Chapter 3

The Economy of Magic in Early Modern England

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When my mistress died, she had under her arm-hole a small scarlet bag full of many things, which, one that was there delivered unto me. There was in this bag several sigils, some of Jupiter in Trine, others of the nature of Venus, some of iron, and one of gold, of pure angel gold, of the bigness of a thirty-three shilling piece of King James’ coin. In the circumference of one side was engraven, *Vicit Leo de tribu Judae Tetragramaton* +, within the middle there was engraven a holy lamb. In the other circumference there was Amraphael and three +. In the middle, *Sanctus Petrus, Alpha and Omega*.

A sigil is an amulet in the form of a metal seal depicting images or words, often worn around the neck or fixed in a ring. This episode is dated 1624 and appears in the ‘autobiography’ that William Lilly wrote at the behest of Elias Ashmole in 1668.1 In 1620 Lilly had moved to London as a servant in the household of Gilbert and Margery Wright, a recently – and unhappily – married couple in their late sixties or early seventies (each had been married before). In 1622 Mrs Wright developed a swelling in her left breast, and Lilly nursed her for the next two years.

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eventually using a pair of scissors gradually to cut away the mortified breast; she soon died, leaving him the sigil that she had kept in her armpit. Lilly copied down the inscriptions that he describes above, and sold the sigil for thirty-two shillings.²

From Margery Wright, Lilly acquired more than experience in the rudiments of surgery and a golden sigil. She introduced him to the occult arts. She had frequently visited cunning men to discover whether her husband would die before her: ‘this occasion begot in me [Lilly] a little desire to learn something that way, but wanting money to buy books, I laid aside these notions’.³ Simon Forman, the astrologer-physician who had died in 1611, had been one of these cunning men, and he had made the sigil that Wright left to Lilly. Wright’s previous husband had been haunted by the spirit of a murdered man which entreated him to cut his own throat, and so long as he wore Forman’s sigil around his neck the spirit desisted.⁴ Lodged in Wright’s armpit, the sigil was a token of her encounters with the powers of the occult. When Lilly copied its notations and cashed it in, he redeemed its material value, negated its sentimental value, and stripped it of its magical power, keeping that in the less precious, and less effective, medium of pen and paper. He could do this because the value of the sigil was not inherent to the object.

Ideally Lilly would have re-invested the thirty-two shillings in books of magic, but it was the best part of a decade before he did so. He continued in his service to Mr Wright, who soon remarried a woman called Ellen. During the plague of 1625, Wright fled the city and left Lilly in charge of the household. Lilly bought a bass viol and took lessons on how to play it, and he spent a lot of time bowling in Lincoln’s Inn Fields.⁵ His master died in 1627 leaving him twenty pounds a year, and Lilly married the widow, Ellen, though she was much older than he. She died in 1633, leaving him more than a thousand pounds. In 1632 Lilly had begun to study astrology under the tutelage of John Evans, and then to buy books to further his studies.⁶ In 1634 he spent forty shillings on a manuscript Ars Notoria, a text attributed to Solomon and containing images and orations for invoking angels who endowed one with the understanding of arts and sciences, perfect memory, and the eloquence to convey this knowledge.⁷

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² Lilly, Life, p. 34.
³ Lilly, Life, pp. 28–9.
⁵ Lilly, Life, p. 46.
This essay is about the definitions and values of magic that are inscribed in sigils like that which Forman made and Lilly sold. Through the activities of Forman, Lilly and Ashmole, it charts the trade in magical objects, texts, and knowledge in England from the 1580s to the 1680s. Sigils, the skills to make them, and the texts that preserved this expertise had a number of values, monetary, practical, natural historical, antiquarian and natural philosophical. I am using the term ‘economy’ to denote all of these values, and I will explain what I mean by this before returning to Forman, Lilly and Ashmole.

**The value of things**

By the time that Lilly sold the sigil, in 1634, the world was disenchanted. This is how Max Weber described the process of rationalization and systematization that resulted from the rise of Protestantism and capitalism. Weber used this notion differently at different times. In *The Protestant Ethic*, he described the inner loneliness afflicting Calvinists as the culmination of a process that had been initiated by Hebrew prophets and fostered by Hellenistic science, a process which eliminated magic from the world; salvation and redemption could no longer be found through the magic of the church. In ‘Science as a Vocation’ he described the outcome of scientific rationalization not as the production of knowledge itself, but as knowing that we can learn through calculation, and thus we need not ‘implore the spirits’. In *The Religion of China* he concluded with a comparison of Confucianism and Puritanism, echoing the passage in *The Protestant Ethic*: ‘Nowhere has the complete disenchantment of the world been carried through with greater consistency [than in early modern Protestantism], but that did not mean freedom from what we nowadays customarily regard as “superstition”’. Rationality does not replace magic; disenchantment is a process within history, not a product of modernity.

It is now unfashionable to pursue universal, monolithic definitions of religion, magic, and science. Robert Merton, following Weber, documented the study of natural philosophy and innovations in technology by Puritans in early modern England, and Charles Webster explored the intellectual fervour of this world, a

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world in which science, religion and magic were part of the same project of reformation.12 Weber kept returning to the notion of the disenchantment of the world, not only because he was studying religion, but because he was concerned for the plight of the individual and the premium on rationality in a world where people, economy, administration, politics and science are systematized. The notion of the rational individual remains problematic in histories of early modern magic, science and religion because we, via nineteenth-century anthropologists, have inherited definitions of these subjects dating from the seventeenth century.13

This also holds true for definitions of economy that centre on the rational individual.14 In the formal sense, economy can be defined as the production, distribution and consumption of goods and services. Were we to explain the history of magic in terms of this formal concept of economy, we would document the production, distribution and consumption of magical goods and services according to the choices of individuals. Capitalism mystifies, or fetishizes wealth, and attributes (or generates) a value inherent to land, labour and capital; this value is defined as ‘use value’, something intrinsic to the object. The problem with magical objects is that from our perspective they contain a dubitable inherent value. We thus explain the ‘belief’ in their inherent value, their intrinsic efficacy, in terms of psychological


need. In an unpredictable, dangerous, anxiety-ridden world, people flock to the marketplace to purchase magical goods and services. This account, however, sacrifices contemporary ideas about the inherent value and intrinsic power of magical objects in order to preserve a notion of rationality. It also undermines the authority and expertise of the magical practitioner, and neglects the dynamic between him and his clients. Magic is demystified and it becomes quackery or religion.

Historians and anthropologists tracing the emergence of capitalism have noted the tautology implicit in using a formal notion of economy to distinguish between pre- and post-capitalist societies. Following Karl Polanyi, they adopt a version of the substantivist (as opposed to the formal) approach which defines economy as a socially embedded process. Here value is defined as ‘exchange value’, where it is not intrinsic to a static, reified thing, but accrued, expressed and measured through its process across space and time. 15 Arjun Appadurai describes this as the ‘social life of things’.16 Things, as embodiments of social action, undermine the conceptual categories of religion, economy and social structure (or lineage), categories which themselves became defined in early modern Europe.

This is why this essay is about magical sigils, particularly the one that Forman made.17 To make a sigil was to stamp the powers of the stars into a piece of metal, creating an object both natural and artificial; to use it was to traffic in the occult powers of nature, the dead, or demons; to record its designs was to collect its meaning; to sell it was to redeem its value either as a piece of precious metal or an object of curiosity; to collect it was to endow it with natural historical or antiquarian value, an object, like a coin or medal, embodying the virtues of the past, or like a shell, the secrets of nature, a token for trading with the invisible, what John Aubrey called ‘the Oeconomie of the Invisible World’.18 The value of a sigil was inherent to the object but it was not constant.19 Occult powers were subject to the

17 My approach is especially indebted to Igor Kopytoff’s notion of a ‘cultural biography of things’, for which see his ‘The cultural biography of things: commoditization as process’, in Appadurai, Social Life of Things, pp. 64–91.
19 On collecting and the invisible, see Pomian, Collectors and Curiosities, especially pp. 7–44. On coins as magical objects, see Henry Maguire, ‘Magic and money in the early Middle Ages’, Speculum, 72 (1997), 1037–54. For gestures towards the importance of economic factors in early modern science see the introduction to Pamela Smith and Paula Findlen, eds, Merchants and Marvels: Commerce, Science and Art in Early Modern Europe (New York, 2002). On the preternatural as a subject of natural
vicissitudes of nature, the motions of the stars and planets and the whims of demons, and economic values depended on how an object had been made, where it had come from, and whether it was to be used or collected. A natural and a social history were inscribed in the life of a magical object.

**Simon Forman’s magic**

Lilly showcased the sigil that was made by Forman, worn by Mrs Wright’s first husband, kept in Mrs Wright’s armpit, left to Lilly, and copied and sold by him. Lilly’s history was part of Ashmole’s project to record the history of magic, astrology and alchemy in Britain, a project that led him to preserve, even fetishize and idolize, thousands of pages of manuscripts, including Forman’s. Forman wrote compulsively, spurred by the need to correlate the motions of the stars and planets with the vicissitudes of life in Elizabethan and early Jacobean London. Between 1580 and his death in 1611 he filled more than fifteen thousand pages with details mundane, celestial and divine. Forman’s pursuit of magic is most thoroughly documented in a pair of works dating from his final decade, an alchemical commonplace book ‘Of Appotricarie Druges’ and a series of incomplete essays on ‘the motion of the 3 superiour heavens’ (hereafter ‘The Motion of the Heavens’).

‘Of Appotricarie Druges’ can be read as a record of Forman’s study of ‘chymical’ and ‘hermetical’ physic and a compendium of his expertise in using alchemy, astrology and magic in his medical and related practices. Thirty of its three

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hundred entries mention magical operations or principles specifically and a handful (‘magia naturalis’, ‘ars magnetica’, ‘homunculus’) address magic directly. A majority of these operations were to effect love magic or more malicious influences on a person’s will, and some were for healing. In the entry on ‘Electrum’, a mixture of two or more metals, Forman described the correlation between types of magic and metals:


Under the entry for ‘Spiritus’ he described a hierarchy of spirits corresponding to the elements that could be used to bind, loose, curse, bless, and do harm.23 Sometimes Forman appealed to occult forces in nature, sometimes to spirits; he never mentioned demons. Many entries described astral magic that worked through objects inscribed with images and words. Others described entities typically alchemical, such as the homunculus, mandrake and speaking statue; classically occult natural objects (loadstone, poison from plants, spiders, snakes, toads, and menstrual blood); images made from wax and metals; amulets made from metals, gems, stones and herbs; potions in which such images were soaked or stones and minerals dissolved; human ingredients (urine, hair, blood, menstrual blood, turds, semen); animal ingredients (bones, snakes and eggs); plants and herbs; and manufactured items such as nails, bells and ink. Occasionally Forman recorded incantations and in quite a few entries he discussed the power of words and writing.24 He designated some practices as traditional or old-fashioned, such as determining how well a garment would last according to the phase of the moon when it was first worn. Under ‘Observances and old rules’ he discussed the meaning of thunder.25 Very few operations were divinatory, except a brief account of hazel rods and a device made with a loadstone that could be used to communicate with someone hundreds of miles away. An entry on ‘Prophetes and

22 Ashm. 1494, pp. 483–4; on electrum see also Sloane 3822, fol.7.
23 Ashm. 1491, pp. 1127–8. This scheme followed Michael Psellus, the eleventh-century Byzantine scholar, though Forman attributed it to himself. See also Ashm. 244, fols 73–5.
25 Ashm. 1494, p. 272; Ashm. 1491, p. 830.
prophesyinge’ described the need for a diviner to be physically pure.  

Forman also collected testimonials about the uses of magical objects and substances. Occasionally he had experienced these powers himself: he boiled snakes in a strong water and when he drank it his grey hair turned red again; he drew characters on his left arm and right breast in a semi-permanent ink in order to alter his destiny; the angel Raziel advised him about the virtues of mistletoe that grew on oak trees; and he had to give away the taffeta britches that he first wore during a waning moon. Sometimes he noted gossip, such as when in 1603 a man in Westminster reported that ‘he sawe a mandrake of 7 inches longe with hair down to the feet and under the arm holes, like unto a man in form which was taken by on head [one Head] a constable in turtell street from a witch which was carried to prison for bewitching of Sr Jhon Harizes sonn’. But most of the information in these volumes does not contain verification or instruction. Forman did not privilege experience as a measure of whether or not a power or substance existed, and this compendium documents his collection of details about magic, informed through a lens of alchemical and Paracelsian medicine refined in the final decade of his life. This volume could be read as Forman’s contribution to Baconian natural history, but instead magical pursuits dominated his legacy.

Forman was especially devoted to the study and practice of astral magic, the use of sigils, laminas, rings, and ‘characts’ to harness the powers of the stars. These objects ‘enclosed som parte of the vertue of heaven and of the plannets according to the tyme that it is stamped caste or engraven or written in’. Throughout the 1590s Forman designed numerous magical objects, some for his own use, some for his friends and clients, some to cure disease, some to empower their bearer. In 1597 he prescribed for Jackemayne Vampena, a Dutch woman married to an English merchant, a series of potions, including one in which a ring engraved with the symbol of Jupiter had been immersed. That year he thought he had lost a gold lamina, a flat, metal amulet, which he had worn on his chest, but he found it

26 Sloane 3822, fol. 90v; Ashm. 1491, pp. 1358, 884. For evidence that Forman made such rods, see a record of his wife Jean (still a virgin) cutting eight hazel rods at the appointed hour which were then immediately whitened and inscribed on 8 February 1598: Ashm. 226, fol. 303. The same long-distance communication device, construct–ed slightly differently, was described in a text appended to Ars Notoria: the Notary Art of Solomon, trans. Robert Tanner (London, 1657), pp. 136–8.

27 Ashm. 1491, p. 1278 (mistletoe); Ashm. 1494, pp. 938 (hair), 586v (tattooing), 272 (britches). For a recipe for the ink see Ashm. 1494, p. 402.

28 Ashm. 1494, p. 679.

29 Ashm. 392, fol. 46; see also Ashm. 390, fol. 30.

30 For various laminas see Ashm. 234, fols 96, 99; Ashm. 226, fols 148, 152, 310. For sigils see Ashm. 219, fol. 48; Ashm. 226, fols 148, 249v; Ashm. 363, fols 69v–71. Sloane 3822 is a collection of sigils and texts about them by Forman, Napier, Lilly and Ashmole.

31 Ashm. 411, fols 95, 99v, 115, 118v.
‘behind my back in my doublet’. In 1598 and 1599 he designed a series of rings and sigils made at the requisite times to capture the desired astral properties. One of these rings had a golden setting holding a large coral stone engraved with the sign of Jupiter, under which was wedged a piece of parchment bearing Forman’s name and an inscription of the words and symbols for Virgo and Mercury, the astrological house and its ruling planet at the time of his birth. It was to be worn on the little finger of his left hand, and would protect him against witchcraft and other ills as well as giving ‘favour & credit & to mak on famouse in his profession & to overcom enimies’. In 1601 he designed a sigil made under the sign of Scorpio for one Martha Shackleton. The following year he designed a golden lamina for Jean Sherly that took four days to make and cost £4 13s. In 1611 he sent Richard Napier some brass moulds to make symbols of the planets. Sometime during these years Forman made the sigil that Lilly inherited from Mrs Wright, and in the entry for ‘Sigilla’ in ‘Of Appoticatorie Druges’ Forman recorded the design for the type of sigil that Lilly later described.

Forman recorded incidental details about his use of sigils, and he also wrote about the powers of astral magic. ‘The Motion of the Heavens’, the incomplete essays that he drafted at the same time as compiling ‘Of Appoticatorie Druges’, is a sustained treatment of this subject, combining medieval cosmology, Arabic astral magic and Neoplatonic natural philosophy. Forman explained the analogy between the three superior, celestial heavens, known as the eighth, ninth and tenth spheres, the Trinity, and man. The tenth sphere, or *primum mobile*, moves naturally from east to west, and carries all of the spheres ‘against their own proper and naturalle motions’. The ninth sphere has no natural motion of its own, and as the soul obeys the spirit so the ninth sphere follows the tenth. The eighth sphere contains the fixed stars and has two motions, ‘unnaturally’ from east to west fol-

32 Ashm. 205, fol. 23; Ashm. 226, fol. 166.
33 Ashm. 195, fols 29v, 56v–7v, 58. See Ashm. 219, fol. 48, for details of the timing and costs of a ring and a sigil, one of which was made for Forman’s close friend Alice Blague, and for evidence that Forman might have paid for these partly in kind with his laminas.
34 Sloane 3822, fol. 11. For Forman’s description of how to make an ‘imperialle’ ring or lamina of gold by inserting a piece of peony, bay or vervain and images of a lion, ram and goat and their related astrological symbols on parchment or leather under a ruby, diamond and heliotrope, then suffumigating it and praying, see Sloane 3822, fol. 77v.
35 Ashm. 411, fol. 58v. This might be the same Mrs Shackleton whose coat of arms Forman described as having been made for her burial on 7 January 1608: Ashm. 802, fol. 207v. For Forman’s account of a sigil of similar design, see Sloane 3822, fol. 96.
36 Sloane 3822, fols 13–15. For details of the other rings and sigils that he made that year and the next see Sloane 3822, fols 16–19.
37 Ashm. 240, fol. 106. Forman indicated that someone else would have made the sigils.
38 Sloane 3822, fol. 94.
lowing the tenth sphere, and ‘naturally’ such that its equinoxes vary by eight degrees.\textsuperscript{40} Forman stressed that a proper understanding of these motions was essential for making astrological calculations and enacting magical operations. While the ninth sphere is filled with symbols and spirits, he argued, ‘the influences operations and effects magica\textae\ae are in and done by the 8 heaven and not by the 9 heaven and primo mobile’. This is why the distinction between the natural and unnatural motions of the eighth sphere was important: ‘all influences natural do come from and proceed from the 8 heaven and from the fixed stars therein, and from the planets moving under the 8 heaven according to nature and natural workinge’.\textsuperscript{41} Forman made detailed calculations about the differing motions of the eighth sphere because they were essential for determining the timing at which to make rings, images, sigils, and swords that could be used to cure diseases, expel vermin, dogs and wolves, vanquish a man’s enemies, and improve or hinder his fortune.\textsuperscript{42} He also specified that the hours of the day could be calculated by dividing the period from midnight to midnight into 24 equal periods, the hours of daylight into twelve, or by basing one’s calculations on the ascension of the ecliptic line of the eighth heaven. The first sort were natural hours, the second artificial, and the third magical; sigils were to be made according to the magical hours.\textsuperscript{43} Seven decades later Ashmole collected Forman’s papers, had them bound in leather into thick volumes with brass clasps, and carefully studied his writings on sigils.\textsuperscript{44}

**Forman’s legacy: alchemy, astrology and magic**

In ‘Of Appoticarie Drugs’ and ‘The Motion of the Heavens’ Forman records information old and new, from books and experience, an eclecticism informed by Paracelsianism and years of experience as an astrologer-physician and student of magic and alchemy in London. When he died in 1611, Richard Napier, his astrological protégé, soon acquired most of his papers.\textsuperscript{45} Within a month of receiving them, Napier tested a recipe for potable gold from ‘Of Appoticarie Drugs’, noting his approval in the margin.\textsuperscript{46} He often shared his books, and ‘Of Appoticarie Drugs’ bears evidence of other readers. For instance, in an entry on

\textsuperscript{40} Ashm. 244, fols 35–47.
\textsuperscript{41} Ashm. 244, fols 40v, 46.
\textsuperscript{42} Ashm. 244, fol. 48.
\textsuperscript{43} Ashm. 244, fols 91–2.
\textsuperscript{44} C.H. Josten, ed., *Elias Ashmole, Autobiographical and Historical Notes, Correspondence, and Other Sources* (5 vols, Oxford, 1966), i, p. 210; iii, p. 1208; iv, pp. 1454–5, 1809.
\textsuperscript{46} Ashm. 1494, p. 145.
antimony Thomas Robson made a correction which he marked with his name.\textsuperscript{47} Robson probably also wrote the hash marks in the margins to denote which passages he had copied from these volumes into other notebooks.\textsuperscript{48} Others occasionally added their hands to the text without recording their identities or purposes in reading. Decades later Ashmole inserted a brief entry describing how to make a disappearing re-appearing ink.\textsuperscript{49}

When Lilly wrote the history of his life in 1668, at the request of Ashmole, he drew on the legacy of Forman, a legacy traced through rumour and manuscripts and linking himself and Ashmole in their pursuit of the natural and social histories of astrology, alchemy and magic in early modern England. Lilly read many of Forman’s manuscripts, probably either when he visited Napier in Great Linford, Buckinghamshire throughout 1632–3, or after Sir Richard Napier. Napier’s nephew, had inherited them in the 1630s.\textsuperscript{50} He also heard about Forman from Margery Wright and from Forman’s widow, known as Ann, Jean, and Forman’s pet name for her, ‘Tronco’. Lilly’s story of his life as an astrologer is punctuated with digressions about the skill and integrity of other practitioners in astrology and alchemy and the successes of various scryers, including John Dee’s assistant, Edward Kelley.\textsuperscript{51} The story of the sigil in the armpit sparks the first digression, and Forman is its subject. Lilly praised Forman’s astrological integrity: but he insinuated that Forman was an old-fashioned, ill-educated magician, noting that Margery Wright had habitually consulted cunning or wise men ‘as were then called’. Forman was ‘judicious and fortunate’ in horary questions such as thefts, and sickness was his ‘masterpiece’. He was meticulous and thorough in his calculations, and ‘had he lived to methodize his own papers, I doubt but that he would have advanced the Iatromathematical part thereof very completely’. Despite his calculations, Lilly continues, Forman had difficulty in his pursuit of the philosophers’ stone and his own preferment. Elsewhere Lilly noted that according to Margery Wright, Forman was very successful in his conferences with spirits; he also, according to Lilly, had a book that he ‘made the devil write with his own hand in Lambeth Fields 1596’ and he predicted his own death.\textsuperscript{52}

About his own life, Lilly reports that he himself first began to study magic in

\textsuperscript{47} Ashm. 1494, p. 62.
\textsuperscript{48} Many volumes of Robson’s notes on alchemical texts are preserved in the Ashmole and Sloane collections.
\textsuperscript{49} Ashm. 1494, p. 552. For notes probably by Ashmole see Ashm. 1494, p. 85; Sloane 3822, fol. 84v. Ashmole might also have book-marked items, as the entry on ‘Karacters’ is presently marked with a slip of paper bearing numbers and astrological houses seemingly in Ashmole’s hand: Ashm. 1494, p. 586.
\textsuperscript{51} Lilly, \textit{Life}, pp. 221–7.
\textsuperscript{52} Lilly, \textit{Life}, pp. 42–4.
1634, the year after his first wife died. He bought a copy of the Ars Notoria, and he admits (‘I do ingenuously acknowledge’) that he used the art briefly before giving it up.\footnote{53} His disillusionment with magic began when he went on a hunt for treasure in a ruined abbey using dowsing rods, but too many people were present, demons were let loose and had Lilly not dismissed them the abbey would have collapsed.\footnote{54} Then he advised a woman in matters of love, divining where she might meet her estranged lover, and she nearly poisoned herself. Following these mishaps, Lilly ‘burned his books which instructed in these curiosities’ and moved to the country.\footnote{55} But Lilly tells us that in 1634–5 he taught John Hegenius, a Dutch physician and astrologer, his ‘art in framing Sigils, Lames &c. and the use of the Mosaical rod’.\footnote{56} Lilly had probably learned about sigils from some books and moulds that had been stashed by one Mathias Evans in the wall of his house, only to be discovered by a later occupant; Ashmole noted that Lilly had bought these for five shillings.\footnote{57}

**Lilly, Ashmole, and antiquarianism**

Lilly recounted the story of Forman’s amulet, noted his lack of method (at which Lilly excelled) but extreme diligence in the science of astrology, and described the interest in spirits to which he too, briefly, had succumbed. Without saying any more about Forman’s sigil, he quietly reported his own expertise in the casting of sigils, stressing, like Forman, that astrology was essential to all other arts. He noted his and Ashmole’s pursuit of books and manuscripts, and reported on his study of Forman’s astrological figures and accounts of his life. Through stories about the occult practitioners that he had known or heard about and the curious events that he had experienced, Lilly, like Forman, portrayed astrology, alchemy and magic as related arts. Lilly, however, did not people his account with mandrakes and homunculi, or even magnets and menstrual blood. At the request of Ashmole he recorded the materials for a social history of magic in England, and in so doing he stressed his own practices, said nothing about the natural history of magic, and perhaps taunted Ashmole with details such as his having sold Forman’s golden sigil, burned some books, and visited a wood filled with fairies.\footnote{58} Perhaps Lilly was suggesting that the antiquarian pursuit of magic was no more than the stuff of romance.

\footnote{53} Lilly, *Life*, p. 76.  
\footnote{54} Lilly, *Life*, pp. 78–81.  
\footnote{55} Lilly, *Life*, p. 83.  
\footnote{56} Lilly, *Life*, p. 221.  
\footnote{58} Lilly, *Life*, pp. 34, 83, 228.
Lilly and Ashmole had met in 1646, soon after Ashmole had begun to study astrology, alchemy, natural history and other subjects and to acquire related books and manuscripts. Ashmole’s fortune improved in 1649 with his marriage to Lady Manwaring, and he began to collect coins and medals, then from the 1650s to study heraldry and collect portraits, antiquities and curiosities artificial and natural. Through texts, images and objects, Ashmole preserved the relics of the history of Britain and the lives of his countrymen, materials forgotten or desecrated by his contemporaries. His collection of magical texts dates from 1648 at the latest, when he and Lilly swapped their copies of the Picatrix, an Arabic book of magic circulating in manuscript. In 1649 Ashmole transcribed a treatise entitled ‘Three books on natural magic’. He also used these texts: in July 1650, for instance, following directions attributed to Paracelsus, he made a magic speculum to see things in the past and present. A few days later he made four sigils to drive away caterpillars, flies, fleas and toads, and in September he made sigils against the pox. Those against vermin were made from lead, took the shape of the creature, were void of characters, and were cast during a conjunction of Saturn and Mars. Those against the pox took the form of genitalia and were cast during a conjunction of Venus and Mars.

That same year Ashmole acquired a number of magical books and manuscripts, including one on Arabic talismans and another on calling spirits. In 1651 he prepared Theatrum Chemicum Britannicum for publication. This included


60 Josten, Ashmole, i, p. 53; ii, p. 466. Lilly’s copy might have come from Sir Richard Napier.

61 Ashm. 358. Black attributes this text to Ashmole and Josten disagrees: Josten, Ashmole, ii, p. 490.

62 Josten, Ashmole, i, p. 72; ii, p. 536.

63 Josten, Ashmole, ii, pp. 537, 545–9.

64 Josten, Ashmole, ii, pp. 594, 608, 619. He also describes sigils with embracing couples on one side and words (Hagiel, Graphiell) on the other: Josten, Ashmole, ii, p. 608. For Forman’s description of a sigil against rats, see Sloane 3822, fol. 102v.

65 Josten, Ashmole, ii, p. 537n.
Thomas Norton’s ‘Ordinal of Alchemy’, and Ashmole glossed the line ‘But the chief Mistris among sciences all/for the helpe of this art, is magic naturall’ with a five-page essay on the subject. Following Paracelsus, Agrippa, Francis Bacon and others he distinguished ‘True Magicians’ from ‘Conjurers, Necromancers and Witches’. He lamented the false accusations of demonic magic made against scholars in previous centuries, and he stressed that natural magic did not require incantations, words, circles, charms or other ‘invented fopperies’; but he did not proscribe the use of magical objects.66

Around 1668 Ashmole and Lilly swapped stories about their lives and their experiences with magic. Lilly studied Ashmole’s nativity and noted that though an educated gentleman, Ashmole was expert in casting medals and sigils. Ashmole asked Lilly to write an account of his life and times, which he did.67 Then Ashmole asked Lilly to elaborate on the details of who was present and what happened during the magical activities that he described.68 Around this time Lilly also sent Ashmole a trunk full of sigils that had belonged to one ‘Lord Bothwell’, then Sir Robert Holborn, the lawyer and astrological enthusiast who had died in 1648. Ashmole recorded the designs of several sigils, rings and stones by impressing them in wax.69 When Sir Richard Napier died in 1676 Ashmole bought his collection, including Forman’s papers, from his son, Thomas. He studied Forman’s writings, and from 1677 he made dozens of sigils, some to improve his fortune, some to stop his wife from vomiting, and most to drive vermin from his house and garden.70 He compiled lists of titles of Forman’s treatises, noted works that he cited, re-copied damaged pages, and indexed figures that he had cast about the weather and the making of sigils.71 Ashmole studied Forman’s notes on sigils with particular care. For instance, throughout the entry on ‘Amulets’ in ‘Of Appoticarie Drugs’ he systematically noted whether Forman’s calculations were based on natural or artificial hours, and Ashmole likewise included these two sorts of time throughout his records for making sigils from late in 1677.72 He also annotated Forman’s essays in ‘The Motion of the Heavens’, paraphrased them, and checked

68 Josten, Ashmole, i, p. 62; iii, pp. 1113–15.
69 On the trunk of sigils see Josten, Ashmole, iii, p. 1076; Thomas, Religion and the Decline of Magic, pp. 634–5. On Holborn, see Josten, Ashmole, ii, p. 471. On impressions: Josten, Ashmole, iv, pp. 1233, 1288. The former example is explicitly magical, while the latter might have had magical or heraldic values.
71 Ashm. 421, fol. 152; Ashm. 1790, fol. 102; Sloane 3822, fol. 20.
72 Sloane 3822, fols 6–19; Josten, Ashmole, iv, p. 1508.
Forman’s figures against other sources, at one point finding Forman’s calculations lacking in comparison with those included in Edward Sherburne’s *The Sphere of M. Manilius* (1675).\(^7\) In a letter to Anthony Wood a decade later, Ashmole described Forman as ‘a very able Astrologer and Phisitian, as appears by the manuscript bookes he left behinde him, which are now in my possession’.\(^7\) Hundreds of sigils were probably numbered amongst the almost nine thousand silver, brass and copper coins and medals that Ashmole lost, along with impressions of heraldic seals, printed portraits, notes on history and heraldry and other antiquities and curiosities, in the fire in the Middle Temple in 1679. That his collection of manuscripts and gold coins (less precious but more valuable) survived because Ashmole kept them at his house in South Lambeth was an irony that neither he nor Lilly could have foreseen.\(^7\)

Lilly had inherited a tradition of magic from Forman that was tied to astrology and dominated by the uses of sigils and a curiosity about scrying. Ashmole collected the relics of Forman’s and Lilly’s expertise. From Lilly he received stories to chronicle the progress of astrology and encounters with spirits, demons and fairies. Forman’s reputation and papers might have inspired him to perfect the art of making sigils and certainly informed his understanding of the motions of the heavens and their importance for magical operations. For Ashmole, Lilly, and Forman, the value of magic inhered in knowledge and expertise, knowledge most often used to make sigils that harnessed astral powers. Magical objects, the texts that described them and documented their uses, and knowledge about how they worked, followed distinct paths of transmission between practitioners, clients and friends, and across generations. Objects might shed occult powers and they and their legacies acquire historical value; the meaning of texts and the expertise they conveyed was more enduring. Whether magic was distinguished from religion in terms of coercion or supplication; whether a new type of contemplative, spiritual magic was defined that achieved divine enlightenment instead of Faust’s mundane powers and pleasures; whether the magus, no longer a priest, aspired to a clerical role; whether religion and magic together were moved from the church to the home; in seventeenth-century England magical objects were disenchanted not only because of Baconian natural histories, but because of Ashmole’s antiquarianism. He knew that his collections were channels for conversations with the dead and that his sigils worked by magic.

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\(^7\) Ashm. 1790, fols 78–100; Ashm. 421, fols 149r–v. For his annotations, see especially Ashm. 244, fols 50, 51v, 92, 96–7v, 99v; 107v.
\(^7\) Josten, *Ashmole*, iv, p. 1809.
The Economy of England is the largest economy of the four constituent countries of the United Kingdom. England is a most highly industrialised country. It is an important producer of textiles and chemical products. Although automobiles this changed when the canals and railways began to be built, in the late 18th Century and early 19th Century. England became the world's first industrialised nation, with the industrial revolution taking place in the late 18th Century. This was also the age of British overseas expansion, where England relied upon colonies (such as America, Canada, or Australia) to bring in resources such as cotton and tobacco. English factories then processed the goods and sold them on in both the quickly growing domestic market or abroad. Overview of the economy of England during the Middle Ages. Fairs and the rise of the chartered company.[12] Together with improvements in metalworking and shipbuilding, this represents the end of the medieval economy, and the beginnings of the early modern period in English economics.[13]. Contents. 1 Invasion and the early Norman period (1066–1100). 1.1 Agriculture and mining. 1.1.1 English agriculture. William the Conqueror invaded England in 1066, defeating the Anglo-Saxon King Harold Godwinson at the Battle of Hastings and placing the country under Norman rule. This campaign was followed by fierce military operations known as the Harrying of the North in 1069–70, extending Norman authority across the north of England. Economy of England. Quite the same Wikipedia. Just better. Economy of England. How Rich is United Kingdom - Inside UK Economy Documentary. The Tudors: Henry VII - Economy of England - Farming, Industry, Trade and Exploration - Episode 11. Transcription. Contents. This changed when the canals and railways began to be built, in the late 18th century and early 19th century. England became the world's first industrialised nation, with the Industrial Revolution taking place in the late 18th century. This was also the age of British overseas expansion, where England relied upon colonies (such as India, America, Canada, or Australia) to bring in resources such as cotton and tobacco. The Economy of the Early Roman Empire Peter Temin Draft 2.2. Why should economists be interested in the economics of ancient Rome? The Roman literature we read and the ruins we visit suggest that there was a flourishing and apparently prosperous economy two millennia ago. A prominent ancient historian estimated that the Italian peninsula was about 30 percent urbanized in the early Roman Empire (Hopkins, 1978, p. 68). Using urbanization as an index of per capita income suggests that GDP per capita in Roman Italy was comparable to that in the late 17th century in England and Holland, the most advanced European economies before the Industrial Revolution. This very rough index is supported by an equally rough calculation of real wages, defined as wages divided by the.
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'Religion and the Decline of Magic' Relationship between religion & magic. By the end of the period they were distinct from one another - due to opposition & the rise of science. Magic & witchcraft prosecutions resorted to when they were no alternatives. Diane Purkiss. 'Desire and its deformities' Experience of battle & of the loss of control of one's life led to violent fantasies & deeds of & against the 'witch' - came to represent all that was feared. 'The study of magic in medieval and early modern England has been dominated by its having been located within the study of witchcraft, to the detriment of its study outside the history of witchcraft accusations. Legal histories of treason have similarly marginalised the role of magic. This has led to the virtual ignoring of the relationship between elite magic s significant role in political crime and in accusations of treason against its practitioners. The first book devoted to the study of magic and political crime, Francis Young s new volume substantially redresses this situation. Privileging Gender in Early Modern England. Kirksville: 16th Century Journal Publisher, 1992. Burt, Richard, and John Michael Archer, eds. Religion and the Decline of Magic: Studies in Popular Beliefs in Sixteenth- and Seventeenth-Century England. London: Weidenfeld and Nicolson, 1971. Internet resources The Early Modern Center (Dpt. of English, U of California Santa Barbara) http://emc.english.ucsb.edu/ EEBO: Early English Books Online. Chadwyck-Healey http://eebo.chadwyck.com/home Quelle resources for Historians, Early Modern England Source. http://www.quelle.org/emes/emes.html Tudor Place http://www.tudorplace.com.ar/index.html Related works Harrison, William. a) The early modern economy. How should we describe the economic system at the end of the Middle Ages? What were the most significant changes in the European economy between 1500 and 1750? Did the early modern period witness the beginning of a "global economy"? What was the role of the state in the development of the early modern economy? b) Material culture. To what extent was early modern Europe a 'consumer society'? J. Thirsk, Economic Policy and Projects: The Development of a Consumer Society in Early Modern England (1978). D. Roche, A History of Everyday Things: The Birth of Consumption in France, 1600-1800 (2000). L. Weatherill, Consumer Behaviour and Material Culture in Britain, 1660-1760 (2nd ed. 1996) (ebook). Further reading. Modern popular magic has appeared in the realm of entertainment, generally as a plot device in stories and movies, as tricks aimed at children, and as mysterious sleight-of-hand illusions in magic shows that delight the audience's sense perceptions and challenge their reasoning ability. The fascination with occult knowledge and mystical powers derived from nonmainstream or foreign sources persists in the West in astrological charts in newspapers, theories of interplanetary aliens and government conspiracies to hide them, occult rituals in some New Age religions, and interest in traditional practices that have an esoteric flavour, such as feng shui (geomancy, the traditional Asian practice of aligning graves, homes