way of appeal into the circuit court from the district courts (which word *appeal* has here a technical and somewhat peculiar sense), but not in cases brought by writs of error from the district courts into the circuit courts. This difference is more accidental than intentional, and proceeds from the different modes of process by which suits are brought into the appellate courts according to the course of the common law. The terms of the statute conferring the jurisdiction are supposed to limit the appellate jurisdiction to cases which did not get into the circuit courts by the process of a writ of error, in its technical sense. It is difficult to make the distinction clear to lawyers bred in the civil law; it is obvious to those bred in the common law. The supreme court also possesses appellate jurisdiction from the final decisions of the state courts, in cases in which there is drawn in question the validity of a treaty or statute of, or an authority exercised under, the U. States, and the state court decides against its validity; or where is drawn in question the validity of a statute of, or an authority exercised under, any state, on the ground of its being repugnant to the constitution, treaties or laws of the U. States, and the decision is in favor of its validity; or where is drawn in question the construction of any clause of the constitution, or of a treaty or statute of, or commission

held under, the U. States, and the decision is against the title, right, privilege or exemption specially set up or claimed by either party, under such clause of the constitution, treaty, statute or commission. The appellate jurisdiction, however, so exercised in these cases, coming from the state courts, is confined to the points above-mentioned, and does not extend to the other merits of the case, not connected therewith, nor flowing therefrom. From this sketch, it will be perceived that the supreme court exercises, or may exercise, jurisdiction in the following classes of cases:—1. In cases where the construction of the constitution, treaties and statutes of the U. States is involved; 2. in cases where the state laws are supposed to be inconsistent with the constitution, treaties or laws of the U. States; 3. in cases of rights derived under the constitution, treaties or laws of the U. States; 4. in cases where a state is a party to the suit, or a foreign ambassador, or minister, or consul, or vice-consul; 5. in cases of controversies of a civil nature between aliens and citizens, or between citizens of one state and citizens of another state; 6. in cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction. As a general description, this is sufficiently precise for the common reader. The supreme court has authority, also, in various other modes, to exercise a supervision over the acts of inferior tribunals; as, by granting writs of *mandamus*, to direct them to do their duty in certain cases; by granting writs of *prohibition*, where they exceed their authority; by granting writs of *habeas corpus*, to relieve parties from unjust imprisonment, &c. &c. In cases also where no appeal lies to the supreme court, the judges of the circuit courts are allowed to obtain the opinion of the supreme court, by certifying cases to that court, in which they are divided in opinion. This course is often pursued in important and difficult questions, both of civil and criminal law, and in the latter especially, because, in criminal cases, the supreme court has no direct appellate jurisdiction. The general mass of business, which employs the supreme court, consists of private controversies respecting property, or personal rights and contracts. In times of war, it also exercises a final appellate jurisdiction in prize causes, and other causes in which belligerent and neutral rights and duties are involved. For the most part, questions of national and public law are there finally discussed and settled. Its most important function, however, in a practical view, is the decision of the great constitutional questions, which, from time to time, arise in the different parts of the Union. These questions are not brought forward, in a formal manner, by the government itself, to be adjudged upon a mere reference of them to the court. The court cannot take cognizance of them in such a shape, but only in a suit regularly brought before it, in which the point arises, and is essential to the rights of one of the parties. Hence it happens that a private person may litigate any question respecting the constitutionality of a law of the national or state government, whenever it is connected with his own rights, which are in controversy in a suit. Such a person may not only litigate the constitutionality of such laws, independently of the government, but even against the will of the government; and it not unfrequently happens that such questions are discussed and decided without the government having any opportunity of interposing itself in the discussion. The constitution is deemed the supreme law of the land, which rulers, and magistrates, and legislatures are bound to obey; and if, unintentionally or otherwise, they overleap the proper boundary, and the supreme court so decide, the act of the legislatures or rulers becomes a mere nullity, and receives no sanction or support whatsoever. It may naturally be supposed, that, in many instances, such questions must involve interests of a public nature to a vast extent, as well as contests respecting the just exercise of political power, and thus give rise to very heated discussions, and sometimes to violent political struggles, which might threaten the very existence of the national government. But hitherto, however warm have been the preliminary controversies, and however important the rights to state sovereignty or state pride, the decisions of the supreme court have been universally respected. Indeed, the people are so well satisfied, that the great security of their civil and political liberties essentially depends upon the independent exercise of this great function, and the supreme court is accustomed to expound its opinion with so much fulness and moderation, that no instance has occurred, in which a great majority of the nation has not hitherto rested satisfied with the decision. Such is the supremacy of law in the U. States. If it be asked, in what respects the supreme court of the U. States differs, in its functions and organization, from the highest courts of England, the following will be found the most important particulars:—

1. In England, the prize and admiralty jurisdiction, the equity jurisdiction, and the common law jurisdiction, are severally intrusted to distinct courts. The supreme court of the U. States exercises all these jurisdictions, as, indeed, do the circuit courts. 2. The highest courts in England have a general jurisdiction as to all persons and all suits. The supreme court of the U. States has a limited and restricted jurisdiction over particular persons only, and particular classes of suits. 3. The courts in England have no jurisdiction over constitutional questions: an act of parliament is an act of uncontrollable sovereignty, which all courts must obey and enforce. 4. The courts in England do not exercise jurisdiction in cases between state sovereignties; or, if they do, it is a very limited and incidental jurisdiction. In many particulars, the highest courts in England and the supreme court of the U. States exercise the same powers substantially in the same way. In the first place, the general system of jurisprudence to be administered by them is, in most respects, the same. The common law governs in England. It constitutes the general basis of the jurisprudence of all the states in the Union, with the exception of Louisiana, where the civil law prevails, as it did while that territory belonged to France and Spain. The common law is, indeed, modified by the legislation of the several states, according to their pleasure, as it is by the parliament in England; and, in some of the states, there are some customs and peculiarities which grew up in early times. But they are few, and, in a general sense, unimportant. The statutes passed by the states, and the judicial constructions or interpretations of them, constitute the principal peculiarities of what is denominated *local law*; and these are far more uniform than at first thought would be supposed. The original circumstances of the colonies were not, as to most political and municipal arrangements, materially different. Inheriting from England the common law, they generally adopted such amendments of it as were, from time to time, made in the mother country; and, in their colonial legislation, they borrowed from each other such portions of the statutes, which were enacted and in use, as were suited to their own wants. Hence, at an early day, in almost all the colonies, they enacted nearly uniform laws as to the making of wills, as to registering of conveyances of lands, as to the descent of estates among all the children, giving, in some cases, a double share to the eldest son, but excluding the English law of primogeniture. The system of land law, that is, the system adopted in relation to the sale and distribution of the public lands belonging to the states, constitutes, at this very time, a more important feature of difference in the legislation, and judicial interpretation of rights to landed property, than any other in the whole code of positive law. It may naturally be presumed, too, that, though the common law was the general basis of the jurisprudence of all the states, yet, in the course of time, the judicial interpretations thereof, especially when there were no printed reports, might essentially vary in the different states, in many cases; and that these diversities, as well from the different talents and acquirements of the judges, as from the uncertainty of many of the principles of decision, might create other heads of local law. It would surprise a foreigner, however, to learn how few, comparatively speaking, these now are. The regular publication of reports; the desire to give uniformity to the system; the influence of the decisions in the mother country and in the national courts, have a powerful operation upon the whole profession in this respect, and the more powerful and beneficial, because it is silent and insensible. In this way, it conduces to a general harmony and coincidence in the administration of the law, by the gentle means of juridical reasoning and argument. From this general prevalence of the common law, the decisions made from time to time in England are cited in the discussions in the American courts, not as absolute authorities, but as very able expositions of the law; and, on that account, they are generally adopted. In the next place, the modes of administering justice are the same in the courts of the U. States as they are in England in like cases. In the prize and admiralty proceedings, the principles and practice of the English courts of admiralty are adopted; in equity causes, the principles and practice of the court of chancery in England; in suits at common law, the principles and practice of the courts of *commendam* in England. There are no courts in America which possess a general jurisdiction in ecclesiastical affairs, like the ecclesiastical courts in England; for, in America, there is no church establishment. But the business of the probate of wills, and granting administration on the estate of deceased persons, and appointing guardians to minors and others, is generally confided to orphan courts, or probate courts, exercising a jurisdiction

over these subjects very similar to the summary jurisdiction exercised by the ecclesiastical courts in England over the same subjects. The jurisprudence in America, then, not being entirely homogeneous, the supreme court, in the exercise of its jurisdiction, has an invariable regard to the local law, where it applies, and, consequently, is called upon to administer justice in many cases of a conflict of laws. In this part of its functions, it acts upon the same general principles which regulate, or ought to regulate, the tribunals of other independent states. It acts upon the same principles which the English courts would act upon; but it is called more frequently to decide on such questions, and therefore it refers more, as guides in its decisions, to the civil law writers, who have discussed this complicated subject with ability and learning. Indeed, it may be stated as a general fact, that the American courts, in questions of public and commercial law, are in the habit of paying great attention to the works of the continental jurists. The supreme court of the U. States exercises no political functions whatsoever, except the administration of public and prize law, and the decision of constitutional questions, may be so considered. It is wholly independent of the executive government, the judges holding their offices during good behavior, and receiving a salary which cannot be diminished during their continuance in office. The present salary of the chief justice is $5000, and that of each of the other judges, $4500. They are liable to impeachment for high crimes and misdemeanors before the senate of the U. States, and, upon conviction by two thirds of the members present, are liable to be removed from office. Cases of impeachment of public officers are exclusively triable before the senate; and, when the president of the U. States is on trial, the chief justice of the U. States is required by the constitution to preside. As to the modes of trial: In cases of impeachment, as has been already stated, the trial is before the senate, without any jury. The trial of all crimes, in other cases, is required by the constitution to be by jury. So is the trial of all civil suits at common law, where the value in controversy exceeds $20. And, in all cases where the facts are tried by a jury, their verdict, as to the facts, has the conclusiveness given it by the common law of England. In admiralty and prize causes, and in equity causes, the questions of fact, as well as of law, are decided by the court, as they are decided in the English courts. The general practice, in the trials by jury, is the same as in England. The mode of appointing and selecting the jurors is not uniform. In some of the states, the marshal or sheriff selects them; in others, they are drawn out of ballot boxes, which contain the names of all the persons whom the municipal authorities deem qualified to sit as jurors. The selections thus made usually embrace a very large proportion of the voters; and as many are selected and returned for a particular session of the court as the court deems the occasion to require. In some states, the same jurors sit in all causes tried at the same term; in others, a distinct jury is, or may be, returned for each cause. The courts of the U. States, sitting in any particular district, follow the local practice as to the selection of juries. In all criminal trials, the constitution guaranties to the party accused a public trial, upon a written indictment or accusation, a right to be confronted with the witnesses brought against him, and to have compulsive process for the attendance of his own witnesses, and a right to have the assistance of counsel or lawyers in his defence. The statutes of the U. States generally secure to him, in civil cases, the same privileges, except that depositions of witnesses may be used therein, in certain cases, where the witnesses cannot attend by reason of infirmity, or distance of place, &c. The power of pardon is exclusively confided to the president of the U. States. The judges have no express authority to recommend any person, after conviction, for a pardon; but, where the case requires it, it is not unfrequently done by them, as private persons, upon their own responsibility and sense of justice. It may be asked, Who determine finally what causes do or do not belong to the jurisdiction of the courts of the U. States? The general answer should be, that the court, before which the suit is brought, must, in the first instance, decide that question for itself; and it is finally to be decided by the highest court to which an appeal lies from that court. If it depend on matter of fact, the fact is ascertained in the usual way in which other facts are ascertained in cases of a like nature; if it depend on matter of law, then the court primarily decides on its own view of the law. In general, the judgments and decrees of courts of competent jurisdiction are held conclusive in the U. States, as they are in England. Few conflicts, as to jurisdiction, arise in the American courts, as, for the most part,

the jurisdiction of the state courts is concurrent with that of the U. States courts in civil cases; and where it is not, the line of exclusive jurisdiction is broadly marked out. For instance, the admiralty and prize jurisdiction is exclusive in the courts of the U. States; but in controversies between citizens of different states, the jurisdiction is concurrent. One state cannot sue another in its own courts. The suit must be in the supreme court of the U. States. The courts of the U. States, like the courts in England, have general authority to make rules for the orderly course of their business, to issue writs and executions, to take bail, to grant injunctions, to permit amendments, to punish for contempts, &c., in the same way as the courts in England. Writs and executions do not run, that is to say, cannot be executed, beyond the limits of the particular district in which the court sits, with a few exceptions, among which are *subpœnas* for witnesses and executions on judgments in suits in favor of the U. States. There are various sorts of process to compel the performance of judgments, as in England. Such are writs of *fieri facias*, on which the goods and chattels of the debtor or defendant may be taken or sold; writs of *levari facias*, on which his lands may be taken for a term; writs of *capias*, on which his person may be arrested and imprisoned; and other writs, on which his lands may be taken and set off to the creditor, at an appraised value, or sold at public auction. In criminal cases, the courts of the U. States direct the punishment against the party according to the rules prescribed by the law. If the punishment is death, the court, before which the trial is had, declares the time and place when and where the execution of it shall take place. If the punishment is discretionary, as by fine, or by imprisonment, or by fine not exceeding a certain sum, or by imprisonment not exceeding a certain period of time, the court fixes the fine, or imprisonment, or both, in its sentence, according to the circumstances of each particular case. As all trials, both civil and criminal, are public, and reports are printed, from time to time, of those which are most interesting either as to law or facts; as the opinion of the court is always publicly given, and, generally, the reasons of that opinion, it is not easy for any court to trespass upon the known principles of law or the rights of the parties. In the U. States, as in England, the citizens at large watch with jealousy the proceedings of courts of justice. The very great number of lawyers engaged in the profession also furnishes an additional security. The rules of admission to the bar are not very strict; and usually, after three years' preparatory study, any citizen of good education and character is admissible to the inferior courts, and, after two or three years' practice there, is admissible to the highest courts. Generally speaking, lawyers are entitled to the same privileges, upon the same terms, in the U. States courts, as in the state courts. Few but eminent lawyers, in fact, practise in the supreme court of the U. States, although the admission to it is quite easy. Throughout the U. States, the bar of the highest courts is characterized by learning and talent, a spirit of independence and integrity, and a manliness of conduct, which give it great weight and popularity. Lawyers, more than any other class, are the favorite candidates for seats in the legislative and executive departments of the government.—The foregoing sketch is necessarily imperfect; but it may give the common reader a general outline of the jurisprudence and organization of the national courts, as contradistinguished from the state courts. To treat the subject with the fulness which belongs to it, would require a volume.

COURTS OF THE SEVERAL STATES IN THE UNITED STATES. The limits of this work will not permit a particular account of all the courts of the several states in the Union. In some respects, their judicial systems correspond with each other. The office of justice of the peace is very similar in all, the general police of the counties being confided mostly to these magistrates. They generally have authority to cause offenders and criminals, and all disturbers of the peace, to be arrested, and, if the offence is small, to fix its punishment; if it falls without their jurisdiction, they commit the offenders to prison, to be detained for trial before the proper tribunals. But for all considerable offences, the parties are liable to be put upon trial only on a bill being found against them by a grand jury. In the county courts of sessions, the assembled justices, or a select number of them, in many of the states, have a pretty extensive jurisdiction in matters of police, in the regulation of the affairs of the county, such as building court-houses, assessing county taxes, laying out roads, licensing taverns and victualling houses, and, in some states, granting the right to erect mills, and settling the questions of damages thereby occasioned. In Virginia, the county sessions have a still more ex-

tensive jurisdiction, both civil and criminal, the civil jurisdiction extending to suits in which an amount not exceeding $300 is in dispute; and, though a vast amount of the business of both descriptions comes into these courts, the justices discharge all their duties without fees, and this paternal, friendly superintendence of the general interests of the county is supposed to have a very salutary influence upon the community. Besides this general superintendence of the police, and maintenance of the peace and good order of the community, exercised by the justices individually or collectively, they have, in most of the states, a jurisdiction of civil actions to amounts varying from $13 to $100, reserving to the parties a right to appeal, and have a new trial before the county sessions or county courts of common pleas, or some other superior tribunals, in cases where the sum in dispute exceeds a certain amount. In some states, there is a right of appeal in case the amount of $4 or more is in dispute: in others, the final jurisdiction of the justices extends to a greater sum; in Massachusetts, to $20; and there is a distinction, in some states, in the local extent of the civil and criminal jurisdiction of justices, the former extending only to the town in which the magistrate resides, the latter to the whole county. In some of the capitals and more considerable towns, special courts are established, to which is assigned the jurisdiction of many of the offences and suits, which, in the counties, generally come under the cognizance of the justices, individually or collectively. In all the states, another class of county courts is established, variously denominated,—courts of common pleas, county, district or circuit courts,—which have original jurisdiction of the great mass of civil actions at law, or indictments for crimes not capital; and over these are established the superior or supreme courts, or courts of errors or appeals. In some states, the county courts for trials by jury are held by one of the judges of the supreme court, and all questions of law are reserved for the determination of all the judges. In others, the judge of the supreme court, who presides in trials by jury, in the counties, is assisted by associate justices: this is the case in Maryland. In other states, trials by jury are held in the counties by a court of which the jurisdiction is limited to the county; and, in case of the amount in dispute exceeding a certain sum, varying, in the different states, from $100 to $300, or in cases involving land titles, and some others, either party may appeal, and have another trial of the same facts, by jury, before a judge of the superior court. This trial of the same facts a second time, by jury, without the allegation of any error or misdirection on the first trial, or any surprise on the part of either of the litigants, or any discovery of new evidence, or, indeed, any other reason than to give the parties opportunity for another contest, upon precisely the same footing as the first, is an anomaly. It is, in effect, an appeal from one jury to another, for which there might be more reason if juries were, like courts, differently constituted, so that one should be considered superior to the other; but this is not the case, the juries in both courts being selected upon the same principles. This is a feature of some of the state courts, by which they are distinguished from the English courts, and also from those of the U. States. A similar practice prevails, in some of the states, in criminal trials, except for felonies or the more heinous offences, of which the superior court has original and exclusive cognizance. This right to two trials of the same case, in the same state of it, though theoretically an irregularity not easily reconciled to any principle, is yet not the cause of any very serious inconvenience in practice, for very few of those actions in which the parties have a right to two trials are, in fact, tried more than once. The equity jurisdiction is in a distinct court in some of the states, as New York, Maryland, Virginia; in others, the same courts act as courts of law and equity, as in Massachusetts, Ohio, North Carolina; and there is a great diversity in the extent of equity jurisdiction possessed by the courts, those of Pennsylvania, for instance, having very circumscribed powers; and in the New England states, excepting Connecticut, the prejudices against equity courts and proceedings derived from some of the old common law writers, particularly lord Coke, have taken deep root, and are the more difficult to eradicate, as they have no definite foundation, but rest upon a vague notion of the delays supposed to be necessarily attendant upon chancery proceedings, and the still more groundless notion that a court of chancery proceeds, without any regard to the law or to principles, upon the mere arbitrary discretion of the judge. These prejudices are, however, gradually wearing away, and the remedies, which can only be obtained by proceedings in equity, are from time to time introduced by successive legislative acts.

In all the states in which the two species of courts are distinguished, the tribunal of final resort, as in England, is the same in appeals from courts, both of law and equity. There is established, in the city of New York, a tribunal called the *marine court*, having jurisdiction of marine torts and questions between masters of vessels and their crews; but, in general, all subjects of commercial and maritime jurisdiction, not belonging exclusively to the courts of the U. States, but remaining in the state tribunals, either exclusively or concurrently with the courts of the U. States—such as bills of exchange, bills of lading, charter-parties, policies of insurance, claims for seamen's wages, claims for contributions in general average, and maritime torts—are within the jurisdiction of the same courts which have cognizance of other contracts, and torts of similar amounts. In most of the states, the jurisdiction of the subject of wills, and granting administration on the estates of persons deceased intestate, and the appointing of guardians to minors, is assigned to certain tribunals, denominated courts of *probate*, *orphans'* courts, sometimes the *register's* court; and, in one state, a part of this jurisdiction is vested in the court of the *ordinary*. These courts are held in the several counties. An appeal lies from them, generally, to the higher tribunals. In some states, the sessions of the tribunal of final resort are held only at the capital; in others, again, the sessions are held in the several counties, one session or more in the year being devoted, in each county, to the determination of questions of law, for which purpose all the judges make a circuit of the state in a body.

Court-Martial. (See *Martial Law.*)

Courts of Love (*cours d'amour, corti d'amore*). In the chivalric period of the middle ages, when love was not satisfied with remaining a cherished secret of the heart, but stood forth to public view; when enamored knights were ambitious to draw the attention of the world, and prove the ardor of their passion, by deeds of daring; when ladies were the soul and ornament of the tourney; and love, in short, was the serious business of life among the higher classes of society,—subtle questions on topics of gallantry were discussed in mixed companies, and often made subjects of poetical competition by the Troubadours or poets in their *tensons*; such, for example, as the following: "Which is most easy to be endured, the death or inconstancy of a mistress?" "Should you rather see me leave your mistress as you approach, or approach as you retire?" "Who suffers most, a husband whose wife, or a lover whose mistress, is unfaithful?" At this period, when love was regarded as the source of nobleness of character; when even bishops sung its praises, and the uncultivated and unoccupied minds of a feudal nobility were at a loss for intellectual entertainment, the doubts and difficulties which grew out of the *belle passion* led to the institution of courts of love. The first was probably established in Provence, about the 12th century. These courts were composed of knights, poets and ladies, who gave their decisions as *arrêts d'amour*, after the manner of the parliaments. In 1803, Christopher von Aretin published a collection of these decisions from ancient manuscripts. There is likewise an older collection of them, by Martial d'Auvergne. This species of amusement was so popular, that hardly any court festival took place without a contest in a *cour d'amour*. These courts reached their highest splendor, in France, under Charles VI, through the influence of his consort, Isabella of Bavaria, whose court was established in 1380. (See *Die Minnehöfe des Mittelalters und ihre Entscheidungen oder Aussprüche*, &c., Leipsic, 1821.) Under Louis XIV, an academy of love was instituted by cardinal Richelieu (*assemblée galante*) at Ruel. It was an imitation of the courts of love. The princess Maria of Gonzaga presided, and mademoiselle Scudery was attorney-general. We conclude with the interesting decision, somewhat at variance with the notions of our times, given by the countess of Champagne on the question, "Can true love exist between husband and wife?" The "opinion" was: *Nous disons et assurons, par la teneur des présentes, que l'amour ne peut étendre ses droits sur deux personnes mariées. En effet, les amants s'accordent tout mutuellement et gratuitement, sans être contraints par aucune nécessité, tandis que les époux sont tenus par devoir de subir réciproquement leurs volontés, et de ne se refuser rien les uns aux autres. Que ce jugement, que nous avons rendu avec une extrême prudence, et d'après l'avis d'un grand nombre d'autres dames, soit pour vous d'une autorité constante et irréfragable. Ainsi jugé, l'an* 1174, *le troisième jour des calendes de Mai, indiction septième.*

Court de Gébelin, Antoine; born at Nismes in 1724; died at Paris in 1784. His father, a Protestant, left France on the revocation of the edict of Nantes, and repaired to Switzerland. The young Gébelin studied with eagerness the writ-

ings of the ancients. In his 12th year, he gained the admiration of all by the extent of his knowledge. His studies embraced natural history, mathematics, the dead and living languages, mythology, antiquities and archæology. After his father's death, he made a journey to Languedoc, where he resigned to his sister his small patrimony, and went himself to Paris. Here he soon became connected with the most distinguished men. After 10 years, he published, from 1773 to 1784, *Le Monde Primitif.* The learning displayed in this work excited universal admiration. It proves the existence of an original language, and explains the absurdities of mythology. It describes the formation of the first human societies, their laws and customs, and general character. The French academy, to assist him in his useful and expensive undertaking, granted him, twice in succession, the prize belonging to the writer who, in the course of the year, had published the most valuable work. Another production of his is the *Muséum.* Court de Gébelin was remarkable for his amiable and simple manners. He looked with aversion on the quarrels of writers. Towards the end of his life, he became a believer in animal magnetism, which was at that time much in vogue. He defended Mesmer, the author of the theory, in his *Lettre sur le Magnétisme Animal* (Paris, 1784, 4to.), shortly after which he died.

Courtesy, or Curtesy, tenure by, is where a man marries a woman seized of an estate of inheritance, and has by her issue born alive, which was capable of inheriting her estate. In this case, on the death of his wife, he holds the lands for his life, as tenant by courtesy.

Courtray, or Cortrijk (anciently *Cortoriacum*); a fortified town in the Netherlands, in West Flanders; 22 miles S. W. Ghent, 24 S. Bruges; lon. 3° 16′ E.; lat. 50° 49′ N.; population, 15,800. It is situated on the river Lys, and celebrated for its manufacture of table linen and lace. Near Courtray, in 1302, the Flemings, under the command of the count of Namur and William of Juliers, defeated the French, who suffered so severely, that, after the battle, 4000 gilt spurs were found on the field of battle, whence the engagement was called *la bataille des éperons.* In 1793, the French gained a victory over the English at this place.

Cousin, Victor; born in 1791; one of the most learned and popular teachers of philosophy in France, who seems to combine the French tact and taste with German erudition and zeal. He appears to have received his first instruction in philosophy under the distinguished M. Royer-Collard, who resided at Paris during the reign of Napoleon, ostensibly as a private man, though, in fact, as is now generally understood, a secret agent of the Bourbons. Royer-Collard gave lectures on intellectual and moral philosophy, and first brought into notice, in France, the writers of the modern Scotch school of metaphysics, particularly Reid. Cousin seems not to have been long satisfied with the Edinburgh metaphysicians, and soon devoted himself to the writings of the two nations who have most multifariously investigated intellectual philosophy—the ancient Greeks and modern Germans. He published, for the first time, some works of Proclus, consisting of commentaries on Plato, which were preserved, in manuscript, in the royal library at Paris. After the return of the Bourbons, Royer-Collard was appointed professor of moral philosophy in the university of France, and Cousin was made adjunct professor in the same branch. At a later period, he succeeded his teacher in this chair. But both these gentlemen soon became obnoxious to the royalist party, and were prohibited from lecturing under the administration of Villèle. Cousin published the first volume of his Philosophical Fragments at Paris in 1826, and travelled to Germany in company with the young duke of Montebello, the son of marshal Lannes. Here the different governments were busily engaged in persecuting the liberals, and the Prussian government took the liberty to send police officers into Saxony, to arrest Cousin in Dresden. A large volume was afterwards published by the Prussian government to prove the right which they had to commit this act, which most people would call a breach of the law of nations. The philosopher was detained for some time in Berlin, was at last set free, and returned to Paris, where he was replaced in his chair, after the overthrow of Villèle's administration, at the time when Royer-Collard was chosen president of the chamber of deputies; but, on the overthrow of the liberal ministry, and the accession of the ultra royalists under prince Polignac, a committee was appointed to inquire into the tendency of M. Cousin's lectures. The result of this inquiry has not as yet reached us. Cousin combines with his learning great skill in teaching, of which he is fond, and brilliant eloquence. His opinions are likely to have much influence on the phi-

losophy of France, as they rest on different principles from the sensual system which his countrymen had derived from Locke and Condillac. His system, of which an outline may be found in the beginning of his *Fragmens*, coincides, in some respects, with the German metaphysics. He does not go, however, to the length of Fichte's idealism, which, indeed, is admitted, in its full extent, by few among his own countrymen, Schelling, Hegel, Fries, Jacobi, &c., having succeeded him, and introduced other views. We are unable to give, in this place, an *exposé* of Cousin's system and labors, for which we refer our readers to the *Essai sur l'Histoire de la Philosophie en France, au dix neuvième Siècle, par Ph. Damiron* (Paris and Leipsic, 1828). Like the Germans, he supports the theory of innate ideas. Among the works of this philosopher are, *Œuvres de Platon, traduites par Cousin* (vols. 1—5, 8vo., Paris, 1822—8); *Fragmens Philosophiques* (8vo., 1826); *Cours de Philosophie* (8vo., Paris, 1828); *Nouveaux Fragmens Philosophiques* (8vo., Paris, 1828); *Cours de Phil.* (1829).

Couston, Nicholas, born at Lyons, Jan. 9, 1658, died at Paris, in 1733; and Guillaume Couston, born in 1678, died at Paris, in 1746; two brothers, famous as sculptors, from whose labors in France, during the reign of Louis XV, statuary received a noble impulse. The elder was admired for grandeur of ideas and fine taste. He drew correctly, gave to his figures noble attitudes, and splendid and pleasing draperies. His Descent from the Cross, in the cathedral in Paris, is particularly valued. The younger brother was a worthy disciple of the elder, whom he succeeded as director of the academy of fine arts. Among his works, the monument of the cardinal Dubois, in the church St. Honoré, is much esteemed. But he was surpassed by his eldest son, also named Guillaume (born at Paris, in 1716, where he died in 1777), on whom Joseph II, during his stay in Paris, conferred, with his own hands, the order of St. Michael. The statues of Venus and Mars, which he made in 1769, for the king of Prussia, larger than life, gained universal admiration. His monument of the dauphin and dauphiness, parents of Louis XVI, in the cathedral of Sens, bears the character of majestic simplicity.

Coutts, Thomas; a London banker, eminent for his wealth and his connexions. He was twice married; first to Susan Starkie, a female servant of his brother James, by whom he had three daughters—Susan, married, in 1796, to George Augustus, third earl of Guilford; Frances, married, in 1800, to John, first marquis of Bute; and Sophia, married, in 1793, to sir Francis Burdett, bart. In 1815, his first wife died; and, three months afterwards, he married Harriet Mellon, an actress at the head of the second class of actresses at Drury lane. Mr. Coutts at his death left her all his property, having before given portions to his daughters. Mrs. Coutts subsequently married the duke of St. Alban's, a young man, of an income rather limited for his rank, and less, it is said, than that of any other English duke. So unequal a marriage afforded matter of diversion, for a long time, to the English journals. The duchess is said to be a lady of great benevolence.

Covenant. (See *Bond* and *Contract.*)

Covenant. Soon after the reformation was introduced into Scotland, the Scotch Protestants, being alarmed at the expectation of an invasion from Spain, where the "invincible armada" was preparing, entered into an association (1588) for the defence of their new doctrine, which they called the *covenant.* After the union of the crowns of Scotland and England (1603), as the Stuarts favored the episcopal churches, whose hierarchical form seemed fitted to promote their despotic views, the dangers which threatened Presbyterianism brought the followers of Calvin, in Scotland, to a closer union; and when, in 1637, the new liturgy, modelled after the English, was ordered to be introduced into their churches, disturbances arose, which ended in the forming of a new covenant the following year. During the contentions between Charles I and the parliament, the Protestants in Scotland entered into a "solemn league and covenant" with the English parliament, by which the independence of the Presbyterian churches was confirmed. But, on the restoration of the Stuarts, the covenant was formally abolished (1661). This, however, only served to confirm the strict Presbyterians in their principles, so that rebellions were frequent among them, till the establishment of perfect freedom of conscience, in 1689.

Coventry; a city in England, of great antiquity, the final syllable being evidently the British *tre*, signifying *town.* Parliaments were convened here by the ancient monarchs of England, several of whom occasionally résided in the place. In the civil war of the 17th century, Coventry was conspicuous for its activity in the parliamentary interest. Many of its edifices

are highly worthy of attention. St. Michael's church is a beautiful specimen of the pointed style of architecture. There are places of worship for Roman Catholics, Independents, Dissenters, Methodists, Presbyterians, Baptists and Quakers; also various charitable institutions, 2 hospitals, alms-houses and charity schools. The principal manufactures are those of ribbons and watches. Two representatives to parliament are now elected by the freemen, amounting to nearly 4000. A weekly market is held here on Friday; and there are several fairs, one of which is called the *great* or *show fair*, and continues 8 days; on the first day of which is celebrated the grand procession of lady Godiva and her followers. This celebration is founded on the following story:—It is said that Leofric, earl of Mercia, who possessed the property of the tolls and services of Coventry, exacted his dues so rigidly, that the inhabitants were greatly aggrieved, and at length Godiva, his pious wife, became their advocate. The earl, wearied by her solicitations, promised to grant her request, if she would ride naked through the town at mid-day. His terms, according to the legend, were accepted, and the countess rode through the town with no covering but her flowing tresses. It is added that she had modestly commanded every person to keep within doors and away from the windows, on pain of death, but that one person could not forbear taking a glance, and lost his life for his curiosity. In commemoration of this occurrence, a procession occasionally takes place at the *show fair*, in which a female of easy purchase rides in a dress of linen closely fitted to her limbs and colored like them. The curious person who stole the glance is called *Peeping Tom*, and a wooden image of him is to be seen on a house in the city. The story has little foundation. It is first mentioned by Matthew of Westminster, in 1307, that is, 250 years after the time of Leofric and Godiva. Population, 24,242; 49 miles N. W. Oxford.

Covered Way (*chemin couvert*); a space of ground on the edge of the ditch, ranging round the works of a fortification. Its glacis descends, by an easy slope, towards the field. It affords a safe communication round all the works, facilitates sallies and retreats, and the reception of auxiliaries, compels the enemy to begin his operations at a distance, checks his approach and the erection of breach batteries, and its parapet protects the fortifications in its rear.

Coverture. (See *Husband and Wife*.)

Cowes; a seaport on the north coast of the Isle of Wight, situated on the river Meden, which divides it into East and West Cowes; 12 miles W. S. W. Portsmouth. West Cowes fort is situated in lon. 1° 19′ W., lat. 50° 46′ N. The harbor is as safe as any in the British channel, and by far the most convenient for vessels bound to Holland and the east countries, and is much frequented by ships to repair damages sustained at sea, and to water, until the weather permits them to proceed on their respective voyages. This place is much resorted to in summer, as a bathing place. East Cowes is a hamlet opposite to West Cowes.

Cowley, Abraham, a distinguished English poet, was born at London in 1618. His father, a grocer, died before his birth, but his mother obtained him admission into Westminster school, as king's scholar. He complained of his own defective memory, in the acquirement of the rules of grammar, but nevertheless became a correct classical scholar, and so early imbibed a taste for poetry, that, in his 16th or 17th year, while yet at school, he published a collection of verses, which he entitled Poetical Blossoms. These juvenile productions, which are more moral and sententious than imaginative, attracted considerable attention towards the author, who, in 1636, was elected a scholar of Trinity college, Cambridge, where he soon obtained great literary distinction, and published a pastoral comedy, entitled Love's Riddle, and another in Latin, called *Naufragium Joculare*, which was acted before the university by the members of Trinity college. He continued to reside at Cambridge until 1643, when he was ejected by the puritanical visitors; on which he removed to St. John's college, Oxford, where he published a satirical poem, entitled the Puritan and the Papist. He engaged actively in the royal cause, and was honored with the friendship of lord Falkland. When the queen was obliged to quit England, Cowley accompanied her. He was absent from his native country nearly 10 years, during which time he undertook various journeys for the royal family; and it was principally through him that the correspondence was maintained between the king and queen. In 1647 appeared his collection of amatory poems, entitled the Mistress. This was followed, in 1650, by a comedy, called the Guardian, afterwards altered into the Cutter of Coleman Street. In 1656, being no longer employed abroad, he returned to England, where, it is presumed, he still

remained a medium of confidential communication between the king and the royal party. Soon after his arrival, he published an edition of his poems, containing most of the works which appear in the final collection. He was, about this time, committed to custody by the ruling powers, but was released on the celebrated doctor Scarborough becoming bail for him to the amount of £1000. For the purpose, probably, of appearing in an ostensible character, he assumed the profession of physic, and had sufficient interest to procure a *mandamus* from Oxford, in 1657. He again visited France, and resumed his functions of agent in the royal cause on the death of Cromwell. On the restoration, he returned with the other royalists. By the interest of the duke of Buckingham and the earl of St. Alban's, he obtained the lease of a farm at Chertsey, held under the queen, by which his income was rendered about £300 per annum. It however appears, that neither the mind nor body of Cowley was fitted for his new mode of life. A severe cold and fever, caught from wandering among the damp fields, terminated his life July, 1667, in the 49th year of his age. The private character of Cowley entitled him to general respect; and Charles II (no very conclusive testimony, certainly) observed, that he had not left a "better man behind him in England." It appears, on higher authority, however, that the loyalty of Cowley was free from the servility and gross adulation of the courtiers of the day, and that he possessed a free, independent spirit; was modest, sober and sincere; of gentle affections and moderate wishes. As a poet, he probably stands at the head of the metaphysical class, so ably discussed in doctor Johnson's life of him. He is, by turns, easy, gay, splendid, witty, and never trite and vulgar, although often fantastic, strained, and extravagant. The chief merit of Cowley consists in a kind of sport of the imagination in pursuit of a thought through all its variations and obliquities, and in searching throughout the material world for objects of similitude with intellectual ideas, connected by the most fanciful relations. The Anacreontics of Cowley are among his most agreeable pieces, and few have paraphrased the Teian bard more felicitously. His own original ballad, the List of Mistresses, is deemed still more sprightly and pleasant. His love verses, entitled the Mistress, abound with wit, but are utterly destitute of feeling, being at once ingenious and frigid. His Pindaric Odes exhibit a most unbridled license of thought, metre and expression, but contain many very striking combinations and images. His Davideis, which is incomplete, although conveying no strong proof of epic talent, contains some pleasing passages. Of his occasional pieces, his Hymn to Light is decidedly the most elevated and poetical. As an essayist in prose, Cowley is natural, easy and equable, abounding with thought, but without any of the affectation or straining which disfigures his poetry. Nor is his comedy, the Cutter of Coleman Street, without humor, although of a temporary nature. As a writer of Latin verse, he is highly commended by doctor Johnson. His principal performance in that language, consists of six books on plants, which show remarkable facility in the accommodation of verse to an untoward subject. His imitations of the satires and moral epistles of Horace are also much admired by Warton. Whatever place Cowley may retain in general estimation as a poet, he must always stand high as a wit: few authors afford so many new thoughts, and those so entirely his own.

Cowper, William, a distinguished modern English poet, was born at Berkhamstead, Herts, Nov. 26, 1731. His father, the rector of the parish, was the reverend John Cowper, D. D., son of Spencer Cowper, one of the justices of the common pleas, a younger brother of the lord chancellor Cowper. He received his early education at a school in his native county, whence he was removed to that of Westminster. Here he acquired a competent portion of classical knowledge; but, from the delicacy of his temperament, and the timid shyness of his disposition, he seems to have endured a species of martyrdom from the rudeness and tyranny of his more robust companions, and to have received, indelibly, the impressions that subsequently produced his Tirocinium, in which poem his dislike to the system of public education in England is very strongly stated. On leaving Westminster, he was articled, for three years, to an eminent attorney, during which time he appears to have paid very little attention to his profession; nor did he alter on this point after his entry at the Temple, in order to qualify himself for the honorable and lucrative place of clerk to the house of lords, which post his family interest had secured for him. While he resided in the Temple, he appears to have been rather gay and social in his intercourse, numbering among his companions Lloyd, Churchill, Thorn-

ton and Colman, all of whom had been his companions at Westminster school, and the two latter of whom he assisted with some papers in the Connoisseur. His natural disposition, however, remained timid and diffident, and his spirits so constitutionally infirm, that, when the time arrived for his assuming the post to which he had been destined, he was thrown into such unaccountable terror at the idea of making his appearance before the assembled peerage, that he was not only obliged to resign the appointment, but was precipitated, by his agitation of spirits, into a state of great mental disorder. At this period, he was led into a deep consideration of his religious state; and, having imbibed the doctrine of election and reprobation in its most appalling rigor, he was led to a very dismal state of apprehension. We are told, "that the terror of eternal judgment overpowered and actually disordered his faculties; and he remained seven months in a continual expectation of being instantly plunged into eternal misery." In this shocking condition, confinement became necessary, and he was placed in a receptacle for lunatics, kept by the amiable and well-known doctor Cotton of St. Alban's. At length, his mind recovered a degree of serenity, and he retired to Huntingdon, where he formed an acquaintance with the family of the reverend Mr. Unwin, which ripened into the strictest intimacy. In 1773, he was again assailed by religious despondency, and endured a partial alienation of mind for some years, during which affliction he was highly indebted to the affectionate care of Mrs. Unwin. In 1778, he again recovered; in 1780, he was persuaded to translate some of the spiritual songs of the celebrated madame Guion. In the same and the following year, he was also induced to prepare a volume of poems for the press, which was printed in 1782. This volume did not attract any great degree of public attention. The principal topics are, Error, Truth, Expostulation, Hope, Charity, Retirement and Conversation; all of which are treated with originality, but, at the same time, with a portion of religious austerity, which, without some very striking recommendation, was not, at that time, of a nature to acquire popularity. They are in rhymed heroics; the style being rather strong than poetical, although never flat or insipid. A short time before the publication of this volume, Mr. Cowper became acquainted with lady Austen, widow of sir Robert Austen, who subsequently resided, for some time, at the parsonage-house at Olney. To the influence of this lady, the world is indebted for the exquisitely humorous ballad of John Gilpin, and the author's master-piece, the Task. The latter admirable poem chiefly occupied his 2d volume, which was published in 1785, and rapidly secured universal admiration. The Task unites minute accuracy with great elegance and picturesque beauty; and, after Thomson, Cowper is probably the poet who has added most to the stock of natural imagery. The moral reflections in this poem are also exceedingly impressive, and its delineation of character abounds in genuine nature. His religious system too, although discoverable, is less gloomily exhibited in this than in his other productions. This volume also contained his Tirocinium—a piece strongly written, and abounding with striking observations, whatever may be thought of its decision against public education. About the year 1784, he began his version of Homer, which, after many impediments, appeared in July, 1791. This work possesses much exactness, as to sense, and is certainly a more accurate representation of Homer than the version of Pope; but English blank verse cannot sufficiently sustain the less poetical parts of Homer, and the general effect is bald and prosaic. Disappointed at the reception of this laborious work, he meditated a revision of it, as also the superintendence of an edition of Milton, and a new didactic poem, to be entitled the Four Ages; but, although he occasionally wrote a few verses, and revised his Odyssey, amidst his glimmerings of reason, those and all other undertakings finally gave way to a relapse of his malady. His disorder extended, with little intermission, to the close of life; which, melancholy to relate, ended in a state of absolute despair. In 1794, a pension of £300 per annum was granted him by the crown. In the beginning of 1800, this gifted, but afflicted man of genius, exhibited symptoms of dropsy, which carried him off on the 25th of April following. Since his death, Cowper has, by the care and industry of his friend and biographer, Hayley, become known to the world, as one of the most easy and elegant letter-writers on record.

Cow-Pock. (See *Vaccination.*)

Cowry-Shells; shells used for coin; a kind of small muscles, belonging to the Indian seas, &c.; the *cypræa moneta* of Linnæus. They have an oval, smooth shell. The largest are an inch and a half in size, and indented on both sides of the opening. They are collected twice a

year in the bay of Bengal, on the Malabar coast, and, in still greater quantity, in the neighborhood of the Maldive islands. They are used throughout the East Indies, especially in Bengal and in the African trade, instead of small coins. The demand is so great, that, notwithstanding the insignificant price (in 1780, a pound of them might be bought for three cents), about $150,000 worth are sent every year to Bengal.

Coxe, William, a historian and traveller, born in London, 1747, was educated at Eton and Cambridge, and successively accompanied several young men of the first English families, on their travels in Europe, in the capacity of tutor. Among these were the earl of Pembroke, the late Mr. Whitbread (the famous parliamentary orator), and the marquis of Cornwallis. He published an account of his travels through Switzerland (1779), and through Poland, Russia, Sweden and Denmark (1784—92), which are highly esteemed, and have been translated into almost all the languages of Europe. As a historian, he brought himself into notice by his Memoirs of Sir Robert Walpole, in 1798, which were followed by those of Horatio Lord Walpole, in 1802. He then published his History of the House of Austria (1807), which has been translated into German; next, his Memoirs of the Kings of Spain of the House of Bourbon, from 1700 to 1788 (1813, 3 vols., 4to.). Marlborough's Life and Original Papers (1818 et seq., 3 vols. 4to.) is a valuable work. Mr. Coxe died in 1828.

Coxie, or Coxcin, Michael, a painter and engraver, born at Mechlin, 1497, a pupil of Bernard van Orley, travelled to Rome, where he remained several years, attracted by the works of Raphael, with whom he was probably personally acquainted. Here he executed several paintings in fresco, and many other pieces. He also painted the history of Cupid and Psyche, in the style of Raphael, which was engraved on 32 copperplates. In the imperial gallery of Vienna, we find a Madonna with the infant Jesus, by him. His works are rare, even in the Netherlands. He died in 1592.

Coypels, The; 1. Noel, the father, born, it is uncertain whether at Paris or in Normandy, in 1628 or in 1629, died in 1707, at Paris. After he had embellished, by the royal command, the old Louvre with his paintings (from the cartoons of Lebrun), and had, in like manner, adorned the Tuileries, he was appointed a director of the French academy in Rome. His four pictures for the council hall at Versailles—Solon, Trajan, Severus and Ptolemy Philadelphus—excited the admiration of connoisseurs. His chief works are, the Martyrdom of St. James (in the church of Notre Dame), Cain murdering his Brother (in the academy), the Trinity and the Conception of the Holy Virgin (in the Hôtel des Invalides). Coypel had a rich imagination, drew correctly, understood expression, and was an agreeable colorist.—2. His son, Anthony, born at Paris, in 1661, where he died in 1721, possessed spirit and invention. At the age of 14, he studied the works of the Venetian colorists, and, though his studies were interrupted by his speedy return to France, the works that he executed obtained the greatest applause, which rendered him probably more careless than he would otherwise have been. The richness of his imagination and the greatness of his composition caused his imperfect drawing to be overlooked, and his dazzling coloring excused his want of harmony. His fame laid the foundation for the manner of the French school.—3. Much more pure and correct, but comparatively neglected by the public of his time, was his younger brother, Noel Nicholas Coypel, usually called *Coypel the uncle*, born at Paris, in 1692, where he died in 1735. Far from desiring to dazzle by a false glitter, he aimed only at truth and nature. Without general popularity, he was satisfied with the praise of a small circle of connoisseurs of good taste. He finally received a place in the academy.—4. Charles Anthony, the son of Anthony, born at Paris, in 1694, where he died in 1752, followed the example of his father, and accommodated himself to the taste of his time with great success. The applause which he received did him much injury. He was entirely a mannerist. His coloring was dazzling, but inharmonious. His father was the author of a poetical epistle on painting, addressed to him, written with much elegance.

Coysevox, Antoine, a sculptor, born at Lyons, in 1640, went to Alsace, in his 27th year, to adorn the beautiful palace of the cardinal Fürstenberg at Saverne. On his return to France, he became a member of the academy of the arts of painting and sculpture, and made several busts of Louis XIV, and other works for the royal palaces. His figures are full of grace, natural and noble. He was called the *Vandyke of sculpture*, on account of the beauty and animation of his portraits. The statue of cardinal Mazarin, in the museum at Paris, is a masterpiece of art.

Besides this, his most distinguished works are the statue of Louis XIV, on horseback, for the estates of Bretagne; the sepulchre of Colbert; the statues representing the Dordogne, Garonne and Marne; the group of Castor and Pollux; the sitting Venus; the Nymph of the Shell; the Hamadryad; the sportive Faun with the Flute; Pegasus and Mercury. Coysevox died at Paris, in 1720, in the 80th year of his age.

Crab (*cancer*, Lin.). This name, which appears to be derived from the Greek καραβος, through the Latin *carabus*, used by Pliny to designate certain crustaceous species, is now applied to a considerable group of invertebral animals, whose bodies are covered by an external skeleton, or calcareous crust, having 10 articulated limbs, adapted for swimming or walking, and breathing by *branchia*, or gills. The head and corselet are united, the latter being broader than it is long. The tail is short in proportion, and concealed by being turned forward beneath the body. This genus is distinguished from all others of the same family by the semicircular shape of the corselet, the pointed or hooked extremities of the last joint of the limbs, the narrowness of the superior shell from before backwards, the posterior direction of the hinder *tarsi*, and the absence of spines or ridges from the *forceps*, or biting claws. They belong to the fourth section of ten-legged, short-tailed *crustacea* (*decapoda brachyura*) of the latest systems, and are of numerous species, exceedingly various in size, color, and modes of living. A slight survey of the structure of these animals might lead to the opinion that their senses were limited or imperfect; but proper observation shows the contrary to be true. The sense of sight, in most of the species, is peculiarly acute, and enables them to distinguish the approach of objects from a very considerable distance. Their power of smelling is also great, though we have not yet discovered the organ by which this sense operates. It has been inferred that the *antennæ* serve this purpose. Until more positive knowledge is acquired on the subject, no evil can arise from this opinion as to the seat of the sense of smell. The entrance to the organ of hearing is at the base of the peduncle sustaining the *antennæ*, and consists of a small, hard, triangular prominence, covered by a membrane, within which is a cavity containing the expanded auditory nerve. Of all the senses, that of touch, except so far as it may be possessed by the *antennæ*, appears to be the least perfect, since the whole body and limbs are incrusted with a hard, compact shell. Of the sense of taste, we can say nothing, but that, as the animals possess a remarkably complex and elaborate apparatus for mastication, there is no reason for believing them devoid of this sense. The mouth is furnished with at least eight pieces or pairs of jaws, which pass the food through an extremely short gullet into a membranous stomach of considerable size. This stomach is rendered curious by having within certain cartilaginous appendages, to which strong grinding teeth are attached. These, in crabs, are five in number, and placed at the pyloric extremity, or outlet of the stomach; so that the aliment, after being subjected to the action of the jaws, is again more perfectly chewed by the stomach-teeth, before entering the digestive tube, where it is exposed to the action of the biliary fluid of the liver. The latter organ is of great size in these creatures, and is all that soft, rich, yellow substance, found immediately beneath the superior shell, usually called the *fat* of the crab, and justly esteemed a delicious morsel. A little posterior to the stomach (commonly called *sandbag*), the heart is situated—a somewhat globular, whitish body, which propels a colorless lymph to the gills (called *dead man's flesh* or *fingers*) and rest of the body, whence it is brought back to the heart by a hollow vein (*vena cava*), of considerable size. The process of sloughing, moulting, or throwing off the entire calcareous covering, which constitutes their only skeleton, is common to all the *crustacea*, and is very worthy of attention. As it is obvious that the hard shell, when once perfected, cannot change with the growth of the animal, it becomes necessary that it should be shed entirely; and this shedding takes place at regular periods, at which the increase of size occurs. No one can behold the huge claws or *forceps* of various species, and the smallness of the joints between them and the body, without feeling some surprise that the creature should be able to extricate them from the old shell, though this is readily accomplished. The aquatic crabs, when the season of shedding arrives, generally seek the sandy shores of the creeks and rivers, and, having selected a situation, they remain at rest, and the change begins. The body of the crab seems to swell, the large upper shell is gradually detached at the edge, or where it joins the thorax or corselet, and the membrane gradually gives way, and rises up from behind, somewhat like the lid of a chest.

The crab next begins to withdraw the limbs from their cases, and the large muscles of the claws undergo a softening, which allows of their being drawn through the smaller joints. This movement is slowly effected, and, at the time it is accomplished, the parts about the mouth, the *antennæ* and eyes are withdrawn from their old cases, and the animal escapes, retaining his original figure, but soft, helpless, and incapable of exertion or resistance. By a gentle and not very obvious motion, we next observe the sand displaced below the body, and the crab begins to be covered with it, until, at length, he is sufficiently covered for safety, though still in sight. This is generally in shallow water, where the sun shines freely upon the bottom; and, in the course of 12 hours, the external membrane begins to harden, so as to crackle like paper when pressed upon, and the process of hardening goes on so rapidly, that, by the end of the next 48 hours, the crab regains something of his former solidity and ability to protect himself by flight or resistance. Myriads of these animals are caught on the shores of the rivers and creeks of the Chesapeake bay, when in their soft state, and sold to great advantage. The epicure who has never tasted soft crabs should hasten to Baltimore, Annapolis or Easton, in Maryland, in July and August, to make himself acquainted with one of the highest luxuries of the table, which fairly disputes the palm with canvass-back ducks, also to be obtained in perfection in Baltimore during the winter. The habits of crabs are very various: some are exclusively aquatic, and remain on the sands or rocks, at great depths in the sea; others inhabit excavations formed in the soft coral reefs or bars on certain coasts; some spend their days altogether on shore, living in burrows or dens, formed in a moist or boggy soil; others resort to the rocky flats or beaches, to bask in the sun, where only an occasional wave dashes over them, and seek refuge in the sea when alarmed; while some species are completely terrestrial, inhabiting holes upon the highest hills and mountains of the West Indies. Of these land-crabs, the most remarkable is the species formerly so abundant in the highlands of Jamaica (*cancer ruricola*), and still common in less densely peopled or uninhabited islands. When the season for spawning arrives, vast armies of them set out from the hills, marching in a direct line towards the sea-shore, for the purpose of depositing their eggs in the sand. On this grand expedition, nothing is allowed to turn them from their course. With unyielding perseverance, they surmount every obstacle which may intervene, whether a house, rock, or other body, not avoiding the labor of climbing by going round, but ascending and passing over it in a straight line. Having reached the destined limit of their journey, they deposit their eggs in the sand, and recommence their toilsome march towards their upland retreats. They set out after nightfall, and steadily advance, until the approach of day-light warns them to seek concealment in the inequalities of the ground, or among any kind of rubbish, where they lie ensconced until the stars again invite them to pursue their undeviating course. On their seaward journey, they are in full vigor and fine condition; and this is the time when they are caught in great numbers for the table. Their flesh, which is of the purest whiteness, is highly esteemed, but, like that of all crustaceous animals, is rather difficult of digestion. Returning from the coast, they are exhausted, poor, and no longer fit for use. They then retire to their burrows, and slough, or shed their shells, after which operation, and while in their soft state, they are again sought by epicures. Seeing they are so much valued as an article of food, it is not surprising that their numbers should be exceedingly diminished, or quite extinguished, in populous islands, where multitudes are annually consumed, before they have deposited their eggs for the continuance of the species. Besides this cause of diminution, they are destroyed, in great numbers, by other animals, and numbers of them perish from exhaustion and injury on their homeward progress. When the eggs are hatched, the young, in like manner, seek the hills, and pursue the course of life peculiar to their race. Crabs generally subsist upon animal matter, especially in a state of decomposition, though some of them are very fond of certain vegetable substances. This is especially the case with the swift-running or racer crabs, which live in burrows made in a soft or watery soil, in the vicinity of sugar-cane fields. From their numbers and activity, they become a great nuisance, destroying large quantities of cane, by cutting it off and sucking the juice. They sometimes increase to such a degree, that, in conjunction with the rats and other destroyers of the cane, they blight the hopes of the planter, and completely spoil his crop. Their excavations in the soil are so deep and extensive, and it is so very difficult to catch or de-

stroy them in any way, that they may be regarded as seriously subtracting from the value of estates situated near the sea, or where they are abundant. No one, who has not made the experiment, could readily believe the great distance at which these marauders descry an approaching pursuer, nor the extraordinary celerity with which they escape. Few men can run with sufficient swiftness to overtake them; and even when, from any accident, the pursuer is led to hope that he has cut off the retreat of his victim, the wonderful facility they have in running, or rather darting in any direction, or with any part of their bodies foremost, almost uniformly enables them to elude capture, and recommence their flight. It is seldom, however, that they leave the mouths of their dens, or go to a distance from them, in the day-time; and their vigilance is such, that they regain them in a moment, and disappear securely, as soon as a man or dog comes near enough to be seen. The writer has known a planter, whose crop was ruined one season by bad weather, rats and crabs combined, vent his spleen by shooting the crabs, which were not otherwise to be approached so as to be killed. This, as might be supposed, was a very ineffectual revenge, since their shells are sufficiently hard to cause most of the shot to glance harmlessly off. Perhaps poisoning, by means of the powder of the *nux vomica*, or St. Ignatius's bean, would prove a more effectual method. A mixture of this powder with sugar or molasses and crumbs of bread might be tried with a considerable prospect of success. The species which daily bask in the sun, on the rocky shores of the West India islands, are quite as vigilant, and very little inferior in swiftness to those above-mentioned. Some of them are very large, splendidly colored, and well suited to excite the wishes of a naturalist to add them to his collection. Many an hour of anxious watching, and many a race of breathless eagerness, have they caused the writer in vain. Sometimes when, with great caution, I had approached, and placed myself between the crab and the sea, hoping to drive him inland and secure him, just at the instant success seemed to be certain, the vigilant animal would dart sidewise, backwards, or in a direction entirely opposite to that he might be expected to take, and scamper securely to his ocean hiding-place. At other times, while stealing upon one which was prevented from observing my approach by a projecting piece of rock, and almost sure of my prize, one vigilant imp at a distance has taken alarm, and, by dashing across the spot where the unsuspecting individual rested, set all in the vicinity to flight, and changed my anticipated triumph to mortification.—Inquirers who wish to obtain the most ample knowledge of the construction, functions and classification of crustaceous animals, we refer to Desmarest's excellent work, entitled *Considérations générales sur les Crustacés* (8vo., Paris, 1825). Such as wish to be satisfactorily acquainted with the habits of these curious beings, would find much gratification from a visit, during the fine season, to some of the places of resort upon our Atlantic coast, where they will find an abundant field thrown open to their examination. Perhaps cape May is one of the best situations for this purpose, on account of the facility of visiting it, and the excellence of its sea beach.

Crab, in ship-building; a sort of wooden pillar, whose lower end, being let down through a ship's decks, rests upon a socket, like the capstern. It is employed to wind in the cable, or to raise any weighty matter. It differs from the capstern by not being furnished with a drum-head, and by having the bars going entirely through it.

Crab-Apple. (See *Apple*.)

Crabbe, George, one of the most popular of the modern British poets, was born Dec. 21, 1754, at Altborough, in Suffolk. He was the son of an officer of the customs, and was intended for a surgeon. The poetical disposition of the boy showed itself early, being awakened by the opposite spirit of the father, who used to cut all the verses out of the journals which he read, considering them as a useless incumbrance. The pieces of paper containing them served the children for playthings. Thus the little George acquired the habit of reading verse, learned many of the pieces by heart, and, after a while, attempted to supply the gaps often made in the pieces by the process of excision. By and by, he wrote for the journals, and, in 1778, gained a prize for a poem on hope, which induced him to give up the study of surgery, and go to London, where he devoted himself entirely to belles-lettres. Here Edmund Burke became his paternal friend and adviser. The first poems which he published after his change of residence, including the Village (1782), received great applause. Doctor Johnson encouraged the young poet to persevere. Burke persuaded him to study theology, and, by laborious application, without having visited a university, he gained an academic de-

gree. The duke of Rutland conferred on him a living in his gift, to which another was afterwards added. Crabbe now married, and became the father of a numerous family. At a later period, he received a lucrative benefice, in the county of Suffolk; and, in 1813, he was made rector of Trowbridge. The study of theology, for a long time, withdrew Mr. Crabbe almost entirely from poetic labors. As late as 1807, after an interruption of almost 20 years, he gave some new poems to the public, among which the Borough deserves particular mention. His latest work is the Tales of the Hall, in which two brothers, who have met after a long separation, describe many scenes and events which they have witnessed. His smaller tales, in verse, deserve also to be mentioned. His works have gone through many editions, and, of late years, he has himself made a collection of them. His poetry has been justly compared to the painting of Teniers and Ostade, being distinguished for truth, accuracy and life. Its charm lies in the masterly treatment of subjects which, in themselves, have little of a poetical character. His muse loves to visit the huts of poverty and misery, and describes the scenes which they exhibit with heart-rending truth. His descriptions of nature are living, circumstantial and true. Every thing about him is characteristic, clear and simple. He has been called the *anatomist of the human soul.*

Crabeth, Dierk and Wouter, brothers; painters on glass; said, by some, to be Germans; by others, to be Dutchmen. They lived at the end of the 15th and the beginning of the 16th centuries, at Gouda, where they executed 11 paintings on glass, in St. John's church, which are still admired. Wouter excelled in exactness, Dierk in power. The art of painting on glass, according to some accounts, ceased with them. It is related that the jealousy of the two brothers prevented them from communicating to each other the secret of their particular style, and that each, on receiving a visit from the other, carefully concealed such of his works as were not completed, lest the observation of the gradual improvement of the painting might enable his brother to acquire the peculiar advantages of his style.

Cracow; a republic and city in Poland, in West Galicia, situated on an extensive plain, at the confluence of the rivers Rudawa and Vistula, where many important commercial roads centre; lon. 19° 57′ 9″ E.; lat. 50° 3′ 52″ N. It was formerly the capital of Poland, and though, afterwards, Sigismund III (who reigned from 1587 to 1632) fixed the royal residence at Warsaw, still it remained, till 1764, the place of coronation. It contains about 25,000 inhabitants, of whom many are Germans, and a great number Jews. It consists of Cracow proper, or the old city, surrounded with fortifications, walls and ditches, and the suburbs of Stradom and Clepar on the left, and Casimir on the right, bank of the river Vistula. The traveller, on seeing the number of rich old churches and towers, the lofty castle, and the mass of houses, spread out before him on the boundless plain, would suppose that he was approaching a splendid city; but, on entering, he finds a labyrinth of crooked and dirty streets, bearing the remains of former splendor. Cracow is the see of a bishop, who formerly bore the title of *duke of Severia.* The church of the castle (a Gothic building well worth seeing), the richest church in Galicia, contains the monuments of many Polish kings, the tombs of the famous Sobieski, of Jos. Poniatowski, of Kosciusko and Dombrowski. Of the other 72 churches, some are remarkable for their antiquity. In the church of St. Anna stands the marble monument of Copernicus. On one of the three hills near Cracow stands the monument of Kosciusko, 120 feet high. The city is supposed to have been founded by a prince named *Cracus*, about A. D. 700. It adopted the Magdeburg law in 1257. From this time, it has been the seat of a flourishing commerce, and has possessed a good university, with an observatory. The university was remodelled in 1817. On the division of Poland, in 1795, Cracow fell to Austria, which had already taken possession of the suburb of Casimir. In 1809, it was, together with all West Galicia, made a part of the duchy of Warsaw. By an act of the congress of Vienna (1815), Cracow, with a territory of 487 square miles and 108,000 inhabitants (of whom 7300 are Jews, and 1500 Lutherans), was declared a republic, to remain perpetually neutral, and to be governed according to the constitution of May 3, 1815. The city has a militia for its defence. The taxes are considerably reduced, a part of the debts paid, and useful buildings have been erected. The three powers, under whose protection Cracow is (Austria, Russia and Prussia), on the 5th of Oct., 1826, established a new course of study for the university and other institutions for instruction. The constitution, signed by Met-

ternich, Rasumoffsky, and Hardenberg, for Austria, Russia and Prussia, establishes a house of representatives, and a senate with a president, a court of appeal, &c. The legislative body consists of representatives chosen by the corporations, together with three deputies of the senate, three prelates of the chapter, three doctors of the university, and six judges. The executive power is in the hands of a senate, consisting of twelve senators, eight of whom are for life, and four for a limited period. The president and eight of the members are chosen by the national assembly; the other four by the chapter and the university. Most of the inhabitants are Catholics, but all sects are protected. No one is qualified for being a senator or representative without having studied in one of the universities of Poland.

Cradle, in shipbuilding; a frame placed under the bottom of a ship, in order to conduct her, smoothly and steadily, into the water, when she is launched; at which time it supports her weight whilst she slides down the descent or sloping passage called the *ways*, which, to facilitate her passage, are daubed with soap and tallow.

Craft, in sea language, signifies all manner of nets, lines, hooks, &c., used in fishing. Hence little vessels, as ketches, hoys, smacks, &c., of the kind commonly used in the fishing trade, are called *small craft*.

Cramer, John Andrew, born Jan., 1723, at Jöhstadt, near Annaberg, in the Saxon Erzgebirge, where his father was a poor clergyman, studied theology at Leipsic, in 1742, where he supported himself by his literary labors and private instruction. In connexion with Ebert, Joh. Elias Schlegel, Gærtner, Geller, Klopstock, Rabener and other young men, whose labors had a favorable influence on the cultivation of the German taste, he was actively engaged in editing the *Bremischen Beiträge*, and likewise the *Sammlung vermischter Schriften von den Verfassern der bremischen Beiträge*. In 1754, by the influence of Klopstock, he was appointed court preacher and consistorial counsellor of king Frederic V at Copenhagen, and, in 1765, professor of theology in the same place. Here he was much respected and beloved, and received the surname *der Eyegode* (the very good). The revolution, which caused the downfall of count Struensee and the queen Caroline Matilda, occasioned also the disgrace of Cramer, and induced him, in 1771, to accept of an invitation to Lübeck. In 1774, however, he was invited to Kiel as pro-chancellor and first professor of theology; and, ten years after, was appointed chancellor and curator of the university. He died in 1788, with the reputation of an accomplished scholar, a poet, a fertile author, one of the first pulpit orators, and a man of a noble character and an active zeal for the public good. Besides many historical and theological works, he wrote a poetical translation of the psalms, and three volumes of poems, of which the odes and hymns are the best.

His son, Charles Frederic Cramer (born in 1752, died in 1807), was likewise an author, and lived long in Paris, whither he was drawn by the interest which he took in the French revolution. His journal, which he kept with great care, contains much information, as his house was the point of union of many distinguished men, and he was concerned in important transactions.

Cramp (*kramp*, Dutch), in architecture and sculpture; pieces of iron, bronze, or other metal, bent at each end, by which stones in buildings, and limbs, &c., of statues, are held together. The ancient Romans made great use of cramps in their buildings, and the cupidity of modern barbarians, like pope Barberini, has destroyed many a fine work for the sake of the bronze used in its construction. The Pantheon, with its fine portico, by Agrippa, and the Coliseum, have suffered most from these wanton aggressions, and the baldachin of St. Peter's, and some eighty pieces of brass ordnance, are nearly all that we have in exchange for some of the finest works of which the world could boast.

Cranberry; a small red fruit, produced by a slender, wiry plant (*vaccinium oxycoccos*), growing in peaty bogs and marshy grounds in Russia, Sweden, the north of England and Germany, and in North America. The leaves are small, somewhat oval, and rolled back at the edges, and the stem is thread-shaped and trailing. The blossoms are small, but beautiful, each consisting of four distinct petals, rolled back to the base, and of a deep flesh color. The American cranberry (*V. macrocarpon*), growing in bogs principally, on sandy soils, and on high lands, frequent from Canada to Virginia, is a larger and more upright plant than the last, with less convex, more oblong, much larger leaves. The berries are larger, of a brighter red, and collected in great abundance for making tarts, jelly,

&c. They are also exported to Europe, but are not considered there equal to the Russian cranberries. These fruits are collected, in America, by means of a rake; in Germany, by wooden combs. In England, they are picked by hand, as they grow there but scantily. They are preserved with sugar, much of which is required to correct the natural tartness of the berries. In England, they are preserved dry in bottles, corked so closely as to exclude the external air: some persons, however, fill up the bottles with spring water. They keep very long in fresh and pure water. At sea, they are an agreeable addition to the few articles of diet which can be had. In the *Pomarium Britannicum*, by Phillips (London, 1827), it is stated, that, in 1826, cranberries arrived in England from New Holland, which were much superior in flavor to those of Europe and America.

Crane (*grus*, Pal., &c.); a genus of birds belonging to the order *grallæ*, L.; and, by the great Swedish naturalist, comprised in his extensive genus *ardea*, though properly ranked as a distinct genus by all subsequent naturalists. The distinctive characters of this genus are as follows: The bill is but little cleft, is compressed, attenuated towards the point, and rather obtuse at its extremity; the mandibles are subequal, with vertical margins, the upper being convex, with a wide furrow on each side at the base, which becomes obliterated before reaching the middle of the bill. The nostrils are situated in these furrows, and are medial-concave, elliptical, pervious, and closed posteriorly by a membrane. The tongue is fleshy, broad and acute. The ophthalmic region and lora are feathered, though the head is generally bald, rough, and sometimes crested. The body is cylindrical, having long and stout feet. The naked space above the tarsus is extensive, and the latter is more than twice as long as the middle toe. The toes are of moderate length, covered with *scutellæ*, or small plates, and submargined; a rudimental membrane connects the outer one at base; the inner is free; the hind toe is shorter than a joint of the middle one, and is articulated with the tarsus, elevated from the ground; the nails are tile-shaped, falculate, and obtuse; the middle one has its cutting edge entire; the hind nail is the longest; the wings are moderate, with the first and fifth primaries subequal; the tail is short, and consists of twelve feathers. These birds are generally of considerable size, and remarkable for their long necks and stilt-like legs, which eminently fit them for living in marshes and situations subject to inundations, where they usually seek their food. This is principally of vegetable matter, consisting of the seeds of various plants, or grains plundered from grounds recently ploughed and sown. They also devour insects, worms, frogs, lizards, reptiles, small fish, and the spawn of various aquatic animals. They build their nests among bushes, or upon tussucks in the marshes, constructing them of rushes, reeds, &c., surmounted by some soft material, so high that they may cover the eggs in a standing position. They lay but two eggs, for whose incubation the male and female alternately take their place on the nest. During the time that one is thus engaged, the other acts as a vigilant sentinel; and, when the young are hatched, both parents unite in protecting them. The cranes annually migrate to distant regions, and perform voyages astonishing for their great length and hazardous character. They are remarkable for making numerous circles and evolutions in the air, when setting out on their journeys, and generally form an isosceles triangle, led by one of the strongest of their number, whose trumpet-like voice is heard as if directing their advance, when the flock is far above the clouds, and entirely out of sight. To this call-note of the leader the flock frequently respond by a united clangor, which, heard at such a distance, does not produce an unpleasing effect. From the sagacity with which these birds vary their flight, according to the states of the atmosphere, they have, from the earliest ages, been regarded as indicators of events; and their manœuvres were attentively watched by the augurs and aruspices—a circumstance which, together with their general harmlessness and apparent gravity of demeanor, led to their being held in a sort of veneration, even by some civilized nations. When obliged to take wing from the ground, cranes rise with considerable difficulty, striking quickly with their wings, and trailing their feet along and near the ground, until they have gained a sufficient elevation to commence wheeling in circles, which grow wider and wider, until they have soared to the highest regions of the air. When their flight is high and silent, it is regarded as an indication of continued fine weather; they fly low and are noisy in cloudy, wet or stormy weather. Against approaching storms, the cranes, like various other birds of lofty flight, readily guard, by ascending above the

level of the clouds, and the atmospheric currents which bear them; and this indication of an approaching gust is not lost sight of by Virgil:—

"——Numquam imprudentibus imber
Obfuit: aut illum surgentem vallibus imis
Aëriæ fugêre grues; aut bucula," &c.
Georg. I., 373—5.

When a flock of cranes is engaged in feeding, or while it is at rest, when the birds sleep standing on one foot, with the head under the wing, one of the number acts as sentinel, and keeps a vigilant watch, alarming the whole if any enemy approach or the slightest danger threaten. Two species of this genus are known to inhabit the U. States—the whooping crane (*G. Americana*) and the brown or sandhill crane (*G. Canadensis*, Bonap.) The first named derive their trivial appellation from their loud, clear, piercing cry, which may be heard at the distance of two miles. If wounded, they attack the sportsman or his dog with great spirit, and are said to have occasionally driven their long, pointed bill through the hand of a man. Wilson states that, during winter, they are frequently seen in the low grounds and rice plantations of the Southern States, seeking for grain and insects. He met with a number of them, on the 10th of February, near Waccamau river, in South Carolina, and saw another flock near Louisville, Ky., about the 20th of March. They are very shy and vigilant, and, consequently, shot with difficulty. They sometimes rise spirally in the air to a vast height, their mingled screams resembling the full cry of a pack of hounds, even when they are almost out of sight. They are distinguished from other cranes by the comparative baldness of their heads, and by the broad flag of plumage projecting over the tail. Their general color is pure white. The brown or sandhill crane is of an ash color, generally, with shades or clouds of pale-brown and sky-blue: brown prevails upon the shoulders and back. It is a very stately bird, being above six feet long, from the toes to the point of the beak, when extended, and its wings measure eight or nine feet from tip to tip. When standing erect, the sandhill crane is full five feet high; the tail is quite short, but the feathers pendent on each side of the rump are very long, of a delicate silky softness, and sharp-pointed. The crown of the head is bare of feathers, and of a reddish rose color, but thinly barbed with short, stiff, black hair. When the wings are moved in flight, their strokes are slow, moderate and regular, and, even when at a considerable distance above us, we plainly hear the quill-feathers, as their shafts and webs rub upon one another, creaking like the joints of a vessel in a tempestuous sea (Bartram). The sandhill crane is common, and breeds in the savannas of Florida. It is also found in various parts of the American states and territories. It is most rare in the middle portions of the Union.

Craniology. (See *Phrenology.*)

Crank; an iron axis with the end bent like an elbow, for the purpose of moving a piston, the saw in a sawmill, &c., causing it to rise and fall at every turn; also for turning a grindstone, &c. The common crank affords one of the simplest and most useful methods for changing circular into alternate motion, and *vice versa.* Double and triple cranks are likewise of the greatest use for transmitting circular motion to a distance. In fact, cranks belong to those few simple elements on which the most complicated machines rest, and which, like the lever, are constantly employed.

Cranmer, Thomas, famous in the English reformation, during the reign of Henry VIII, was born in 1489. He entered as a student of Jesus college, Cambridge, in 1503, took the degree of M. A., obtained a fellowship, and, in 1523, was chosen reader of theological lectures in his college, and examiner of candidates for degrees in divinity. In the course of conversation on the then meditated divorce of Henry VIII from his first wife, Catharine of Arragon, Cranmer remarked that the question of its propriety might be better decided by consulting learned divines and members of the universities than by an appeal to the pope. The opinion thus delivered having been reported to the king by doctor Fox, his majesty was highly delighted with it, exclaiming, at the prospect it afforded him of being able to remove the obstacles to the gratification of his passions, "By ——, the man has got the sow by the right ear!" Cranmer was sent for to court, made a king's chaplain, and commanded to write a treatise on the subject of the divorce. In 1530, he was sent abroad, with others, to collect the opinions of the divines and canonists of France, Italy and Germany, on the validity of the king's marriage. At Rome, he presented his treatise to the pope, and afterwards proceeded to Germany, where he obtained for his opinions the sanction of a great number of German divines and civilians, and formed such intimate connexions with the rising party of the Prot-

estants, as probably influenced greatly his future conduct. He also contracted marriage, though in holy orders, with the niece of doctor Osiander, a famous Protestant divine. Cranmer was employed by the king to conclude a commercial treaty between England and the Netherlands; after which he was ordered home, to take possession of the metropolitan see of Canterbury. He hesitated to accept of this dignity, professing to be scrupulous about applying to the pope for the bulls necessary for his consecration. This difficulty was obviated by a vague and secret protestation, which can be justified only on the Jesuitical principle of the lawfulness of mental reservations or virtual falsehoods. The application being therefore made in the usual manner to the court of Rome, the pall and bulls were sent. Soon after, he set the papal authority at defiance, by pronouncing sentence of divorce between Henry and Catharine, and confirming the king's marriage with Anne Boleyn. The pope threatened excommunication, and an act of parliament was immediately passed for abolishing the pope's supremacy, and declaring the king chief head of the church of England. The archbishop employed all his influence in forwarding such measures as might give permanence to the reformation. The Bible was translated into English, and dispersed among the people; the monastic institutions were suppressed; the superstitious observances connected with them were abolished; and provision was made for the instruction of all ranks in the principles of the prevailing party. In 1536, the casuistry of Cranmer was a second time exerted to gratify the base passions of his tyrannical sovereign. When Anne Boleyn was destined to lose her reputation and her life, that the king might take another consort, it was determined also to bastardize her issue; and the archbishop meanly stooped to pronounce a sentence of divorce, on the plea that the queen had confessed to him her having been contracted to lord Percy, before her marriage with the king. The compliances of the primate served to ensure him the gratitude of Henry, though he was obliged to make some important sacrifices to royal prejudice, which was strongly in favor of the ancient faith, where that did not tend to curb the king's own passions or prerogatives. In 1539 was passed an act of parliament, called the *bloody act*, condemning to death all who supported the right of marriage of priests, and communion of both kinds to the laity, and who opposed transubstantiation, auricular confession, vows of chastity and the necessity of private masses. Cranmer opposed, as long as he dared, this enactment; but, finding his efforts vain, he gave way, and sent his own wife back to her friends in Germany. He subsequently succeeded in carrying some points in favor of further reformation; and, in 1540, he published a work for popular use, chiefly of his own composition, entitled the Necessary Erudition of a Christian Man. On the death of Henry, in 1546—7, the archbishop was left one of the executors of his will, and member of the regency appointed to govern the kingdom during the minority of Edward VI. He united his interest with that of the earl of Hertford, afterwards duke of Somerset, and proceeded to model the church of England according to the notions of Zuinglius, rather than those of Luther. By his instrumentality, the liturgy was drawn up and established by act of parliament, and articles of religion were compiled, the validity of which was enforced by royal authority, and for which infallibility was claimed. Under Cranmer's ecclesiastical government, Joan Bocher and George van Paris were burnt as heretics; and the fate of the former is rendered peculiarly striking by the fact that the primate, by his spiritual authority and pressing importunity, constrained the young king to sign the death warrant for the *auto-da-fé* of the unhappy criminal, which he would not do till he had disburdened his own conscience, by telling the archbishop that, if the deed were sinful, he should answer for it to God. The exclusion of the princess Mary from the crown, by the will of her brother, was a measure in which Cranmer joined the partisans of lady Jane Grey, apparently in opposition to his own judgment. With others who had been most active in her elevation, he was sent to the Tower on the accession of Mary. That princess had personal obligations to Cranmer, who is said to have preserved her from the anger of her father, which menaced her with destruction, for her pertinacious adherence to the Catholic faith; but she could not forget or forgive the disgrace of her mother and herself, in effecting which, the archbishop had been so important an agent; he was therefore destined to become the victim of popish ascendency. He was tried before commissioners sent from Rome, on the charges of blasphemy, perjury, incontinence and heresy, and cited to appear within 80 days at Rome, to deliver, in person, his vindication to the pope. To comply with this mandate was impossible,

as he was detained in prison; nevertheless he was declared contumacious for not making his appearance, and sentenced to be degraded and deprived of office. After this, flattering promises were made, which induced him to sign a recantation of his alleged errors, and become, in fact, a Catholic convert. The triumph of his enemies was now complete, and nothing was wanting but the sacrifice of their abused and degraded victim. Oxford was the scene of his execution; but, to make the tragedy more impressive, he was placed on a scaffold in St. Mary's church, the day he was to suffer, there to listen to a declaration of his faults and heresies, his extorted penitence, and the necessity of his expiating, by his death, errors which Heaven alone could pardon, but which were of an enormity too portentous to be passed over by an earthly tribunal. Those who planned this proceeding accomplished but half their object. Instead of confessing the justness of his sentence, and submitting to it in silence, or imploring mercy, he calmly acknowledged that the fear of death had made him belie his conscience; and declared that nothing could afford him consolation but the prospect of extenuating his guilt by encountering, as a Protestant penitent, with firmness and resignation, the fiery torments which awaited him. He was immediately hurried to the stake, where he behaved with the resolution of a martyr, keeping his right hand, with which he had signed his recantation, extended in the flames, that it might be consumed before the rest of his body, exclaiming, from time to time, "That unworthy hand!" He was executed March 21, 1555—6. The fate of Cranmer has shed a false lustre over his character, and procured him the reputation of a Protestant martyr, while he was, in reality, the victim of party malice and personal revenge. Successively a Catholic, a Lutheran, a Zuinglian, a defender of transubstantiation, and then a persecutor of those who believed that doctrine, the soundness, if not the sincerity of his faith, may fairly be questioned. Even the purity of his motives, as a reformer, is rendered somewhat doubtful, by the fact of his having obtained, on very advantageous terms, numerous grants of estates which had belonged to suppressed monasteries. His private character, however, was amiable; and, whatever may have been his principles, no doubts can exist as to the eminence of his talents. His continued favor with the capricious Henry is a decisive proof of his mental superiority. He steadily pursued his grand object, the independence of the English church, to the establishment of which he contributed far beyond any other individual.

Note to the Article COLOMBIA, *in this Volume.*

According to our promise in that article, we give here the principal facts which have occurred in Colombia since the article went to press, though there is no prospect of a speedy establishment of tranquillity in that country. In the month of January, 1830, Venezuela declared herself independent of Colombia, at the instigation of general Paez. Some accounts say he compelled the Venezuelians to take this step. Bolivar, about the same time, solemnly declared, at Bogotá, every imputation against him as aiming at a crown to be false. A convention is now assembled for the purpose of preparing a new constitution for Colombia. The character of the projected constitution, according to the accounts which have been received, is quite liberal. Whether it is adapted to the state of the country, is another consideration. Bolivar is said to be sinking in popularity. He retired in February temporarily from the government, on account of ill health. It is reported that Paez is using forcible means to compel the Venezuelians to remain separate from Colombia, with which they are disposed to unite under a federal government.

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